An investigation of gender influences on transformational leadership style in the Greek hospitality industry

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ABSTRACT

Although women have increased in management positions in recent years, they are still under-represented proportionally compared to men. The paucity of women in management holding significant roles in organisations initiated research on gender similarities and differences in leadership roles and interest in the relationship between gender and transformational leadership. Male and female managers are found by many to employ different leadership styles, while more recent studies suggest there is little or no difference in the result men and women achieve as leaders. Evidence of research in this area is not conclusive as the findings are based on a limited number of studies, usually conducted in small samples or specific case studies, therefore this study is conducted in response to the need for further research and for more recent evidence.

Transformational leadership has drawn attention from management researchers in the context of hospitality management. This concept includes certain behaviours of leaders who are considered to be role models for their followers, which brings trust and makes them achieve high goals. These leaders motivate with communicating an inspiring vision, often with the use of symbols and emotional appeals. This leadership style has been identified as appropriate and effective in hospitality management. The purpose of this thesis is to explore the nature of the transformational leadership concept and investigate gender differences among female and male managers in their use of transformational leadership in the context of the Greek hospitality industry.

The research took place in Greece focusing on the hotel industry. The research encompasses both quantitative and qualitative approaches considering the views of male and female managers, their peers, subordinates and superiors. The quantitative research used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), which was distributed to the managers' subordinates, peers and superiors, in total 621 participants, to investigate their evaluations on the managers' most exhibited leadership styles. At the same time, the MLQ was given to 30 managers in the study

to self-evaluate their leadership style. Additionally, these 30 hotel managers, both male and female, were interviewed to explore their own perceptions of their leadership style, and their considerations on effective and poor leadership, in an effort to identify relations to the results of the MLQ.

This thesis proposes that transformational leadership style is the most effective leadership style in hospitality management in Greece. This style is found to be statistically significantly effective and to be exhibited similarly by both male and female managers in the study. The findings suggest that male and female managers did not ascribe to their traditional gender roles as they exhibited both masculine and feminine characteristics whenever appropriate, given the circumstances. Therefore, both are found to be effective as long as they exhibit transformational leadership and contingent reward leadership behaviours. No significant differences were shown between male and female leaders in their overall transformational leadership behaviours. Male leaders are found to imitate feminine behaviours in order to be effective and efficient. There were however, significant differences between leaders self-ratings and staff evaluations on different transformational leadership dimensions. Moreover, the model of transformational leadership is found to be applicable to the Greek hospitality management and culture. The findings also suggest that the glass-ceiling phenomenon is evident in the Greek hospitality industry, nevertheless female managers have found ways to overcome the barriers that prevented them from progressing, and the future for them in management seems to be improving as they have started acquiring high managerial positions.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE THESIS

1.1 BACKGROUND RATIONALE AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Although a lot of research has been conducted on leadership, there is not a single or definitive definition of the concept. It is suggested that leadership is considered to be an interaction between group members (Morden, 2004; Barker, 2001; Bass, 1990). Others, such as Adler (1997), Yukl and Ven Fleet (1992), and Cole (1990) view leadership as a process in which the leader influences the followers to perform effectively. Alternatively, authors such as Martin and Ernst (2005), and Torpman (2004) have viewed leadership as a certain behaviour that people adopt in order to meet the goals of the organisation. Other studies propose a variety of traits that are required for someone to be considered a leader (Northouse, 2001). All of the above have also been studied in a specific context and where a leadership style is exhibited. No matter which approach is adopted there is a "common theme that of directing a group towards a goal" (Youssef, 1998:275). Leadership has been viewed in a variety of ways, but regardless the way it is viewed it is considered important for successful and effective managers and organisations.

Further, in studies of leadership effectiveness, it is found that leadership is associated with organisational performance (Youssef, 1998; De Vries, 1996) and impacts on organisational commitment (Wilson, 1995), job satisfaction and performance, thus as Youssef (1998:275) suggests the "leadership style has a consistent influence on the organisation's productivity and profitability". In addition, leadership has been considered an important concept and has received considerable attention particularly in the Western world (Youssef, 1998). Leadership is also found to be linked significantly with organisational structure and culture (Schein, 2001), as according to Horner (1997) leaders should be able to understand and manage organisational culture, to meet organisational goals, to establish a strategic direction and define the organisational vision and values. Finally, more recent views on leadership and leadership effectiveness support transactional and transformational leadership.Thus, transactional leadership is characterised as where the power is given to the leader by

his/her position, and uses followers for task completion, whereas in transformational leadership leaders use ways to motivate followers, where the leaders cope with change. In these views, transformational leadership is highly correlated with success and effectiveness (Lowe and Gardner, 2000). Transformational leaders are found to influence employees' performance and organisational outcomes (Lowe *et al*., 1996) and many have linked it with gender related roles (Bass *et al*., 1996). There are, as can be seen, many views of the key determinants of effective leadership style in organisations.

Whilst some support the view that leadership style and leadership effectiveness are influenced by gender and gender roles, others claim that gender makes no difference. Those who support gender differences on leadership style suggest that gender role stereotypes have been considered to impact on leadership and to contribute to the phenomenon of the glass ceiling (Mihail, 2006). Indeed, there is limited participation of women in managerial positions and many suggest this phenomenon is impacted among others by gender stereotypes and discrimination (Mihail, 2006), biased recruitment and promotion systems (Powell, 1987), gender segregation at work (Galanaki *et al.,* 2009), and family responsibilities. Futhermore, gender role stereotypes are found to be the beliefs about the character and the behaviour that are ascribed to men and women (Alvesson and Billing, 1997) and the inequalities that exist between them. Kark (2004:163) suggests that research focused on sex/gender differences between male and female managers is labeled as 'women in management'. Thus, women for example in these studies are perceived to exhibit transformational leadership (Bass *et al*., 1996; Rosener, 1990), whereas men exhibit transactional approaches (Eagly and Johnson, 1990). Some studies on gender and leadership propose that characteristics and behaviours such as spiritual values, concern for others, non-aggression, in general communal behaviours, are attributed to women, whereas aggressiveness, independence, self-reliance, in general agentic behaviours, are attributed to men and are thought to be the required characteristics for effective leadership and successful leaders (Youssef, 1998). On the one hand, Loden (1985), Eagly (1987) and Eagly *et al*. (1995) found that female leaders are interpersonally oriented. They also claim that others expect female leaders to have

this behaviour, and when they adopt this style they are thought to be successful and effective. On the other hand, women are disadvantaged in these studies compared to their male counterparts, as the male managers are considered to be more effective. In addition Olsson (2000) proposes that masculine behaviours influence leadership and the perception of leadership, whereas Helgesen (1995) and Rosener (1995) suggest that women's leadership style is unique and differs from men's leadership. Therefore, as Eagly and Carli (2007) propose women may find difficulties in pursuing leadership positions, and they may be forced to adopt agentic behaviours; or they are forced to adopt such styles that will convince the others of their power and effectiveness (Catalyst, 2005).

Many studies propose that transformational leadership is related with communal behaviours (for example being concerned of others, caring, nurturing and others) and patterns that gender roles ascribe to women (Carless, 1998; Rosener, 1990). Additionally, Eagly and Johnson (1990) found that women were more democratic - participative in their leadership style, whereas men were more task oriented and Kabacoff (1998) found that males were higher in vision creation than females. Although studies show that the position of women in management and leadership is changing (Wood, 2008; Schein, 2007), stereotypes persist. For example, subordinates are found to perceive that their female managers are more empowering than male managers although both genders may adopt the transformational leadership style (Manning, 2002). Other studies suggest that subordinates find both female and male managers as equally transformational (Carless, 1998).

Concerning the debate on gender differences on leadership and transformational leadership there are also those who found that there are no significant gender differences. These studies propose that there are either no differences or they are very similar. For example, Gardiner and Tiggemann (1999) found that women conform their leadership behaviours more to their male counterparts' leadership styles, especially in male-dominated environments. Eagly *et al.* (2000) in a more recent study suggest that there are similarities in leadership behaviours of women and men who are in the same organisational role.

Many argue that leadership styles and leadership effectiveness are not the same in all contexts, or in all situations since the above factors differentiate the leadership style that the leader will choose to exhibit. For example, effectiveness is found to relate with the way the leader views him/herself, the organisational environment and the subordinates. Eagly *et al*. (1995) in their study found that the two genders are equally effective in their leadership roles. Eagly and Carli (2003) claim that being a male or female leader does not reflect the leader's effectiveness, as leadership talent may exist in either gender. In addition, Weyer (2007) and Bourantas and Papalexandris (1990) claim that there is no difference between male and female managers. Similarly, Galanaki *et al.* (2009:488) propose that the absence of differences is attributed to 'the effort of women to combine their gender role and leader role traits,...which makes their leadership behaviour very similar to the one of their male colleagues'.

Finally, the type of the industry or the sector in which leadership is studied, as well as the organisation's size and type, could influence the leadership style that will be adopted by people (Youssef, 1998). Calas and Smircich (1996) propose that the research on transformational leadership and gender has been found to be limited, additionally, other studies propose that gender has been conceptualized in a simplistic way in relation to leadership and transformational leadership (Kark, 2004). The question is why or whether men or women are more effective in their leadership behaviour, thus as Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) propose the underlying mechanisms that affect the leadership styles exhibited by both genders should be examined, and the culture and context. Finally, Kark (2004) suggests that organisational policies and structures should be studied.

1.2 CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

The study of women in management and leadership style is located in the context of the hospitality industry in Greece. The hospitality context is considered to be different from other sectors, for example Jones (1996:7) suggests that "there are some unique characteristics that make hospitality distinctive enough to make a

research field of its own". The hospitality industry has a service culture that focuses on serving and satisfying the customer, and empowers the employees to solve customer problems (Kotler *et al.*, 2003:42). In view to the above, it is important to present the characteristics of the hospitality and tourism industry. These characteristics of the hospitality and tourism industry differentiate this industry from others that specialize on the production of physical goods. Furthermore, these have implications on the management and the marketing in the industry. Understanding these characteristics helps to explain the skills, competencies and managerial and leadership styles that should be implemented in this industry in order to be effective and successful (Kent *et al.*, 2010). These characteristics represent those that are common to most forms of businesses in the hospitality and tourism industry. The essential point at this stage is to clarify that the product in this industry are services, which according to Middleton and Clarke (2003:41) "are products purchased through an exchange transaction that does not confer ownership but permits access to and use of a service, usually at a specified time in a specified place".

The industry characteristics include intangibility, inseparability, variability and perishability (Kotler *et al.,* 2003; Middleton and Clarke, 2003; Riley, 2003; Sasser *et al.*, 1978 in Biswas and Cassell, 1996:21). As it happens with other services, the services provided in the hospitality and tourism industry cannot be seen, tasted, felt or heard before they are purchased. Lashley *et al.* (2005) suggest that hospitality should be considered as something different and beyond a service encounter. It involves the notion of hospitableness, it can be seen as a two-way process of providing products such as accommodation, food, drinks, as well as an exchange relationship, where people are involved and takes place in specific time frame (Brotherton and Wood, 2001 in Lashley and Morrison, 2001:141-142). For example, when guests leave a hotel they only take with them the experience of staying in the hotel. Therefore, the staff should provide experience and service that will satisfy the customers. Therefore, this service is intangible (Nickson, 2007:77).

Moreover, there are other features of the hospitality and tourism industry that are relevant to managing human resources in this industry. These are the seasonality and

other variations in the pattern of demand, the high fixed costs of operations and the interdependence of tourism products (Middleton and Clarke, 2003:45; Baum, 2006). Riley (2003) and Baum (2006) suggest that there are fluctuations in customer demand; this means that business fluctuates by the week, by the day, by the hour. Therefore, the workers usually have an irregular schedule and work flow, while the organisation must adjust labour supply accordingly.

Additionally, tourism in Greece has been a major contributor to the economy, as its contribution to the GDP in 2009 was above 15 percent. In fact, tourism expenditure is estimated to contribute by 60 percent to the country's income (SETE, 2010:18). In this industry there are a number of challenges in employment; as Keep and Mayhew (1999) propose there are generally low wages, unsocial hours and shift patterns that are not family friendly, men occupy the high-level jobs, pointing to underdeveloped equal opportunities policies in the sector, seasonal employment, and as Ntermanakis (2003:33) claims high levels of labour turnover and difficulties in recruitment and retention of staff exist as the majority of the employees in the industry leave due to personal or family reasons. The glass-ceiling phenomenon persists in this industry, as women face a lot of barriers in their career progression (Duffield, 2002). According to Eurostat (2008) tourism and hospitality provide some opportunities for employment to women, however their share in employment is low. Although women in the UK hold 53 per cent of jobs in hospitality management and 42 per cent of managerial jobs in the restaurant/catering (Hospitality Training Foundation, 2001), they are still disproportionately under represented at senior levels at hospitality management (Doherty, 2004). Moreover, women in hospitality management still face many barriers. For example, there is still occupational and vertical segregation as women mainly hold positions such as waitresses. There is gender stereotyping and women are found to be mainly part-time employees. Further, they face barriers such as poor networking, they participate less in training and other (Li and Leung, 2001). The industry is characterized by long hours, stereotypes (Knutson and Schmidgall, 1999), conflict between work and family (Maxwell, 1997), the old boys network and in general the unique nature of this industry that puts pressure to all staff. In general

women managers have tried hard towards achieving equality in the hospitality industry in terms of facing these barriers (Iverson, 2000).

In addition, research shows that today' s hospitality environment is dynamic and is characterized by uncertainty and unpredictability (Erkutlu, 2008). Within this environment, changes in the workforce and employability are evident. Amongst other factors such as geographical and cultural distances (Nickson and Warhurst, 2001), the increasing numbers of women in employment have changed the face of hospitality organisations. According to the International Labour Office (ILO, 2009) over 200 million of people are employed in the hospitality and tourism industry, but women represent only the 6.4 percent (Duffield, 2002). According to Doherty (2004:434) "women make up 67 per cent of the total UK hospitality workforce", whereas in France "women hold 39 per cent of managerial jobs in French hotels, 37 per cent in Spain and 24 per cent in Italy".

A study by Eurostat (2008) has shown that female employment in the accommodation sector in Greece is very low and this creates an interesting area to study in this thesis. Table 1.1 shows the employment in the sector in Greece.

Table 1.1: Total employment, hotels and restaurants - Greece

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Total	267,9	272,8	277,2	293,9	297,9	279,6	304,2	300,9	317,9
Men	158,5	157,7	151,6	161,8	162,3	149,3	167,6	168,8	173,7
Women	109,4	115	125,6	132,2	135,6	130,3	136,6	132,1	144,2

Source: laborsta.ilo.org/STP/guest

It is evident from the above table that employment in hotels and restaurants in Greece is the 6.94 percent of the employment in the country, which shows the importance of the sector in the employment. Moreover, there are people employed in sectors or by economic activities that are directly or indirectly related with tourism as it has been discussed earlier. It is also evident that women are less in employment in the sector.

Despite the large number of women employed in Greece, relative few research and data exists to show women's position in management in Greece (Mavridis, 2002). Although companies in Greece have started recruiting an increasing number of women, women are kept in lower managerial positions (Mihail, 2006; Ntermanakis, 2003). Petraki-Kottis (1996) suggests that there is very little empirical work on women's underrepresentation in management in Greece. She continues that research has mainly focused on casual observation and individual cases rather than a greater sample. Indeed, research data shows that Greece has the second largest gender employment gap in Europe (Karamessini, 2006; Zartaloudis, 2009), however very little empirical research has been conducted in leadership and management. More specifically research in Greece on female corporate managers is scarce (Papalexandris and Bourantas, 1991; Petraki-Kottis, 1996; Mavridis, 2002). Mihail (2006) suggests that there is lack of empirical research on the position of women in corporate Greece, and proposes that "there are no updated studies that measure to what extent female and male managers are perceived differently in today's Greek labour market" (2006:682). Moreover, Youssef (1998) suggests that there are few studies that have linked leadership with culture, thus it is significant to study the cultural impact on leadership as well as the sectoral context. For example, Bourantas and Papalexandris (1992) have found differences between leadership styles in public and private organisations in Greece. In Greece, for example, the low representation of women in decision-making position is related to the position of women in society (Galanaki *et al.,* 2009). Moreover, unemployment for women is a challenge as in Greece 13.6 percent of women, as opposed to 5.6 percent of men are unemployed (European Commission, 2008). Thus, although career advancement and equal representation of both genders is an issue in Greece (Galanaki *et al.,* 2009), it remains under researched. Further, Galani-Moutafi (2004) indicates that although sociology, economics and antropological research contribute to research in tourism, very little research has been done indirectly in tourism. Therefore, the research on gender in tourism in Greece comes mainly from these areas of study. Nevertheless, she continues that gender in the broader Mediterranean area, is found to "serve as a focal point in accounting for the cultural significance of patterns of work and leisure

consumption, entrepreneurial endeavors, and expression s of sociality" (Galani-Moutafi, 2004:165).

In addition, the position of women in leadership and management has attracted the attention for research in the recent years. Cave and Kilic (2010) suggest that there is little work on the position of women in hospitality employment. However, Pinar *et al*. (2011) claim that research focuses on gender diversity and the status of women in the hospitality industry. Thrane (2007) studied gender-based income disparity as a form of sex discrimination within the hospitality industry. Others, such as Kattara (2005) identified influential factors that prevent female employees from reaching the top managerial positions in hotels in Egypt, such as age, work-family conflict and other. Furthermore, the effectiveness of leadership styles has been a topic for many studies (i.e. Avolio, 1999; Bass and Avolio, 1994; Howell and Avolio, 1993), but as Northouse (2007) suggests few studies are found in leadership effectiveness in hospitality and gender differences in leadership in the hospitality context.

Finally, the majority of businesses in tourism and particular in Greece, are SMEs with concentration mainly in the islands region with very few international hotel chains or other affiliations. These businesses face great competition not only at a national, but also at an international level. The main management style implemented is considered to be authoritative with influence from the patriarchy, which however, slowly changes towards a more participative style, in order to face the competition and the turbulent business environment (Mihail, 2006). Greece is a member of the EU therefore is forced to increase the degree of internationalization of its society, thus values such as professional success; efficiency should be centred to the Greek culture. Kessapidou and Varsakelis (2002) and Mihail (2006) suggest that the increased competition forces Greek organisations to follow modernization. Additionally, they continue the Greek culture is characterized by attitudes similar of those of the Near East European cluster, where hierarchy is evident, and power of control is concentrated in the higher levels of management. The organisational climate is highly valued by employees; 'filotimo' and loyalty to the organisation are evident characteristics thus groups and cliques are formatted in view to the 'extended

family' norm. This culture seems to influence the leadership style adopted, since both the Greek business environment, and the Greek hospitality and tourism industry are considered to be male-dominated contexts.

Interestingly, women in this context are viewed differently than men with sex stereotypes being persistent in organisations that operate in Greece (Mihail, 2006). More importantly, it is suggested that Greek employees are more satisfied when democratic leadership styles are implemented. On the other hand, more recent studies suggest that attitudes towards managers in Greece are irrelevant to the organisational structure, the organisational culture or the department (Galanaki *et al.,* 2009). Modern societies, including Greece, should benefit from the use of women in management since both genders could be considered to be equally gifted. One very successful example is Gianna Angelopoulos-Daskalaki who acted as the president of the bidding and the organizing committee for the 2004 Athens Olympic Games. She has been included among "the 50 most powerful non-US female business leaders, and she is also placed on a Forbes most powerful women list" (World Trade Press, 2010:2). Thus women in Greece can be very successful in business and management.

Despite all the above, little research has been conducted in Greece, regarding management, leadership styles, the position of women in management or hotel management (Galanaki *et al.,* 2009; Mihail, 2006), therefore, it is difficult to make assumptions about the dominant leadership style in the Greek hospitality industry, which will be thoroughly explored and investigated in this thesis.

This thesis then aims to study the paucity of research on women in hospitality management. The context of Greek hotels presents many challenges, providing an interesting area to study gender and transformational leadership. The national culture and the stereotypes that exist in the Greek hotel context provide an interesting and challenging field to study. The Greek hotel sector is a male dominated enviroment (Kourvetaris and Dobratz, 1987) in which gender inequality is evident. Greece has traditionally been viewed as a patriarchal society, where there is unequal distribution of power marginalizing this way men from women. According to Mihail (2006) men

are promoted quicker than women in companies in Greece, therefore they influence the gender stereotypes. In addition, men managers are perceived better than female managers in studies in Greece (Mihail, 2006), therefore stereotypes persist. Nevertheless, little research has been conducted in Greece recently (Mihail, 2006) to emphasize the male and female roles in management and hospitality management. In addition, gender and transformational leadership are considered to be significant since organisations, and especially hotels, operate in a very turbulent and complex environment (Erkutlu, 2008). The leadership style that is more effective in this sector may contribute to address women in management issues and challenges and to help them overcome barriers and the challenges they face in hotel management. Nevertheless, this research explores transformational leadership style that both male and female managers exhibit in the 5* hotel sector in Greece, with a purpose to investigate and identify the most effective leadership behaviours for male and female managers in the Greek 5* hotel sector.

1.3 OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS

This thesis includes eight chapters. Chapters 2 and 3 include the literature review relevant to this thesis. Chapter 2 specifically discusses the literature on leadership, transformational leadership and women in management. It also discusses gender and transformational leadership in order to develop the theoretical framework on which this study is based. The literature suggests that there has been a variety of definitions of leadership, some view it as a process, others refer to the leaders' characteristics and traits or even leaders' behaviours. In addition, others refer to the context in which leadership is exhibited as the constant changes in organisational environment influence the leadership style exhibited by managers. Regardless of the definition, leadership correlates with organisational success and effectiveness, especially transformational leadership, that is found to effectively influence followers' behaviours towards organisational goals in the hospitality sector. Transformational leadership is found to contribute to business success as these leaders define the vision of the company and they share this with their followers. They inspire followers, motivate them and share common visions. This leadership style has been identified in

the literature to be effective and appropriate in the hospitality industry as well. It is an industry with constant change, challenges and fierce competition that demands leaders to inspire staff and to develop such an environment that contributes to employee satisfaction and organisational success.

Chapter 3 discusses gender and transformational leadership. Although women have gained leadership roles, they are still underrepresented in management. This has created a debate in research on whether men and women differ in their leadership style. There are those who claim that there are differences that are found to be significant such as Kabacoff (2001), Eagly (1999), and Rosener (1990), there are others who claim that there are no differences, or if they exist they are not significant (Morgan, 2004; Kent *et al*., 2010). Much of research on gender and leadership and transformational leadership has focused on sex and gender roles, social roles, sex stereotypes, men and women' traits as well as the glass ceiling phenomenon which is found to exist in hospitality management, and influencing the position of women in management and their advancement. All the above are discussed in chapter 4 where the theoretical framework that underpins this study is developed and is focused on the research aim, objectives and research questions.

Chapter 5 discusses the methodology chosen for this thesis research design. It was appropriate to choose survey questionnaire research with the use of the MLQ, as well as semi-structured interviews, that complement the questionnaire. The choice of the hospitality industry in Greece was chosen to be the context in which this study was conducted. The author chose this context as there is paucity of research on gender and transformational leadership. Additionally, the hotel sector is found to provide such an environment for transformational leadership to be developed. Therefore, hotel managers were chosen for the research. Very few women were found in general management positions in this study, that created another interesting factor to study the sector and focus the content of this research.

Finally, Chapters 6 and 7 present the findings and their discussion. The findings suggest that there are no gender-related differences in transformational leadership in

hospitality. However, men and women are found to exhibit transformational leadership behaviours which are found to be effective. Finally, Chapter 8 discusses the implications of this research in management and hospitality management as the findings suggest that transformational leaders are effective in the sector. Both male and female managers exhibit transformational leadership behaviours and imitate the opposite sex behaviours when appropriate. They inspire, motivate, and enhance followers' satisfaction and it is also found to help female managers overcome the barriers they face in management. The culture is changing and women face the challenges of the glass ceiling. Finally, the research limitations and suggestions for future research are presented.

CHAPTER 2: THE NATURE OF LEADERSHIP AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The study of leadership has spanned across cultures, decades, and theoretical beliefs. The definitions and history of leadership theory will be presented in this chapter in an effort to show the various aspects of this concept as well as to discuss the evolving debates about leadership including an attempt to understand the various implications for the future use of leadership.

This chapter presents the concept of leadership in detail. Firstly, early definitions of leadership are provided to show how this concept emerged. Secondly, new leadership theories are discussed to show how leadership has been developed, and how it influences organisations. Finally the various new theories and styles of leadership and more specifically transformational leadership. that exist in contemporary organisations are discussed

2.2 A PREVIEW OF DEFINITIONS OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership has been studied in great extent in various contexts and from different theoretical traditions. On the one hand leadership has been described as a process, on the other hand as a certain human behaviour. No matter how leadership is viewed, it is considered as an important skill for successful and effective managers. Although leadership is a modern concept, the word 'leader' was firstly noted in the Oxford English Dictionary in the year 1300. Later, it was introduced in other writings that referred to the political influence and the control of the British parliament, but it only appear with today's meaning in recent times (Bass, 1990). Since its first introduction there have been more than 350 definitions of the term leadership (Daft, 2005). Defining leadership may be a challenge due to many different definitions that are available; in fact, in an early review in the area, Stogdill (1974) stated that there are

as many definitions as the authors on the subject. Additionally, there are various ways that leadership is viewed making leadership a term that may be vague. The various definitions are briefly discussed in the following paragraphs in order to introduce the concept of leadership. All the studies of leadership raise issues, such as whether leadership is an art or a discipline, how it is created or which the traits of leadership are. All the studies however conclude that leadership is of substantial significance, especially in organisations (Thomas, 2005). For example Rahim (1981) in his study in the US showed that leadership is considered to be very important in organisational behaviour.

Early definitions of leaders tended to view the leader as a focus of group change, activity and process. Cooley (1902 cited in Bass, 1990:11) maintained that "the leader is always the nucleus of a tendency, and (that) all social movements, closely examined, will be found to consist of tendencies having such nuclei". Similarly, Mumford (1906-7 cited in Bass, 1990:11) observed that, "leadership is the preeminence of one or a few individuals in a group in the process of control of societal phenomena".

Furthermore, the concept of personality appealed to several early theorists. Bingham (1927 cited in Bass, 1990) defined the leader as a person who possesses the greatest number of desirable traits of personality and character, while Tead (1929 cited in Bass, 1990) regarded leadership as a combination of traits that enables an individual to induce others to accomplish a given task. Leadership was also seen as an art of inducing compliance. Moreover, leadership is viewed as influencing the conduct of people, or as a process of influence that impacts on the subordinates' attitudes and performance (Bass, 1990). Bass (1990) also continues that leadership has also been viewed as a behaviour, as a form of persuasion, as an interpersonal relation. In reference to persuasion is when leadership is used to shape the expectations and beliefs (Merton, 1969 cited in Bass, 1990), while French and Raven (1956) defined leadership in terms of differential power relationships among members of a group. As early as in 1942 Davis (1942 cited in Bass, 1990:15) referred to leadership as "the

principal dynamic force that motivates and coordinates the organisation in the accomplishment of its objectives".

For Burns (1978), Bennis (1983), Bass (1985a) and Tichy and Devanna (1986), leadership transforms followers, creates vision of the goals that may be attained, and articulates for the followers the ways to attain those goals. Bass (1990) adds that leadership is not only viewed as a process, but also as a role that people play to maintain their relationships. In other words, when leadership is viewed as a process then the process of giving stimuli is discussed, while when it is viewed as a role then the personality and the traits of the leaders are studied. Thus, leadership was viewed as the combination of traits such as persuasion, power, control, and with the achievement of goals, whereas the most recent definitions conceive of leadership in terms of influence relationships, power differentials, persuasion, influence on goal achievement, role differentiation, reinforcement, initiation of structure, and perceived attributions of behaviour that are consistent with what the perceivers believe leadership to be (Bass, 1990).

The first systematic approach in defining leadership dealt with the attributes of great leaders (Northouse, 2001), on their personal characteristics that appeared to be correlated (Morden, 2004) with people's perceptions of effective leadership, following a long European tradition of interest in national leaders (Torpan, 2004). This approach is also known as the 'great man theory' (Northouse, 2001). Leadership was explained by the internal qualities with which a person is born (Bernard, 1926 cited in Horner, 1997). Personality, physical, and mental characteristics were examined in order to identify those people who were born, not made, to be great leaders. The *trait* perspective suggests that certain individuals have special innate or inborn characteristics or qualities that make them leaders, and it is these qualities that differentiate them from nonleaders. Mullins (2005) suggests that leaders in this approach are born not made.

Among the traits ascribed to leaders are physical factors (e.g. height), personality features (e.g. extroversion), and ability characteristics (e.g. speech fluency). Other

traits include intelligence, masculinity, adjustment, dominance, extroversion, and conservatism (Lord *et al*., 1986). Thus, the leaders who have these traits differ from the other members of the group (Morden, 2004). Nevertheless, Bass (1990) claims that a person does not necessarily become a leader by having these traits only, but his leadership is influenced by the characteristics, activities and goals of the followers. However, the trait approach suggests that organisations will work better if people in managerial positions have designated leadership profiles. Organisations can specify the characteristics or traits that are important to them for particular positions and then use personality assessment to determine whether or not an individual fits their needs. Northouse (2001) suggests that managers may analyse their own traits and gain an idea of their own strengths and weaknesses. The early definitions on leadership show that leadership was viewed in terms of leaders' traits and how these influenced their subordinates behaviours. However, more recent definitions of leadership view it as a process, a behaviour, an interaction of people, or they identify traits for leaders and they may study all the above in a specific context. Evidently, leadership is a multi dimensional concept.

In addition, leadership has been included in managerial roles (Mintzberg, 1973), while others have developed the definition and refer to the process of social influence where people are geared towards a goal (Bryman, 1986). Furthermore, Kotter (1988:16) defined leadership as "the process of moving a group (or groups) of people in some direction through (mostly) nocoercive means". He acknowledged that the word might refer to people who are expected to occupy the position of the leader within a group. In view to this suggestion, Barker (2001) proposes that Kotter refers to a 'great man' who does things to verify his position. Although, leadership is studied based on the interaction between the leaders and staff, others have studied leadership in terms of processes. For example, Cole (1990 cited in Morden, 2004:200) defined leadership as a "dynamic *process* in which one individual influences others to contribute to the achievement of the group task". Later, Yulk and Van Fleet (1992:149) defined leadership as

> a process that includes influencing the task objectives and strategies of a group or organisation, influencing people in the organisation to implement

the strategies and achieve the objectives, influencing group maintenance and identification, and influencing the culture of the organisation.

The above definition proposes that the group's mission is similar to the organisational objectives. Thus, leadership is all about influencing people to perform tasks, implementing strategies and meeting goals. According to Adler (1997) leadership can be viewed as something more than role and process, more than the extent to which a particular leader has been influential.

Others, such as Martin and Ernst (2005), view leadership as certain *behaviour* in leadership situations. They claim that it is established that leadership is not an internal quality of certain persons, but effective leadership can be taught and learnt (Saal and Knight, 1988 cited in Torpman, 2004) therefore, the intention of the behavioural theorists was to identify determinants of leadership so that people could be trained to be leaders (Armandi *et al.,* 2003). Martin and Ernst (2005) claim that leadership is seen as the outcome of the interactions between groups of people, and it denotes a particular type of behaviour. If leadership is viewed as a behaviour, then they claim that it can be associated with the process of influence of members of a group towards a goal. According to Thomas (2005) this behaviour may either be voluntary or involuntary and the distinction between the two is not very clear. However, this distinction is less important than the general idea that leading is centrally concerned with influence. The interaction of people in leadership behaviour leads to direction, commitment, and alignment. Although, the leader's behaviour may be studied, high consideration is placed on subordinate satisfaction and the group performance (Northouse, 2010). Studies show that the leader's behaviour varies upon situational factors, therefore, it is difficult to identify all the varying behaviours in specific contexts (Northouse, 2001). Moreover, many contingencies can be cited as moderators in the relationships (Bass, 1990), whereas appropriate leader types are moderated by situational constraints.

Attention to leadership as a behavioural category has drawn attention to the importance of *leadership style*. The leader's style varies according to the work situation (Northouse, 2001) and it focuses on what leaders do, and on how they act

(Morden, 2004). The main styles are the authoritarian or autocratic style, the democratic and the laissez-faire (Mullins, 2005:291). The authoritarian or autocratic style is when the manager has the focus of power, exercises all the decision-making, controls the rewards and the punishments and is concerned about performance (Northouse, 2010). The democratic style is when the manager interacts with the group, leadership is shared with the group, and in general the group members have a greater say in decision-making and opinions and views are shared in the group (Northouse, 2010; Bass, 1990). Finally, the laissez-faire style is the style where the manager observes that members of the group are working well on their own, this leader abdicates responsibility, delays decisions, gives no feedback, and makes little effort to help followers satisfy their needs (Northouse, 2001). The style approach reminds leaders that their actions toward others occur on a task level and a relationship level. According to Northouse (2001) leaders, can use the style approach, to assess their actions and determine how they may wish to change to improve their leadership style.

Bass (1990:19) defines leadership as "an *interaction* between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of the members". Barker (2001) identified two main errors in Bass' studies, and he claims that Bass' views suggest that the leader has continuously this role, and that the leader's role and behaviour will bring the outcome expected. Moreover, Armstrong (1990 cited in Morden, 2004) defined leadership in terms of getting things done through people. He claims that all managers are by definition leaders in that they can only do what they have to do with the support of their team, who must be inspired or persuaded to follow them. Others later viewed leadership as an ideology (Gemmill and Oakley, 1992) that supports the social order in which leaders and their followers collaborate and interact in experimental ways. Barker (2001) claims that this view is based on the leader's traits, and in general he supports the view that it is not necessary to define leadership, but it is important to explore the notion of leadership and how people in groups acquire this position and show their leadership abilities, therefore, how leaders and their followers interact.

The interaction of the leaders and the followers influences the level of activities. As Bass (1990) proposes when this happens high level of activity is evident. Thus, the focus is on the function of leadership, which is almost always present, when a group is engaged in a task. Thus, the leader's behaviour and how it influences the behaviour of staff is the focus (Mullins, 2005). Roby (1961 cited in Bass, 1990) suggests that the functions of leadership are based on the goal to be achieved, the balance of the existing resources, the group's structure and the interaction in the group. Furthermore, Kotter (1990) proposes that organisations seek people or managers who have the potential to become leaders; and they will be able to interact with group members and lead them towards meeting the organisational goals. In this view Whitehead (2002) also suggests that leaders are not born, they are made.

The situational approach concentrates on the importance of the *situation* or the *context* in the study of leadership. According to Morden (2004) the situational approach suggests that leadership behaviour must be relevant to the situation. Not only because the situation varies but also because people may emerge as leaders depending on the situation or the context (Northouse, 2010). According to Bass (1990) in this approach the leader is born, not made. From this perspective, leadership effectiveness requires the leader to adapt his or her style to the demands of different situations or circumstances. According to Morden (2004:211) and Northouse (2001:59) in order to determine what is needed in any particular circumstances, the leader must diagnose and understand the nature prevailing of the event characteristics, or the demands of the situation under consideration, evaluate the capability of the group to perform the tasks involved in that situation, and understand their likely response to it, identify and understand the relative degree of individual and group motivation and commitment to perform the tasks involved in that situation and apply a leadership style that may most effectively bring about a congruence (or match) between these three variables in order successfully to accomplish the task within its specific situational context. Nevertheless, there are people who possess the appropriate knowledge and skills and appear to be the most suitable leaders in a given situation, but who do not emerge as effective leaders. This

approach does not fully explain the interpersonal behaviour or the different styles of leadership and their effect on members of the group (Yukl, 2002).

There is extensive research done exploring leadership in different contexts, for example in different national cultures, even contrasting regional groupings (Storey, 2004). For example Mellahl (2000 cited in Storey, 2004:18) studied the differences between understandings of leadership in Anglo-Saxon, Arab and Asian traditional cultural values. Additionally, the importance of an industry sector has been studied i.e. Daresh and Male (2000) who studied headteachers as leaders in the US and the UK. Finally, the organisational context has been studied as a variable that influences leadership (Storey, 2004; Northouse, 2010).

As Barker (2001) and Higgs (2003) propose the construct of leadership lacks a common and established definition. In the final analysis, most definitions of leadership reflect the assumption that it involves a process whereby intentional influence is exerted by one person over other people to guide, structure, and facilitate activities and relationships in a group or organisation. Other definitions assume that leadership occurs in a group context, so it involves influencing a group of individuals who are in some way inter-related or interacting in some kind of purposive manner. Another assumption is that leadership is goal directed. In short, leadership has been viewed as a process or function of individuals, whose needs and wills are considered in the implementation of leadership. Others have seen leadership as a dynamic process to adapt and progress. Summarising the above, one could say that leadership is a process when one individual influences a group to achieve a common goal.

2.3 TOWARDS THE NEED FOR NEW LEADERSHIP STYLES

Although there have been many different definitions of leadership, it seems that leaders have to adapt to increasing business competitiveness in order to be able to revitalize and transform organisations to face the changing business environment. In view of this, Horner (1997) proposed that organisations are facing many changes in

their operations as well as in how work is done, and they rely more on creativity and vision than before. Later, Armandi *et al.* (2003:1079) agreed that visionary leaders may create "a realistic, credible and attractive vision for the future of the organisation that improves upon the present situation". Due to these changes organisations have reviewed the concept of leadership, since the leaders' characteristics may not be the most appropriate in today's changing environment. In addition, Wilson *et al.* (1994 cited in Horner, 1997:277) state that

> one of the greatest changes in our business world is the transformation of an industrial-based economy into an information-based economy. Therefore, capitalising on the talents and intellectual potential of employees is increasingly important for organisational success.

Thus, a more competitive world has forced many organisations to change and operate differently in a less stable environment. According to Conger (1999) those organisations that followed change, found that it was a difficult and demanding process, since people in organisations have to take ideas to the market, respond to changes internally and externally and move faster. Therefore, a different mindset and skills are required for today's leaders in organisations that constantly change in terms of structure and organisation. Katzenback (1998) sugggest that globalisation, information availability, and increased competitiveness have changed the way organisations function and respond. In other words, organisations should be flexible and respond to the new demand for products and services.

A further challenge for organisations is declining or unstable employee commitment (Conger, 1999). In an effort to face the changing environment and competition, companies have resorted to downsizing as well as to new organisational arrangements such as flatter hierarchies and strategic business units. In view to this, Conger (1999:147-148) proposes that "the challenge became the question of how to orchestrate transformational change while simultaneously building employee morale and commitment". Furthermore, Martin and Ernst (2005) claim that these changes and challenges focus on the need to acquire new knowledge, resources and organisational perspectives; these can be influenced by outside forces and thus a new leadership is necessary. They continue that these new challenges have influenced the leadership processes. The focus of leadership is on direction, alignment and

commitment, that impact on the organisation. That implies that contemporary definitions of leadership are required, as well as contemporary approaches on how leaders should apply leadership. New leadership approaches refer to adaptation to change, vision and charisma and as Maddock (2002:12) suggests there is demand for "transformative styles of management and leadership". She continues that in this modern era those involved with management should be confident, good at networking, have good communication and critical appraisal skills, have vision and passion to implement new practices. In addition, they should be able to engage with change, lead change and transformation.

Even though these challenges are contemporary, Burns as early as in 1978 introduced his rationale for exploring a new perspective; he was clearly trying to imply that leadership is something different from leaders, that is, leader traits and behaviours. He (1978:425) defined leadership as

> the reciprocal process of mobilizing, by persons with certain motives and values, various economic, political and other resources, in a context of competition and conflict, in order to realise goals independently or mutually held by both leaders and followers.

As Bryman (1992) proposes the new leadership therefore, emphasizes the interpersonal processes between leaders and followers. This new leadership includes the charismatic leadership perspective (House, 1977), the visionary theories (Kouzes and Posner, 1995; Bennis and Nanus, 1985), the charismatic views (Conger and Kanungo, 1987), the value-based aspect of leadership (House, 1996) and finally the theory of transformational and transactional leadership (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978). All these different aspects on contemporary leadership have common characteristics since they discuss how the leaders motivate staff, they explain how leaders may achieve high staff loyalty and performance, and they stress how leaders behave in a visionary, empowering, role modeling and supportive style as well as they explore the variables of follower satisfaction and performance (Hunt, 1999; House, 1996; Bryman, 1992). The focus on leadership changed towards the identification of leaders who have the power and the resources to implement leadership in the organisational change (Rafferty and Griffin, 2004).

It is evident that current issues and challenges in organisations such as globalization, competition, increasing uncertainty and other, have forced leaders to practice a different contemporary leadership style in order to reflect their effectiveness within the new structural and cultural changes that these organisations face such as delayering, downsizing and the complex society. The focus therefore, has shifted towards transformational and transactional leadership in an effort to study a new leadership style (Rafferty and Griffin, 2004) and that could be more valid in crises and in the new business environment as they will be discussed in the following.

2.4 TRANSACTIONAL AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

The transformational and transactional leadership theory emerged from the studies of Burns (1978) on various political leaders. In his study, he explored the literature on traits, leadership styles and the leaders' behaviours as well as their followers. He distinguishes between two types of leadership: transactional and transformational. Bass (1985) expanded Burns' studies on the two styles of leadership, and he suggests that transformational leadership complements transactional leadership, and therefore, leaders should have both styles. However, Howell and Bass (1992) offered a list of organisational and task conditions likely to affect the emergence of transactional leadership as an exchange relationship, and of transformational leadership as charismatic, inspirational and intellectually stimulating. Moreover, Kuhnert and Lewis (1987) suggest that transactional leadership occurs when one person is contacting others to make a valued exchange.

2.4.1 Components of transactional and transformational leadership

The components of transactional and transformational leadership are described in detail in this section. The model has been developed by Bass and Avolio (1994) in order to provide a clear understanding of the two leadership styles. Their model is illustrated in Figure 2.1, and it shows the full range of Bass' (1985) leadership model.

Figure 2.1: <u>Full range of leadership model</u>
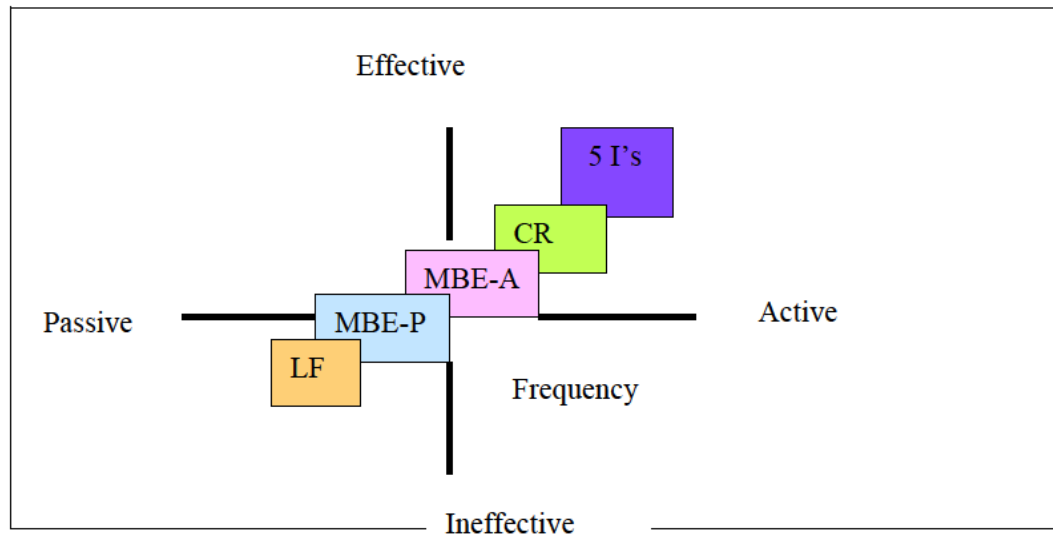
Non-Leadership	
LF	Laissez-faire
Transactional	
MBE-P	Management-By-Exception Passive
MBE-A	Management-By-Exception Active
CT	Contigent reward
Transformational 4 I's	
II	Idealised Influence (Idealised attributes and Idealised behaviours)
IM	Inspirational Motivation
IS	Intellectual Stimulation
IC	Individualised Consideration

Source: Bass and Avolio (1994)

The transformational leader motivates people to do more than the expected by raising followers' level of consciousness about the importance or relative priority of the goals with which they are being presented by the leader (Bass, 1985; Bass 1990 cited in Morden, 2004). The leader transforms and motivates followers by generating greater awareness of the importance of the purpose of the organisation and task outcomes. He/she motivates them to increase their self-interests for the sake of the organisation or team and activate their higher-level needs. Transformational leaders are considered to have all the main characteristics of effective leaders (Conger, 1999), nevertheless, Bass and Avolio (1990) claim that transformational leadership has four basic components; the idealised influence, the inspirational motivation, the

intellectual stimulation and the individualised consideration, which enable leaders to transform their organisations.

The *idealised influence* involves the charisma of the leader and the respect and admiration of the followers, by showing them they can accomplish more than they thought they could. Leaders create a base for making it possible to ask people to do more. According to Northouse (2001) it describes leaders as strong role models for followers. These leaders usually have high standards of moral and ethical conduct and provide a vision for followers. It sees whether the leader is viewed as focusing on higher-order ideals and ethics (Antonakis *et al*., 2003). Sometimes it includes attributed charisma (Bass, 1998).

The *inspirational motivation* describes the behaviour of the leader, which provides meaning and challenge to the work of the followers, to motivate people and generate enthusiasm, to make followers committed to the organisation and part of the vision. It is important to mention at this stage that team spirit is enhanced by this type of leadership (Northouse, 2001). It refers to charismatic actions of the leader that are centered on values, beliefs, and a sense of mission (Antonakis *et al*., 2003). The leaders inspire their followers and provide them with emotional support to create emotional appeals and thus to inspire their followers to exceed the given expectations (Dubrin, 2001).

The *intellectual stimulation* refers to leaders who solicit new and novel approaches for the performance of work and creative problem solutions from followers. Lowe *et al*. (1996) and Bass (1985) suggest that this is the most underdeveloped component of transformational leadership. It encompasses behaviours that increase followers' interest and develop their ability to think about problems in new ways. It refers to leader actions that appeal to followers' sense of logic and analysis by challenging followers to think creatively and find solutions to difficult problems, or even by solving old problems with new ways (Antonakis *et al.,* 2003; Humphreys and Einstein, 2003; Bass and Avolio, 1990; Avolio *et al*., 1988). However, there is not a clear description of what the leader actually says or does to influence the cognitive

processes or behaviour of subordinates (Yukl, 1999). Inspiration is characterised by the communication of high expectations using symbols to focus efforts, and expressing important purposes in simple ways (Humphreys and Einstein, 2003). This component shows that the leader puts emphasis on methodical problem solving, reexamining and rethinking assumptions and critically reasoning the problems or opinions (Northouse, 2009).

Finally, the *individualised consideration* refers to leaders who listen and give special concern to the growth and developmental needs of the followers, those who delegate, coach and give constructive feedback. They are open to suggestions within the team and it is a behaviour which encompasses consideration of individuals as having different needs, abilities and aspirations (Bass, 1985, 1990). The leaders act as mentors (Humphreys and Einstein, 2003). Developing includes coaching and mentoring. Supporting includes being friendly, helpful, considerate and appreciative of individual subordinates (Yukl, 1999). The considerate leader is responsible for developing one-to-one relationship with each team member (Yammarino *et al*., 1998; Bass, 1994). However, supporting could not be part of transformational leadership. According to Bass (1990; Yukl, 1999) it increases satisfaction with the leader but has only a weak effect on subordinate motivation of performance.

As the model shows, there are three dimensions that refer to transactional leadership (Judge and Piccolo, 2004:755). Firstly, *contingent reward*, refers to an exchange between the leader and the followers as well as the degree of this transaction (Yukl, 1999; Antonakis *et al*., 2003). Judge and Piccolo (2004:755) add that with contingent reward "the leader clarifies expectations and establishes the rewards for meeting these expectations". For example, for the leader lets the followers know what they will get – reward - in return for doing what they are asked to do. However, according to Goodwin *et al*. (2001) the relationship between contingent rewards and transactional behaviour cannot be completely discounted.

Secondly, *management-by-exception* refers to leadership that involves corrective criticism, negative feedback, and negative reinforcement (Northouse, 2001;

Antonakis *et al*., 2003). On the one hand, the *management-by-exception-passive*, is the leader who intervenes only after the standards are not met. Thirdly, *management-by-exception-active* is the leader who waits for mistakes and takes corrective action (Howell and Avolio, 1993). Transactional leaders may actively monitor deviance from standards, mistakes and errors or they may passively wait for followers to do something wrong (Goodwin *et al*., 2001; Bass and Avolio, 1994).

Sarros and Santora (2001:389) claim that "*Laissez-faire* behaviour is not really leadership at all, ...is referred to as non-Leadership". This part refers to the manager's incapacity to get involved. These managers try to avoid any involvement or confrontation, and try to keep their relationships and interactions to a minimum. It reflects lazy, non-committed attitudes among executives.

2.4.2 Transactional and transformational leadership styles

Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) define transactional leadership as this leadership where the leaders exchange with their followers. For example, managers who offer promotions to employees who surpass their goals are exhibiting transactional leadership (Northouse, 2009:172). Additionally, Northouse (2009) suggests that this leadership style is observed at all types of organisations regardless the levels in the hierarchy. In this transaction both parties are valued since the superiors for example give a salary increase, something the subordinates want, and in return they get something they want for example greater productivity. As Burns (1978) suggests the parties are mutually dependent on one another and the contributions of each side are understood and rewarded. Moreover, Kuhnert and Lewis (1987) claim that transactional leaders are influential because it is in the best interest of subordinates to do what the leader wants. These leaders are usually effective in stable cultures and environments where they may chart staff performance and relate this with expected staff behaviour (Bass, 1985).

Although transactional leadership can be described as the exchange of valued outcomes, closer examination of the literature suggests that all exchanges are not equivalent (Kuhnert and Lewis, 1987). For example, Graen *et al.* (1982 cited in Kuhnert and Lewis, 1987) studied the impact that both high-quality and low-quality exchange relationships had on the turnover of employees. They found that employees who engaged in relationships that involved support and the exchange of emotional resources (high-quality) were less likely to leave an organisation than employees who engaged in relationships that involved contractually agreed upon elements such as eight hours of work of eight hours of pay (low-quality). Their work suggests that low-quality transactions are based on the exchange of goods or rights, whereas high-quality transactions are augmented by an interpersonal bond between leaders and followers.

Furthermore, Bass (1990) suggested that there are two levels of transactional leadership; the kinds of transactions leaders and followers engage in range from the obvious (jobs for votes) to the less obvious (exchanges of trust, commitment). Transactional leaders focus on the present and excel at keeping the organisation running smoothly and efficiently (Daft, 2005). Moreover, these leaders follow the rules and maintain stability, therefore, they operate in an organisational culture where there is risk avoidance, efficiency relative to time is valued and in general they prefer processes as a mean to control people (Bass, 1990). Furthermore, transactional leaders consider quality and the quantity of performance, they aim at reducing resistance and at implementing decisions (Lowe *et al.*, 1996). Thus, transactional leaders relate with the followers via an exchange process, though which they promote stability, and they are good at exploiting knowledge while they define roles and task requirements as well as offering rewards, at the same time the followers are motivated by their self-interest, and thus achieve loyalty and commitment to the organisation as well as have high levels of performance.

As transactional leadership has been viewed as the style where the leader exchanges relations with the followers in order to meet their own interest, transformational leaders aim at moving the follower beyond their immediate self-interest.

Transformational leadership is considered as the new force in leadership research and it has increasingly been argued to have dominated much of the debate on contemporary leadership approaches (Gardner and Cleavenger, 1998 cited in Torpman, 2004; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Yukl, 2002). As stated by Bryman (1992:55) "transformational leadership is part of the new leadership paradigm". This style explores mainly the leaders accomplishments rather than the leader's personal characteristics. As it has been discussed in 2.5, the new challenges and changes in business require a leadership style that will address these and will lead to organisational success.

In the beginning, House (1976) developed the theory of charismatic leadership following Weber's view of charismatic leaders as being extremely highly esteemed persons, who are gifted with exemplary qualities (Bass and Riggio, 2006; Bass, 1990). Charisma is considered as a gift that people have and helps them do extraordinary things (Northouse, 2001). Weber (1947 cited in Northouse, 2001:133) defined charisma as

> a special personality characteristic that gives a person superhuman or exceptional powers and is reserved for a few, is of divine origin, and results in the person being treated as a leader.

Yukl (1999) suggests that charismatic leadership emphasises emotions and values. Moreover, House (1976, cited in Northouse, 2001) suggested that charismatic leaders act in unique ways that have specific charismatic effects on their followers. They are strong role models for the beliefs and values they want their followers to adopt, they articulate ideological goals that have moral overtones, and they communicate high expectations for followers. According to Armandi *et al*. (2003) charismatic leaders have behaviour that is out of the ordinary and environmental sensitivity. Furthermore, Shamir *et al*. (1993) added that charismatic leadership transforms followers' self-concepts and tries to link the identity of followers to the collective identity of the organisation. In addition, Morden (2004) proposes that these leaders may successfully transform the followers' values to those that the leaders hold. They are also viewed as saviors in times of crises and may transform the groups or organisations (Bass, 1990). Cole (1990) claims that there is a difficulty with this

leadership since charisma is an exceptional quality that few people have. It is found that charismatic leadership is likely to emerge and be effective in organisations which are committed to contributing non-routine, high quality services or products to customers or clients (Judge and Piccolo, 2004). All the same, House (1992) proposes that it is especially needed in organisations that support social and moral values as well as profit maximization. Although charisma has been widely used in the discussion on transformational leadership, Bass (1985) extended House's concept and suggested that charisma is a necessary but not sufficient condition for transformational leadership. Furthermore, House *et al.* (1991) re-evaluated House's initial work on charismatic leadership and came to the conclusion that charismatic leaders transform the needs, values, preferences and aspirations of followers from self-interests to collective interests; they continue that these leaders make followers to be committed to the leaders' mission. Charismatic leaders are emotionally attached to their followers and they transform organisations by infusing into them ideological values and moral purpose (House, 1992); nevertheless, these issues are very much related to transformational leadership. According to Yukl (1999) there is little reason for making a distinction between the two types of leadership (transformational and transactional) unless they are defined in a way that involves important differences in underlying processes. Besides that, Humphreys and Einstein (2003) claim that the charismatic dimension of transformational leadership is characterised by providing vision and a sense of mission, instilling pride in and among the group, and gaining respect and trust. Thus, charisma has been included among the four proposed behaviours associated with transformational leadership.

Although, Downton (1973 cited in Northouse, 2001:132) was the first to discuss the concept of transformational leadership, this concept is broadly associated with Burns (1978) who as it has been argued developed the concept from his studies and observation on politicians. Nevertheless, his ideas have been related with business leadership as well (Sadler, 1997); for example a transformational leader in organisations according to Northouse (2001:132) would be

> a manager who attempts to change his/her company's corporate values to
> reflect a more human standard of fairness and justice, in the process both

the manager and followers may emerge with a stronger and higher set of moral values.

According to Daft (2000:522) transformational leaders do not rely only on tangible rules and incentives, they focus as well on intangible qualities such as vision, shared values, and ideas to build relationships, find common ground to enlist followers in the change process. Their behaviour may augment the followers' behaviour towards performance and effort and thus satisfaction rises above that derived by contingent reward leader behaviour (Humphreys and Einstein, 2003; Howell and Avolio, 1992; Avolio *et al.,* 1988).

Furthermore, Tichy and Devanna (1986) and Northouse (2001) identified several characteristics in transformational leaders. Leaders see themselves as change agents to transform the organisation; they are courageous, able to deal with resistance and take risks; they believe in people; they are driven by a strong set of values; they are life-long learners; they can cope with complexity, uncertainty and ambiguity and finally they are visionaries; they may even encourage members of the organisation to visit other organisations within and outside the organisation to obtain alternative viewpoints of how other organisations work and solve problems. In addition, Bennis and Nanus (1985) give another version of the same characteristics. They see transformational leaders as social architects that have a clear vision, they create trust and they use creative deployment of self through positive self-regard. They found that positive self-regard in leaders had a reciprocal impact on followers, creating in them feelings of confidence and high expectations. Northouse (2001) suggests that transformational leaders often have a set of internal values and ideals. While Daft (2000:33) suggests that transformational leaders are "distinguished by their special ability to bring about innovation and change"; they have the ability to bring change in the organisation's mission, strategy, structure and culture as well as promote innovation in products and technologies (Morden, 2004).

Moreover, transformational leadership can be used to describe a wide range of leadership, from very specific attempts to influence followers on a one-to-one level to very broad attempts to influence whole organisations and even entire cultures

(Northouse, 2001). It encompasses many facets and dimensions of the leadership process. In general, it describes how leaders can initiate, develop and carry out significant changes in organisations, which is very much related with society's popular notion of what leadership means. Transformational leadership emerges from the interaction between leaders and followers since the needs of others are central to the transformational leader. Most theories of transformational leadership are conceptualized primarily at the dyadic level. The major interest is to explain a leader's direct influence over individual followers, not leader influence on group or organisational processes (Yukl, 1999; Yammarino and Bass, 1990). As stated by Bryman (1992:176) "followers gain a more prominent position in the leadership process because the attributions of followers are instrumental in the evolving transformational process". Avolio (1999) agrees with Bass and Avolio (1988) that transformational leadership is fundamentally 'morally uplifting', and in general transformational leadership reflects the leader who usually people have in mind, who is the role model for the followers.

More recent research has shown that transformational leadership has significant applications to every sector in every setting (Avolio and Yammarino, 2002). Bass (1990) and Bass and Riggio (2006) suggest that organisations must have high levels of performance, therefore, their leaders should influence their followers to achieve organisational goals and transcend self-interest for the good of the organisation. Furthermore, Yukl (1999) and Bass (1998) propose that transformational leadership may be the same in all the situations as long as the goal is met, and may be beneficial for both the followers as well as the organisation. In view to this, Morden (2004) proposes that the concept is based on a process of assessing the needs and motives of followers. Moreover, Norhtouse (2001) claims that transformational leadership is a process that changes and transforms individuals.

It is found that transformational leadership can be directive or participative, democratic or authoritarian (Bass, 1998). Avolio and Bass (1988 cited in Lowe *et al.*, 1996:387) state that "transformational leaders do not merely react to environmental circumstances; they attempt to shape and create them". However, Bass (1990) argued

that transformational leadership is more likely to emerge in organisations with less constrictive environments. Therefore, he continues that private organisations with their market-focus, may have less institutionalised substitutes for leadership and managers may engage in transformational behaviour to motivate their subordinates to achieve "performance beyond expectations". Avolio and Bass (1988) and Tichy and Ulrich (1984) found that transformational leadership is practiced at all levels of the organisation, but observed to a greater extent, at the higher levels.

According to Barker (2001) the transformational leader brings change through his/her vision, the vision acceptance by the followers and the link of the vision with the followers' interest. This view, adds on Burns' (1978) suggestion that the leader engages with the followers in a relationship where motivation and morality is evident for both the leader and the follower. Furthermore, Burns (1978:3) claims that the transformational leader "recognises the need for a potential follower", he/she seeks to satisfy higher needs and results in mutual stimulation (Bass, 1990) and the minimum amount of coercion (Sadler, 1997). Thus, as Bass (1990) claims transformational leadership is concerned with the development and empowerment of followers to function independently. The above discussion implies that the leader creates a dynamic relationship with subordinates, which increases motivation and performance by changing positively the values, attitudes and willpower of followers. The followers feel trust, admiration, loyalty and respect toward the leader and they are motivated to do more than they originally expected to do (Yukl, 1999). Additionally, transformational leaders operate out of deeply held personal value systems that include things like justice and integrity (Humphreys and Einstein, 2003). Posner and Kouzes (1988a) note that transformational leaders challenge processes, inspire vision, enable others to act and model the way. Sadler (1997:42) sees transformational leadership as a:

> process of engaging the commitment of employees in the context of shared values and a shared vision. It is particularly relevant in the context of managing change. It involves relationships of mutual trust between leaders and led.

Humphreys and Einstein (2003) claim that transformational leaders not only bring the followers together towards meeting the organisational goals, but also they may

change the followers' goals and beliefs towards this purpose. Therefore, as Mullins (2005) claims transformational leadership is a process of engendering higher levels of motivation and commitment among followers. Nevertheless, as Northouse (2001) suggests it is required to have leaders who have the ability to instill ideals and values to the followers.

The current conception of transformational leadership, with its emphasis on follower empowerment, is in line with contemporary organisational changes and management theorising stressing the need of organisations to become less hierarchical, more flexible, team-oriented, and participative, making this leadership style as the one with the most complete range of elements (Fondas, 1997; Rosener, 1995; Bass and Avolio, 1994). It is important to have people who can bring organisations into the future that is the essence of creating and sustaining competitive advantage (Armandi *et al.*, 2003). Thus, transformational leadership may be considered as the evolution of management thought. There are however, others who claim that the concept of transformational leadership is a way back to the traits leadership theories (Wienhrich and Koontz, 1993). Dulewicz and Higgs (2005:107) state that "the literature on leadership has consistently ignored cognitive elements for the last few decades". Nevertheless, recently Kets De Vries and Florent-Treacy (2002) proposed that effective leadership requires a combination of behavioural cognitive and personality factors. In view to this point, Dulewicz and Higgs (2005) suggest that effective leaders are not only those who exercise a range of skills or competencies, but those who with their personality emerge as leaders from a "sense-making" paradigm, and thus cognitive elements of leadership are included when they practice leadership.

Transformational leadership, as many propose has many strengths. For example, Northouse (2009), Burns (2003), Bennis and Nanus (2003), Bass (1990) and others have done systematic research with prominent leaders and well known organisations to support its effectiveness. In addition, as it has been previously discussed transformational leadership applies to today's organisations, the changing business environment and the need for change agents to inspire people towards the organisation's goals and visions (Northouse, 2009). Moreover, transformational

leadership is a style where leaders behave in the way they do and at the same time this behaviour is the result of their intercalation with their followers, thus both the leader's and the followers' needs are incorporated (Bryman, 1992; Burns, 2003). Furthermore, transformational leadership incorporates a variety of behaviours, traits and processes, and it includes how leaders view their followers and how all interact (Avolio, 1999). Burns (2003) proposes that transformational leadership puts emphasis on the followers' values, and needs, thus these leaders try to inspire their followers and they place their interest at the heart of their actions. It is however, uplifting the staff moral and thus the followers are required to transcend their own self-interest for the good of the team (Avolio, 1999), making this style very effective as various studies support (i.e. Northouse, 2009; Bennis and Nanus, 2003; Yukl, 1999; Avolio, 1999).

On the one hand, there are some who suggest that transformational leadership has several weaknesses. Northouse (2001, 2009) for example, suggests that although this leadership style covers a wide range of leader's behaviours such as vision, building trust, acting as a role model and other, it is difficult to define precisely. Therefore, transformational leadership according to Northouse (2001:147) "is often interpreted too simplistically as an either-or approach and not as a matter of degree". In addition, Tracey and Hinkin (1998) claim that there is an overlap among the four I's. Rafferty and Griffin (2004) and Bryman (1992) agree that there is ambiguity concerning the differentiation of the sub dimensions of transformational leadership. In view to the components of transformational leadership, Bryman (1992) suggests that transformational leadership and charismatic leadership are similar, even though Bass (1985) put charisma amongst the components of transformational leadership. In particular, Barbuto (1997) proposes that it is not easy to distinguish between charisma and inspirational motivation and how researchers view these over time. Another issue refers to the diversity of behaviours encompassed by individualized consideration and contingent reward (Yukl, 1999). Empirically this issue has been reflected in a lack of support for the hypothesized factor structure of the transformational model and for the discriminant validity of the components of the model with each other (Rafferty and Griffin, 2004).

Furthermore, Northouse (2001) claims that it is difficult to view this leadership style as the leader's behaviour that occurs all the time showing signs of the several components of transformational leadership. Moreover, sometimes this style is seen as elitist and antidemocratic since it views the leaders as change agents who force the vision to the followers (Norhtouse, 2001; Avolio, 1999; Bass and Avolio, 1993). Howell and Avolio (1992) add to this that transformational leaders change people's values and move them towards a new vision, therefore, they could be abusing their power and direct people towards specific behaviour to the new direction. At the same time the charismatic nature of transformational leadership presents significant risks for organisations because they can be used for destructive purposes (Howell and Avolio, 1992). Furthermore, Yukl (1999:288) claims that "the role of leadership in increasing task motivation and performance, is biased toward favouring some stakeholders (top management, owners, customers) at the expense of others (most of the employees)". He adds that sometimes the followers may be stressed from the prolonged emotional involvement in the work, that at times is not so necessary. Furthermore, many claim that when there are many different leaders in an organisation, there might exist conflicting role ambiguity (Humphreys and Einstein, 2003; Yukl, 1999; Howell and Avolio, 1992). Nevertheless, Avolio (1999) and Burns (2003), in supporting transformational leadership, suggest that although these leaders may be directive and participative, they may as well be democratic and authoritarian.

Another issue concerns the way transformational leadership is viewed. Bryman (1992) proposes that if it is seen as personality trait, then it could be a behaviour in which people may be instructed, thus people may be trained to adopt this leadership style. Besides that Avolio (1999) suggests that transformational leaders may be seen as visionaries and thus as people with special qualities and skills, skills that can be taught.

It is evident from the above, that the transactional leader works with a framework of his/her team's self-interests, whereas the transformational leader moves to change this framework. In support to this view, Burns (1978:3) provided a comprehensive

theory to explain the differences between transactional and transformational leaders where transactional leaders "approach followers with an eye to exchanging one thing for another, such transactions comprise the bulk of the relationships among leaders and followers". He also noted that the transformational leader recognises the need for a potential follower, but he/she goes further, seeking to satisfy higher needs. In consideration of the previous discussion, Bass (1985) proposed that transformational leadership supports the effects that transactional leadership has on the efforts, satisfaction, and effectiveness of subordinates. In their study, Goodwin *et al.* (2001), Lowe *et al.* (1996) and Howell and Avolio (1993) claim that turnover rates are lower in transformational leadership than in transactional leadership while, similarly there is higher productivity and higher employee satisfaction. Moreover, Armandi *et al.* (2003) suggest that transformational leaders are considered more competent and better performers by their followers.

On the other hand, transactional leadership has been negatively linked to follower and organisational performance (Bass and Avolio, 1994). Bass (1990) suggested that transformational leadership augments transactional in predicting effects on follower satisfaction and performance. He integrated the transformational and transactional styles by recognising that both styles may be linked to the achievement of desired goals and objectives (Lowe *et al.*, 1996). Nevertheless, according to Humphreys and Einstein (2003:93) "transformational leadership is not a substitute for transactional leadership but rather, a complement". Finally, Lowe *et al.* (1996) suggest that transformational leadership augments transactional management to achieve higher levels of subordinate performance with the primary difference residing in the process by which the leader motivates subordinates in the types of goals set.

Recent developments in leadership have shifted interest from earlier theories of leadership to charismatic leadership and more specifically to transactional and transformational leadership. The new models of leadership are concerned with the development and the empowerment of followers to function independently. On the one hand transactional leader are those who pursue a cost-benefit economic change with followers. These leaders mainly focus on the exchange process with their

followers whose needs are satisfied in return for expected work performance. On the other hand, transformational leaders are those leaders who put emphasis on empowerment, are in line with organisational changes, raise consciousness of followers by appealing to higher ideals and values.

2.5 EFFECTIVENESS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN ORGANISATIONS

An important issue in the studies of leadership is which style is more effective. The literature focuses primarily on leader emergence, but not on leader effectiveness (Bryman, 1992). There is considerable evidence that transformational leadership is effective. This research studies the leader's behaviour and transformational leadership effectiveness. As stated by Humphreys and Einstein (2003) Fayol accepted the premise that leadership is the key to organisational success. Effectiveness is understood in terms of leader's facilitation of a group or organisation's ability to meet its goals (Hunt, 1991; Eagly *et al.*, 1995). Effectiveness concerns judgments about a leader's impact on an organisation's bottom line. According to Hogan *et al.* (1994) indices of effectiveness are often hard to specify and frequently affected by factors beyond a leader's control. Nevertheless, effectivenesss is the standard by which leaders should be judged focusing on typical behaviours and ignoring effectiveness in an overarching problem in leadership research. Leadership is measured by success and effectiveness. Forbes (1991:70) proposes that "a leader is successful when the person he/she is trying to influence demonstrates the desired behaviour". Although most managers exhibit components of several different leadership styles, research has demonstrated that managers that emphasise transformational behaviour are espied as the most effective and satisfying managers by their subordinates (Bass and Avolio, 1994).

Effectiveness is influenced by so many factors, but there are only a few studies evaluating the impact of leadership on an organisation's bottom line. Studies such as the one from Chidester *et al.* (1991) of the performance of flight crews or military units by Curphy (1993) show that certain leader characteristics are associated with

enhanced team performance. Research suggests that transformational leadership has a positive effect on an organisation's productivity and financial results (Bass *et al.*, 1996). Many, such as Avolio and Bass (1987), Bass (1985) and Bass *et al.* (1987), have gathered research results that indicate that transformational leadership is not uncommon in different organisational settings, nor is it limited to executives and world-class leaders. Bass *et al.* (1996:31) found in their study that "some degree of transformational leadership was being practiced at the most senior levels down to first-level management in industrial settings".

Moreover, transformational leadership has been viewed as an effective style to lead staff and inspire them to perform beyond expectation, thus this style is more effective in periods of turbulence and instability (Humphreys and Einstein, 2003; Howell and Avolio, 1992; Bass, 1990). Besides that, Yukl (1999) and Lowe *et al.* (1996) found that this leadership style results to higher staff satisfaction, motivation and performance. In addition, Humphreys and Einstein (2003) and Kark (2004) have found that transformational leadership has been positively correlated to leader effectiveness ratings, leader and follower satisfaction, follower efforts, support for innovation, and overall organisational performance.

Furthermore, Sundstrom *et al.* (2000) claim that the coordinated actions of people who share the responsibility for the outcomes of their team may lead to effective performance. In view to this, Bass (1995) found that the transformational factors are usually found to be more highly correlated with outcomes in effectiveness and satisfaction of colleagues than is contingent reward. He also continues that contingent reward is ordinarily more highly correlated with outcomes than is managing-by-exception, particularly passive managing-by-exception, the transactional leadership compononents. In addition, transformational leadership has been found to contribute to the prediction of follower outcomes beyond that of transactional leadership (Yukl, 1999). Research shows that the management and leadership of people have a greater effect on productivity and profitability than the combined effects of strategy, quality, manufacturing technology, research and development (Liu and McMurray, 2004).

Further, Hunt (1991) proposes that leadership is viewed as a key determinant of organisational effectiveness, since one essential function of leadership is to help organisation adapt to its environment and acquire resources needed to survive. Organisations adapt to the environment by gathering and interpreting information; then they identify the competencies required to provide a competitive advantage, to develop effective strategies, to provide a favourable image of the organisation and its products, to gain cooperation and support from outsiders, and use political tactics to implement change. In view to this, Bass (1985), Bryman (1992) and Burns (1978) propose that effective leaders should be proactive, change oriented, innovative, motivating and inspiring, and have a vision or mission with which they infuse the group. They should also be interested in others and be able to create commitment to the group and extract extra effort from, and generally empower, members of the group.

Survival and propensity depend on the efficiency of the transformation process; how the organisation would best use the available resources. Another leadership function is to influence the organisation culture, structure, technology and management systems (Yukl, 1999). He continues that all the transformational theories describe the leader's influence on all the above-mentioned processes. In addition, Bass (1990) suggests that by applying the behavioural characteristics of transformational leadership, leaders can guide their followers toward performance beyond expectations. Dionne *et al*. (2004) found that cohesion mediated a transformational leadership relationship with financial performance of Australian banks. In their study Lowe *et al*. (1996) were convinced that transformational leadership is associated with work unit effectiveness.

Furthermore, Hogan *et al*. (1994) suggest another view on measuring effectiveness, and they suggest that the appropriate way to measure leadership is in terms of team, group or organisational effectiveness. The literature on leadership effectiveness can be organized in various ways. In some studies leaders are evaluated in terms of the actual performance of their team or organisational unit. Examples include studies by

Chidester *et al.* (1991), Curphy (1993) or House *et al.* (1991). In others, subordinates', peers' or supervisors' ratings are used to evaluate leaders such as in Bass and Yammarino (1991) or Bray (1982 cited in Hogan *et al.*, 1994). In this case the evaluation of a manager's performance depends, in part, on the relationships that the person has established with his/her subordinates. Another group of studies evaluates the leadership potential of strangers on the basis of their performance in interviews, simulations, assessment centers, or leaderless group discussions, such as those by Albright *et al.* (1988 cited in Hogan *et al.*, 1994). Self-ratings of leadership have also been used as evaluative criteria (Farh and Dobbins, 1989 cited in Hogan *et al.*, 1994).

It is evident from the above that transformational leadership is considered to be effective in organisations. Transformational leaders seek new ways of working, opportunities in the face of risk, prefer effective answers and attempt to shape the circumstances. They may use transactional strategies but their main goal is to solicit increased effort. They are interested in raising the level of intellectual awareness and expanding individual needs for the sake of the team or the organisation.

2.6 LEADERSHIP AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN HOSPITALITY

The hospitality and tourism industry is facing an economic downturn, and other challenges, such as high staff turnover, recruitment difficulties and other. Therefore, the importance of leadership in the industry should be further estimated and explored. Although leadership may help hotel managers to improve the ogranisations performance and sustain their competitive advantage, "there is a dearth of research concerning leadership development" (Watson *et al.*, 2010:1). Moreover, even though better leadership does not necessarily lead to better business performance it is required to understand how leadership links with the organisational context (Pittaway *et al.*, 1998). The leadership qualities of managers in the hospitality and tourism industry may help face the challenges in the industry and the constant changes which include "increasing globalization of the economy, the need to reduce costs and the

pressure to be competitive in a market where there are more global competitors" (Taborda, 2000:41). In addition, Clark *et al.* (2009) and Chathoth and Olsen (2002) support Babakus *et al.* (2003) view that leadership is important in service organisations, such as hotels, because it may create a transformational climate to enhance employee loyalty, and maintain high quality of services provided. They also claim that little research has been conducted on "the identification of the most appropriate leadership style" in the industry (Clark *et al.*, 2009:210).

Early research on leadership in hospitality, was conducted by Nebel and Stearn (1977) who worked on Fiedler's contingency theory; and concluded that the leader's effectiveness depends on the situation and the organisational type and they proposed that the most appropriate style in the hospitality industry is the task oriented. Wood (1994) criticized this suggestion and proposed that their research lacks evidence of application to a specific situation. Later, Worsfold (1989) created a personality profile of hospitality managers, but it did not consider any contextual factors, such as the location of the business, or the way these hospitality organisations were organised, however, he did include a bigger sample. Finally, Tracey and Hinkin (1994) used a sample of lower and middle level hotel managers to measure the qualities and the utility of transformational leadership with the use of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire which is a questionnaire designed to evaluate the transformational and transactional leadership behaviours of the leaders in a study). They suggest that the changes in the organisational environment of hotels requires leaders to be transformational, and thus the use of this style was more appropriate than managing through control. Pittaway *et al.* (1998) claim that the problem with this study it is that it used only one organisation and thus cannot be generalized.

Research on leadership in hospitality has shown that transformational leadership can improve employee commitment, social behaviour and satisfaction (i.e. Tracey and Hinkin, 1994). Others such as Gill and Mathur (2007) support that empowering leadership improves hospitality employees' behaviour. In general, service managers should provide visible leadership to staff in order to help them accept the nature and the demand of the services provided in the industry (Clark *et al.*, 2009:212). They

claim that the shared values inspired by transformational leaders are among the most important variables for employee motivation and satisfaction. Evidently, the most effective leadership style in the hospitality industry is the one that leads to staff commitment and to service excellence. The employees should espouse the hotel's vision and values, thus they should be included in the decision-making, in order to customize the service required for each guest (Chathoth and Olsen, 2002; Hartline *et al.,* 2000). Besides that the hospitality context is considered to be flexible to allow staff to respond to customers' needs. Moreover, employees are more involved and committed when they participate in the decision-making. Thus, managers should have a more participative leadership style in order to have high quality services provided (Clark *et al*., 2009). Furthermore, effective leaders should keep an eye to the future, and ensure that they communicate this vision to their staff, thus the staff will be empowered and motivated (Chathoth and Olsen, 2002; Taborda, 2000). The effective leader should also manage change, thus a transformational leader is according to Ackoff (1999:25 cited in Chathoth and Olsen, 2002:11) "one who can produce or encourage and facilitate the production of a mobilizing vision of a transformed system". Additionally, the hotel sector is a dynamic sector that requires firm management to reflect upon the changes and to increase productivity and efficiency.

Evidently, the hospitality industry is an environment to explore leadership and since it is a global industry one could propose that the findings may be compared with different styles in various countries, and various organisational type of operations i.e. small units, or multinationals. Pittaway *et al.* (1998) support that although the industry is dominated by SMEs very little research has been conducted in this type of hospitality operations, therefore, the author explores the leadership style that is the most appropriate and effective in the Greek hospitality industry. More specifically the Greek hospitality industry is characterized by SMEs. It is generally recognised that management in Greece is very much influenced by the type of these businesses. Regardless of their type, SMEs have to compete in the marketplace with other big, well-organised, successful companies. Profit margins are small, varied governmental regulations, existing bureaucratic barriers, labour unions with either strong power

(i.e. the public sector) or in other sectors are very limited, and employees' high expectations, with sometimes low productivity, are some of the elements that characterise the Greek labour market and challenge organisations that operate in Greece (Makridakis *et al*., 1997). Additionally, the country shows a very turbulent environment with many challenges for management, especially in 2010 with the financial crisis that has hit the country.

The Greek hospitality industry is characterized by family-owned SMEs which seem to have centralized administration (IMD, 1996). The owners are usually the managers and they run the businesses based on their own ideas, views and interest and the management style depends on their skills and competencies (Makridakis *et al*., 1997:387). These managers-owners in Greece, very often are familiar with management principles and issues in the country, but may have never visited any countries abroad, therefore, they have limited personal views on how management is implemented in other countries. It is common that such owner-managers demand from their other managers and employees to report on what people do in the organisation, and sometimes force these managers to leave the business for personal reasons rather than professional (Papalexandris, 1992). Interestingly, Greek managers, not only the owner-managers, believe that their management style is the most appropriate and nothing should be changed in their company (Patiniotis and Stavroulakis, 1997).

In early studies, it was found that the hierarchy is strict and the management and leadership style in family owned SMEs is authoritative, additionally, they will very rarely delegate authority and decision-making (Makridakis *et al*., 1997:389). As a consequence their employees seem to be secure and "show high levels of dedication towards their boss" (Makridakis *et al*., 1997:389); it is not certain if this attitude is real or whether they are affected by their owner-manager management. Additionally, very little research has been done in the field and therefore, it is not clear whether this behaviour leads to productivity, effectiveness and efficiency of Greek firms (Nikolaou and Robertson, 2001). Furthermore, some challenges exist in Greek management that result in peculiar organisational environment and practices (Patiniotis and Stavroulakis, 1997). They, for example, suggest that the human

resources practices are not used in staff development, in assisting them to participate in the management, or in the vision and effectiveness of the organisation. Thus, the managers are somehow restricted in how they will perform management.

In general, Greek managers have to adapt to and face the various challenges and the increasing competition (Papalexandris and Nikandrou, 2000). The new competitive environment has forced today's managers to implement HR practices adopted by international companies, thus they still want to reward seniority and devotion, they understand the need to relate pay with performance, and they are less willing in comparison to other managers to fire people who do not achieve the company's objectives (Myloni *et al.,* 2004). Greek organisations not only have they faced fierce competition, but also the need for modernisation and European integration have forced managers to adapt their management style (Papalexandris and Nikandrou, 2000).

In addition, the culture influences the way organisations are managed. In his early study Hofstede (1980) found that Greece scores highly in uncertainty avoidance, and moderate to high in masculine culture. Therefore, he claimed that Greeks' need to feel secure, and wealth is important to them since it is a status element. In a later study, Hofstede (1991) describes the Greek society as formally organized, and that people are kept at a distance from their superiors. Nevertheless, he suggests that in his studies the Greeks seem to be different. They seem to challenge, question and criticize authority. He continues that when they feel they are not treated fairly they will react, and therefore, the unions have significant power in terms of influencing industrial relations.

Moreover, Kalogeraki (2009) suggests that Greece scores high in collectivist orientation in relation to other European countries, thus people prefer the consultative style when they are managed, confirming Hofstede's (1991) later study. In fact in his initial study, Hofstede (1980) found that Greeks preferred the autocratic and paternalistic management style, however, in his later study he found that their preferences changed towards a more consultive (advisory) style. Makridakis *et al.* (1997) and Myloni *et al.* (2004) propose that this change occurred due to the need to

adapt to international cultures and follow the European styles in order to be able to adapt to the new changing environment in Europe and in the business world. In addition, Hofstede (1991) claims that Greek managers have started changing and adapting their paternalistic management style, that has been influenced by their national culture to the organisational culture (Makridakis *et al*., 1997) and more specifically towards a western type of management (Bourantas and Papadakis, 1996). Evidently, they had to adapt to the changes in the organisational environment. As it has been mentioned, SMEs are the main type of organisations in Greece, however very little research has been carried in these businesses, most of the research in culture has been conducted in multinationals (Makridakis *et al*., 1997), therefore, further research should be conducted in this area.

Papalexandris (1999) continues that Greeks place an emphasis on their independence, on their rights within organisations and tend to question authority. They also find it difficult to cooperate with others and they do not easily trust their superiors. A Greek characteristic is 'filotimo' that means the love of honour, which helps employees, commit to their business and become loyal (Papalexandris, 1999). Additionally, as Hofstede (1991) suggests Greeks are characterized by their sense of humour, dignity, loyalty and sense of duty (or 'filotimo'). Greeks also favour family collectivism and collective distribution of resources (Hofstede, 1980). Interestingly, the majority of businesses in Greece are SMEs where family collectivism is expressed; where their development and growth depends on the owner's interest and enthusiasm, in order to preserve the family nature (Nikandrou *et al*., 2003; Papalexandris *et al*., 2002). In addition, Greek managers seem to take care of their employees, of their employees' needs and they show interest in their employees' family problems (Trompenaars, 1994; Papalexandris, 1999; Nikandrou *et al*., 2003). Moreover, Greek managers inspire their group members, they give more to the group and thus they gain respect (Papalexandris, 2008). People with this trait in organisations may contribute with their actions to the organisation's well being, and by creating staff loyalty. This is confirmed by Earley (1993), who claims that Greek employees perform better when they are members of such a group, and consequently they comply with the organisational goals.

Nikandrou *et al*. (2003) claim that the cultural diversity of employees in multinational organisations influences the leadership styles implemented. Leadership in Greece has been considered by Hofstede (1991) and he suggests that in this matter Greeks prefer the 'consultative style', while a smaller percentage of his sample prefer the participative style. Within this culture the Greeks maintain their 'ego needs', their self-esteem which are important factors towards organisational effectiveness in the Greek culture (Bourantas and Papadakis, 1997; Bourantas *et al.,* 1987). In addition, Greece is highly assertive, thus people are tough, assertive and competitive, but at the same time they tend to have a 'can do' attitude, which is a very positive attitude for businesses.

Furthermore, "Gender egalitarianism and performance orientation seem to be the two most important issues, for all southern countries, since there is remarkable difference between organisational practice and value" (Nikandrou *et al.,* 2003:83). Bourantas *et al*. (1990) referring to Hofstede's study, claim that Greece seems to be male dominated (androcracy).

Concluding from all the above, it is evident that Greece is characterized by collectivism, bureaucracy, and organisations tend to be centralized were and occasionally still are dominated by an autocratic paternalistic nature. Women's advancement is influenced by the national and organisational culture (Wirth, 2001), and should be considered in this research project.

Within this environment that is characterised by gender influences, paternalism, transformational leadership may be possibly difficult to transfer. Nevertheless, this study aims at investigating the tranferability of transformational leadership into the Greek hospitality context.

2.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the concept of leadership. Despite the vast variety and number of definitions of leadership, the major issues are discussed in order to provide an understanding of leadership, its nature, as well as the various relevant issues and elements. Throughout the years leadership has been broadly studied, in view to different aspects, thus it is considered as a process, as human behaviour or style that is implemented in specific situations or context, or even as those traits that people should have in order to be considered leaders. No matter how leadership is viewed, it is important in managing organisations, and it is has been compared to management in general. Leadership models have been developed from relative simple ideas to more complex and dynamic such as transformational leadership.

Transactional and transformational leadership are considered the new styles required for organisations in order to adapt to the constant changing organisational environment. Transactional leadership focuses on the exchange between the leaders and their staff and seeks to maintain stability in organisations. In this exchange setting, these leaders reward staff, and compensate them when they have reached the goals. Transformational leadership research on the other hand, has identified key leadership behaviours, that impact on employee attitudes and job performance. This leadership style is found in a variety of organisational settings, at all levels in the hierarchy. It has also been found to correlate with staff effectiveness, satisfaction and performance. Transformational leaders are likely to increase group performance and at the same time they raise the followers' needs and promote changes of individuals, groups and organisations. In addition, transformational leaders focus on changing the organisation, they define the vision of the organisation. It is considered to be in line with contemporary organisational settings and changes in management. Although, leadership theories have identified traits, contingencies, behaviours and functions that cultivate such organsational behaviour to match organisational theory, transactional and transformational leadership models are established for decision-making, learning, and communications to understand. Thus, transformational

leadership may be considered as a combination of new thinking within leadership theory and new leadership practices.

The various leadership theories and concepts may help managers to perform tasks, analyse the situation and their staff and enhance performance and satisfaction. Organisations have to face the changes in the environment in which they operate, in order to maintain their stability and effectiveness. Effective leadership may ensure that all the participants, leaders, followers and the organisation will benefit from accomplishing the goals set. Literature suggests that transformational leadership is an appropriate and effective leadership style for the hospitality industry as there are concerns for creating a clear vision and developing an environment that enhances employee effectiveness.

CHAPTER THREE: GENDER, LEADERSHIP AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

3.1 INTRODUCTION

As it has been discussed in chapter 2, leadership and more specifically transformational leadership in organisations play a vital role. Nowadays, that businesses operate in a turbulent, uncertain environment, leadership is required to motivate and inspire employees to perform well and to help the organisation achieve its goals. Leadership effectiveness is viewed to depend on the extent to which people follow the leader, and to which the organisation succeeds or survives. Additionally, leadership may differ between different cultures which create different expectations about leaders and the leaders' behaviours in different contexts.

McGregor (2010) proposes that the leadership style needed for the 21st century is feminine, however, research shows that women are still under-represented in management and in the corporate world. Nevertheless, the Commission of the European Communities (2009) suggests that the number of women in the corporate world is increasing in Europe. Smith and Smits (1994) proposed that leadership is feminized in demographically terms, but women are still disproportionately represented in an occupation or a job (Kent *et al.*, 2010; Fondas, 1997; Adler, 1996). Additionally, female entry into top corporate leadership roles (e.g. CEO positions in large firms) has been far less rapid (Vecchio, 2002). Although, the presence of women in top management teams and executive positions has expanded during recent years, the number of women in management is still lower than this of men (OECD, 2009). Men have come to terms with women at work, but inequality is still evident in organisations (Loutfi, 2001).

The increase in female entry into leadership ranks has been accompanied by an increase in social science research on the topic of sex/ gender and leadership, since research data indicates that companies with a large percentage of women in management and leadership impact well and positively to organisational excellence

and financial performance (i.e. McKinsey and Company, 2007). Nevertheless, Vecchio (2002) and Trinidad and Normore (2005) suggest research into the impact of gender on leadership is relatively new.

Vecchio (2002) suggests that female entry into top corporate leadership roles (e.g. CEO positions in large firms) has been far less rapid. However, the presence of women in top management teams and executive positions has also expanded during recent years. Catalyst (2005) reports that only 2.4% of the chairmen and CEOs of Fortune 500 firms are women. However, women's scarcity in leading major corporations does not mean that they are absent as leaders of global companies. Most of them have created their own businesses and others have assumed the leadership of a family business (Adler, 1997).

In view to the above, this chapter reviews the research domain on gender and its influence on leadership, the construction of an argument on whether there is a feminine or masculine leadership style. It also explores gender with leadership and more specifically transformational leadership and discusses the debates on whether men and women lead in a different way.

3.2 WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT AND HOTEL MANAGEMENT

In recent years, gender and leadership have received considerable attention, especially as to whether there is a leadership style that distinguishes women leaders from men leaders. This type of research has been labeled the 'women in management' literature (Kark, 2004:163). Although considerable research has been done to provide some answers, the question has not yet been fully answered. According to the Catalyst (2005:1) report "significant progress has been achieved by women, who have been moving into occupations, professions and managerial jobs previously reserved for men". However, women are still concentrated on the most precarious forms of work throughout the world and breaking through the glass-ceiling still appears elusive. There are still wage differences in male and female managerial jobs, as usually women are occupied with jobs in lower paying areas of company's

operations. The main challenge they face seems to be the slow progress into leadership positions, which suggests discrimination especially where the most power is exercised. Although, research suggests that the recruitment, full development and retention of qualified women are increasingly recognised as being essential to the economic success and competitiveness of firm, women are still under-represented in the managerial ladder (Weyer, 2007; Cooper-Jackson, 2001). Weyer (2007:482) states that "the vast majority of leadership positions in both the USA and throughout the world have been held by males rather than females". For example, only 17 out of 1000 companies of the Fortune are led by women CEOs (Catalyst, 2003). The hospitality industry will be used as an example to study the position of women in management at this point.

Although research has been conducted in hotel management, very little research has been conducted to explore the position of women in hotel management and leadership in hospitality (Woods and Viehland, 2000); few authors have studied this topic (i.e. Lockyer and Scholarios, 2004; Swain, 1995; Iakovidou and Turner, 1994). Although, the industry shows growth, the position of women in management is low and only few women are found in high managerial positions (Li and Leung, 2001; Soehanovic et al., 2000). A Eurostat study in 2009 reveals that the accommodation sector employs mainly women. This study proposes that 60 percent of the EU employment in this sector are female workers, whilst "in terms of creating job opportunities for women, the accommodation sector scores even better than the entire hotels and restaurants sector – where female employment stands at 56 per cent" (Eurostat, 2009).

Many of the studies indicate that female managers are proportionally less than the male managers in organisations, in international management (Adler, 1994; Aitchison, 2000) as well as in general management in the hotel sector (Woods and Viehland, 2000; Rijevec, 1994 in Sehanovic et al., 2000:267). Many claim that the hospitality and tourism industry are dominated by women but are managed by men (Bagguley, 1990; Hicks, 1990; Price, 1996; Jordan, 1997; Wood, 1992; Aitchison et al., 1999). Interestingly, Diaz and Umbreit (1995:48) claim that the American

hospitality industry "has achieved gender neutrality". In counterpoint to this, studies show that the representation of women in hotel management is limited. Although, Duffield (2001:1) reports "female employment stands at a record high level of 12.9 million", and female workers make up the 45 percent of the people employed in the EU (www.eurostat.eu), the proportion of female hotel managers in the hospitality industry is very low. In their research, Woods and Viehland (2000) found that the number of female managers in positions such as Financial director, General manager, Director of sales and marketing or Food and beverage manager was only 13.9 per cent.

Many have studied the occupational and vertical segregation of women in economies in developed countries (i.e. Davidson and Cooper, 1992; Biswas and Cassell, 1996; Aitchison *et al.*, 1999). Stockdale (1991:57) defined occupational sex segregation as when "the jobs that women do are different from those done by men (horizontal segregation) and women work at lower levels than men in the occupational hierarchy (vertical segregation)". A study by the Earth Summit (2002) suggests that in horizontal segregation in tourism, women hold positions such as waitresses, chambermaids, flight attendants and other, and men are barmen, pilots etc. On vertical segregation, the 'gender pyramid' is evident, whereas positions with future career development are dominated by men. Sex role stereotyping has been discussed, and is presented as the assumption that the way people work or their working environments are characterized by one gender, therefore people behave at work based on this gender influences. These points will be further discussed in the chapter to show how they link to gender issues and the study of leadership.

Some further issues are identified relevant to women in hotel management; for example, Iakovidou and Turner (1994) suggest that high standards of maternal comfort and professionalism are required in the hospitality industry in order to develop and maintain good quality customers in a tourism destination. The hospitality and tourism industry is built on and of human relations and thus gender relations are important along with the behaviours of people within the industry (Swain, 1995). Additionally, a typical characteristic of employment in this industry is

the high level of staff turnover (Lockyer and Scholarios, 2004) that leads to the need for constant search for staff. In this environment the search is intensive and the numbers show differences among male and female employees in the industry. For example, in hotel and catering women make up nearly 50 percent of managers and the female share of those training to be managers is now over 75 percent however, management in this sector is feminized, it is becoming a low pay ghetto for women whose earnings as managers is below even average female earnings (Coyle, 1993). In fact, Jordan (1997:525) suggests that the low representation of women in hotel management is "often justified in relation to the nature of the industry itself".

Moreover, Kinnaird and Hall (1994) and Jordan (1997) suggest that the hospitality and tourism industry are influenced by gender stereotyping and therefore, there are certain types of work that women can do. They continue that women are mainly found in part-time or seasonal jobs in tourism. In fact, the Eurostat report proposes that "women account for around 80 per cent of these part-time jobs. Presenting the results in another way, out of 100 people employed in the EU, only four are part-time working men while 14 are part-time working women. Similarly, in the tourist accommodation sector, for every 100 workers just four men work part-time and 15 women work part-time" (Eurostat, 2009). Purcell (1996) even identified three types of jobs done by women. She identified the 'contingently gendered jobs', where women do jobs that include a role mainly gender neutral, the 'sex-typed jobs' where roles are sex related and the 'patriarchal practice' where roles are identified and specified by beliefs and practices that reflect gender attributes (Purcell, 1996:20). There are certain positions that are dominated by women and others by men. Women in this case hold positions that would not allow them progress in the hierarchy and become a hotel general manager (Woods and Viehland, 2000:53; Biswas and Cassell, 1996) or hold those that are poorly paid (Kinnaird and Hall, 1994). Some of these women either choose to leave their career and/or the industry (Maxwell, 1997). This behaviour is reinforced by working practices, the difficult, irregular and long working hours (hotels are open 24 hours, 7 days a week and especially managers should work as long as possible including weekends and holidays). Since there is high staff turnover, there is shortage of staff, which results in tight labour scheduling

in order to satisfy customer demands, lost sales and frustrated and overworked employees (Mulvaney *et al.*, 2007; Thompson, 1998). Due to this, managers in the hospitality industry do not have enough time to spend with their families (Stalcup and Pearson, 2001; Brow bnell, 1994a), which seems to result in problems within the family especially for women. The personal cost for female hotel managers is high and is usually at the expense of her family (Brownell, 1994a; Maxwell, 1997). Therefore, there is high family/work conflict identified in the hospitality industry. Additionally, due to the lack of time and the varying work schedule women hospitality managers do not focus on networking, training and other (Li and Leung, 2001). Brownell (1994a) in her study agrees with DeWine and Smith (1991 in Brownell, 1994a:102) who claim that women in management and in hotel management specifically "do not receive the sponsorship necessary to move into upper level management".

Maxwell (1997) claims that those female managers who remain in the hospitality industry and become general managers represent the result of accidental progress. On the other hand, Alice Wheelwright, outgoing chairwoman of the Women's Foodservice Forum said "When women are elevated into leadership positions in foodservice, the industry improves its performance" (Berta, 2006). Hogan *et al.* (1984 cited in Lockyer and Scholarios, 2004) identified several personality characteristics in the services industry that are common with those identified in the hospitality industry (Kitching, 1994) and include characteristics such as courtesy, consideration, tact, perceptiveness and good communication skills. In their study Sehanovic *et al.* (2000) suggest that women showed very good performance on organisational, financial and management knowledge, manner with people, and knowledge of the economy. They also found that women were very good at organizing work and spotting problems, which they solved quickly. They suggest that both men and women at higher levels delegate authority less than they should. Therefore, the qualities, skills and motivation of service employees influence the effectiveness of service organisations (Schneider and Bowen, 1995 cited in Lockyer and Scholarios, 2004:125).

Maxwell (1997:236) suggests that female hotel managers communicate better than the male hotel managers especially "in terms of having a deeper insight into and being more interested in their staff". She also suggests that women posses the management skills that are required by hospitality organisations. These skills include communication, flexibility, the ability to adapt, and teamwork. Furthermore, Gherardi (1994) suggests that female attractiveness is exploited within the hospitality industry. She found that in work teams, where female and male members are equally represented, the teams work better, showing greater productivity and quality of work.

Izraeli and Adler (1994) in their study suggest that the country in which they live and work, their cultural and the societal practices influence the choices that women make. Interestingly, Cassell (1996:64) suggests that "one must remain cautious about the promises of an increased value being associated with women's work". Some suggest that culture within specific industries, i.e. the hospitality and tourism, may influence gender roles (Aitchison *et al.*, 1999). Additionally, it has been argued that women in certain situations adopt appropriate behaviours and roles adapted to the context in which they operate (Biswas and Cassell, 1996; Cassell, 1996). In other situations women have the opportunity to express themselves and operate according to their traditional roles (Brownell, 1994a,b). However, the position and the effectiveness and success of women in this industry are not predetermined. Both female and male managers may employ success and effectiveness traits in the hospitality industry.

Although female participation in the workforce has gradually increased over the past decades a proportionally growth in the number of women in management has not occurred, as sex segregation is still evident. Women are underrepresented in high managerial positions and they face many challenges in management in higher positions. Findings suggest that there are many hindering factors to the advancement of women's careers. Within this context the glass ceiling phenomenon emerges.

3.2.1 The glass ceiling in management and hospitality management

Today's hospitality environment constantly changes and is characterized by uncertainty and unpredictability (Erkutlu, 2008). Within this environment, changes in the workforce and employability are evident. Amongst other factors such as geographical and cultural distances (Nickson and Warhurst, 2001), the increasing numbers of women in employment have changed the face of hospitality organisations. According to the International Labour Office (ILO, 2009) over 200 million of people are employed in the hospitality and tourism industry, but women in management represent only the 6,4 percent (Duffield, 2002).

Even though progress has been made over the last decades, barriers to women's advancement continue to persist. These barriers as well as the lack of women in management and leadership positions refer to the phenomenon of the glass ceiling (Heilman, 2001); Knutson and Schmidgall (1999:64) define the glass ceiling as the "invisible, generally artificial barriers that prevent qualified individuals – in this case, women – from advancing within their organisation and reaching their full potential". According to Stelter (2002) the glass ceiling reflects the socially constructed expectations and beliefs that undermine women's managerial positions. Although, nowadays women hold managerial positions, they continue to face barriers to their upward mobility. Dreher (2003) suggests that women in management advance as far as they encounter the glass ceiling in the hierarchy. The glass ceiling, according to Ragins *et al.* (1998) is based on attitudinal or organisational bias. Women's role historically has been in the home, taking care of children and husband. Women, however, during the World War II, went to work because men were at war, and after this period, they were sent back home to be housewives. Later in the 1960s women entered the workplace and since then they have stayed in the workplace and the number of women working has been continuously increasing. Although they comprise almost half of the workplace, they number of women in management is still low (Catalyst, 2005). However, women have led to shifts in societal views about their role in the economy as their share of the labour workforce is increasing worldwide.

The glass ceiling is viewed as a form of gender bias and the various differences between genders in leadership and managerial positions. In addition to this metaphor of the glass ceiling the 'labyrinth effect' has been introduced in an article of the Harvard Business Review (Eagly and Carli, 2007). This refers to the difficulties women face in advancing their career. Therefore, the career for women is a complex journey, but as the concept supports, it is not necessary to view these obstacles as discouraging, as women may be aware of these challenges and find ways to overcome these barriers. The main difficulties women face in climbing to top management positions include the old boys network (Brownell, 1998; Diaz and Umbreit, 1995), working family conflict and poor childcare support (Brownell, 1998) and lack of assertiveness, male bias and stereotyping, insufficient career planning and unhelpful boss (Weber, 1998). Dreher, (2003) suggests that there are many different views of the barriers that exist and account to the phenomenon of the glass ceiling. For example, a study in Europe by Catalyst proposes that the most prominent barrier to women's advancement in organisations are stereotypes and preconceptions of women's roles and abilities, then lack of seniority or visibly successful female role models, lack of significant general management or line experience, commitment to family or personal responsibilities and lack of mentoring (Catalyst, 2005:3). The glass ceiling barriers exist because of the lack of human capital and investment in recruiting and hiring female managers, on the sex and gender role socialisation and stereotypes and finally managerial sex and gender role stereotyping. Van der Boon (2003) provides a variety of reasons for the existence of the glass ceiling; among others, she emphasises the structural and and systematic discrimination the lack of opportunity and power, tokenism, the lack of mentors, and finally the lack of appropriate organisational approaches to career development and advancement for women.

In view of this, men are considered to be the leaders and women the followers. Therefore, there is the view that organisations are male-dominated, and reflect a masculine culture (Itzin, 1995). In this managerial environment women are set aside, they face fierce competition with their male colleagues, and they are forced to suppress their emotions. The literature suggests that there is the "masculine

dimension" in organisations, which demonstrates the attributes of "the promotion of independence, autonomy, hierarchical relations, competition, task- orientation and the establishment of status and authority" (Van Vianen and Fischer, 2002:318). Contrary to this, the feminine culture demonstrates attributes such as "the promotion of a relational self, maintaining balance in life activities, participation, and collaboration within the organisation" (Van Vianen and Fischer, 2002:319). In addition, there is evidence of change towards new dynamic organisations where women are given more opportunities to progress and evolve (Holter, 1997). However, gender stereotypes have been viewed by many as a reason for the existence of the glass ceiling phenomenon (Mihail, 2006).

Organisational culture and attributes influence the position women hold. These two different types of cultural attributes may play an important part in how people fit into an organisation and whether there is perceived or actual role / culture congruence. There is a lot of debate on the above issues with reference to occupational and vertical segregation of women in management, that seems to exist in hospitality as well (Maxwell, 1997:230). The glass-ceiling phenomenon is important in this industry, since gender stereotyping is a dominant factor (Duffield, 2002). Most studies on the topic are rather descriptive and do not differentiate by industry.

Weyer (2007) suggests that a way to explain the existence of the glass-ceiling is to study structural/cultural models, where "social structures, systems and arrangements channel and define gender differences due to discrepancies in status and power" (Bartol *et al*., 2003:9). These are the causes for differences in leadership attributed to gender, and refer to the social roles between men and women as they are discussed in paragraph 3.4.

With the upsurge of women in the workplace and in positions in leadership, a debate has arisen as to whether women have the same leadership styles as men. There are two different views; the one that proposes that women and men lead differently, and thus women possess or develop certain traits that differ from those of men, and the other view that there are no differences or that there are many similarities on how the

two lead. Usually, according to the second view, the disparities among female and male leaders are attributed to other responsibilities, rather than to gender. Therefore, this chapter discusses these issues related to gender and leadership with a focus on transformational leadership in an effort to explore the relevant literature and the significance of the problem.

3.3 SOCIAL IDENTITY AND SOCIAL ROLES

In order to understand men's and women's position in organisations it is important to have an overview of social identity and social roles and explore how these influence peoples' behaviour. It is found that people are born with a specific sex, but during their lives they are socialized within their family and later within their broader environment. Firstly, Tajfel (1972 cited in Hogg, 2001) introduced the idea of social identity to theorise how people conceptualise themselves in intergroup contexts, how a system of social categorisation creates and defines an individual's own place in society. He defined social identity as "the individual's knowledge that he belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional and value significance to him of this group membership" (Tajfel, 1972:292 cited in Hogg, 2001:186). Further, Hogg (2001) suggests that social identity is influenced by the group to which the person belongs, and from the social comparisons between the groups and the intergroup relations. Thus, social identity within the group is shared among the members of the group. This social identity may be categorized based on ethnicity, nationality, and/or gender. Furthermore, Stet and Burke (2000) support the view that there are many similarities between social identity and identity theory, and the way people see their own identity is very much influenced by the social identity they embrace, thus, they perform specific social roles.

According to social role theory culture determines how males and females should behave. It assumes gender differences in the behaviour of both in their social life (Eagly *et al.,* 2000; Powell and Butterfield, 2003; Eagly, 1987). They add that the distinctive sex – gender - role is evident in all aspects of life and influences work roles even if they are incompatible. Powell and Butterfield (2003:89) claim that

"gender identity was likely to have been influenced by socially determined gender roles". Moreover, Eagly (2003) claims that gender social roles define the beliefs about women and men, because each has a certain position in society. Both are considered to perform specific roles and thus to have specific attributes ascribed to each. Eagly (2003) states that gender roles define the beliefs not only of what they group members actually do but also what they should do.

As a result of gender role socialisation processes, men aspire to enter male-dominated occupations seen as calling for "masculine" personal qualities, whereas women aspire to enter feminine occupations seen as calling for "feminine" personal qualities (Powell and Butterfield, 2003). In fact, Davidson and Cooper (1992) and Oakley (2000) claim that the executive role is characterized as male role and thus women are seen not to fit this role's requirements. However, more recent studies have found that women's occupational aspirations have become more similar to those of men (Powell and Butterfield, 2003). The reduction of the gender difference in occupational aspirations may reflect societal change. Gender identity is more likely to have been influenced by socially determined gender roles (Eagly, 1987) and thus could have accounted for effects that otherwise would be attributable to gender. Therefore, gender roles follow from observations of people in sex-typical social roles.

The social role theory of sex differences supports that in general people engage in activities and behaviours that are defined by their gender roles (Oakley, 2000; Eagly, 1987). Moreover, Eagly *et al.* (1995:126) proposes that

> social pressures external to individuals generally favour gender role consistent behaviour, and to some extent, people may internalise cultural expectations about their sex and consequently be intrinsically motivated to act in a manner consistent with their gender roles.

Thus, as Eagly (2003) suggests the sexes have somewhat divergent traits and behaviours. Nevertheless, Giddens (2001:108) claims that "gender socialization is not an inherently smooth process", and he continues "people are active agents who create and modify roles themselves". Therefore, men and women may choose to

behave in ways that are more appropriate and effective considering the situation and the context.

The different socialisation of men and women may explain women's attainment of positions of leadership. Social identity and social roles influences leadership (Hogg, 2001). According to Hogg (2001:188) "leadership is about how some individuals or cliques have disproportionate power and influence to set agenda, define identity and mobilize people to achieve collective goals". He continues that "the differential ability of some people to stamp their mark on attitudes, practices, decisions and actions is endemic to all social groups". Barker (1997) proposes that leaders are people who have disproportionate influence, they possess prestige or exercise power, over group members' attitudes, behaviours and destiny. Additionally, Gemmill and Oakley (1992:124) defined leadership as "a process of dynamic collaboration, where individuals and organisation members authorise themselves and others to interact in ways that experiment with new forms of intellectual and social meaning". So, the concept of leadership could be seen as a social process that contains complex relationships. This process is based on a set of role expectations that are understood by participants in the relationship. Barker (1997) also proposes that the social process includes also ideas about relationships in groups. Women's socialisation, their shared experiences and their feminine attributes all predispose them to lead in ways which are more effective and humane. Essentialist notions of "woman" and feminine values are turned into an ideology about female management. This argument seeks to persuade male managers, who are currently dominant in organisations, that it may be in their best interests to learn to manage and be managed in a more feminine way. This strategy far from enabling women to become more powerful, has merely locked them into behaving in stereotypical gendered ways to boost the profits of the male power elite as discussed in the following paragraphs.

Prejudice against female leaders arises because of the incongruity between the predominantly communal qualities that perceivers associate with women and the predominantly agentic qualities that they believe are required to succeed as a leader. All the same, Trinidad and Normore (2005) propose three basic factors that influence

and shape the behaviours of men and women; socialization, culture of origin and the organisational culture in which they have their professional lives. Thus, gender and social roles continue to convey meaning about leaders, albeit in conjunction with organisational roles; however, before providing a discussion on gender influences on leadership it is important to present some issues concerning gender in general.

3.4 DEFINING GENDER

As it has been previously discussed people have a social identity that may be influenced by their gender, and thus behave accordingly. Therefore, at this point the author explores the concept of gender to investigate any relevant issues that address the position of men and women in society and eventually in the workplace. The concept of gender has been broadly studied taking a "more diffuse set of meanings" (Marshall, 1995:2). In the beginning the concept of gender referred to the differences between men and women (Connell, 2009), in fact, as Davis *et al.* (2006) suggest in the beginning gender was not separated from sex. Money (1965 cited in Davis *et al.*, 2006:36) and Stoller (1968 cited in Davis *et al.*, 2006:36) studied gender but originally proposed that it is necessary to distinct sex and gender. Further, Gherardi (1994) suggests that gender is a powerful symbol that embodies the biological differences in culture, since masculinity and femininity are socially constructed. In view of this, Connell (2009) claims that people are born with a specific sex i.e. as a man, but he is not masculine, he rather acquires masculinity and so becomes a man, through his social life.

There are many definitions of gender, for example West and Zimmerman (1987:126) defined gender as:

> the activity of managing situated conduct in the light of normative conceptions or attitudes and activities appropriated for one's sex category. Doing gender involves a complex of socially guided perceptual, interactional and micropolitical activities that cast particular pursuits as expressions of masculine and feminine natures.

Acker (1992:566) defined gender as a:

process by which human activities, practices and social structures are ordered in terms of differentiations between women and men, then an understanding of institutions as "gendered" becomes defined as gender being present within processes, practices, images, ideologies, and distributions of power in the institution.

Brandser (1996:4) defined gender as "the distinctive culturally created qualities of men and women apart from their biological differences". Gherardi (1994:595) states that "in other words, gender is something we think, something we do, and something we make accountable to others". Gender is not a simple property of people, but an activity and a social dynamic. There is also the symbolic universe of masculinity and femininity as cultural and transpersonal archetypes (Jung, 1953). Thus, according to Connell (2009:4). "we cannot think of womanhood or manhood as fixed by nature" People choose one or the other. Moreover, research suggests that people usually combine the two, even though the majority has studied the differences between the two genders (Connell, 2009). Futhermore, Marshall (1995) proposes that gender refers to the social expectations and roles attributed to people. For example, Giddens (2001) criticizes gender socialisation and proposes that people may choose to construct their body for example to have either male of female characteristics with diet and exercise or even with the way they dress. Gherardi (1994) adds that although gender is socially constructed, it is easy to change gender roles depending on the situation. Butler (1990) supports this view and suggests that the biological differences between men and women are illusory. Thus, rather than there being a singular femininity or masculinity fixed to the female or male body respectively, there are a range of femininities and masculinities that are historically, socially and culturally specific, fluid and changing. There are however, according to Pini (2005) dominant, privileged and hegemonic ways of doing gender in specific sites and times.

In the study of gender in organisations, Wilson and Iles (1996) suggest that gender is a key organising principle, keeping some people (mostly women) in their place, constraining the behaviour of both men and women and thus limiting a diversity of contribution to their respective organisations. Furthermore, organisation scholars reject claims that gender is irrelevant at work or that workers have no gender, that

jobs are de-embodied, gender free empty slots and that people leave their gender at the door when entering the workplace (Martin, 2006). This suggests that even if people could leave gender at the door, gender would still be present because it is already there.

Studying gender cultures in organisations means focusing attention on how the members of an organisation acquire and then produce and reproduce symbols, beliefs and patterns of behaviour connected with gender membership (Gherardi and Poggio, 2001). Organisational culture includes specific rules, values, and meanings that are expressed via gender, and the meanings that these have to respective genders. Therefore, the experience of either gender at work is governed by gender roles in organisations (Gherardi and Poggio, 2001) which reflect the socially constructed image of maleness and femaleness and specify power relations among them. For example, Carli (2001) suggests that women who enter traditional male organisational cultures are faced with rules assuming that there is a traditional male position. Gender roles in organisations determine how individuals will interact, who will dominate the group and identify the gender differences. Moreover, Martin (2006) proposes that if people believe that gender matters then they will behave according to the gender roles ascribed to their gender and they will interpret this with routinized engagements in verbal and body actions and interactions.

Summarising the above, gender is socially constructed and is influenced by culture. Some gender differences exist but could be viewed as complementary. The concept of gender has a personal dimension, a social order and is a cultural symbol. Although some gender confusion exists there are norms and beliefs in society that specify and show how each gender behaves and which social roles they will adopt. Thus, there are behaviours and attributes associated with each gender that are discussed in the following section.

3.4.1 Gender identity: Femininity and masculinity

Gender includes a variety of other concepts such as gender roles, gender identity and gender attitudes as previously discussed. The two gender identities, according to Loganathan and Krishnan (2010:54), refer to masculinity and femininity. Alvesson and Billing (1997) claim that the two concepts cannot be seen in isolation, they are both studied in how the one influences or contradicts the other.

Fondas (1997) proposes that feminine is a word that refers to the characteristics of females. Although theorists debate whether the feminine or masculine attributes are biologically given or socially constructed, most researchers credit women with some or all of the following qualities: empathy, helpfulness, caring and nurturance; interpersonal sensitivity, attentiveness to and acceptance of others, responsiveness to their needs and motivations; an orientation toward the collective interest and toward integrative goals such as group cohesiveness and stability; a preference for open, egalitarian, and cooperative relationships, rather than hierarchical ones; and an interest in actualising values and relationships of great importance to community. These attributes have been considered as the attributes of the powerless, because of a social dynamic of political nature (Adler, 1997; Gherardi, 1994). Further, for Hines (1992:314) femininity is "a matter of the prioritizing of feelings… the importance of the imaginative and creative". Additionally, Marshall (1993:125) claims that "female values or the female principle are characterised by interdependence, cooperation, receptivity, merging, acceptance, awareness of patterns, wholes and contexts, emotional tone, personalistic perception, being, intuition, and synthesizing". Kolb (1999:307) adds that feminine traits and behaviours include "affectionate, compassionate, and cheerful, does not use harsh language, is loyal, sensitive to the needs of others, sympathetic, gentle, and understanding, loves children and is tender and warm".

Addler (2002) and Fondas (1997) summarise that traits ascribed to men – masculinity - include an ability to be impersonal, self-interested, efficient, hierarchical, tough minded and assertive; an interest in taking charge, control and

domination; a capacity to ignore personal, emotional considerations in order to succeed; a proclivity to rely on standardised or "objective" codes for judgment and evaluation of others; and a heroic orientation toward task accomplishment and a continual effort to act on the world and become something new. In addition, Kolb (1999:307) included as masculine characteristics "self-reliant, independent and assertive, makes decisions easily, is dominant, is athletic and ambitious and sefl-sufficient". Gherardi and Poggio (2001:247) suggest that "masculinity and femininity are symbolic universes of meaning which derive from an implicit and explicit opposition". Therefore, they continue that they are opposing to each other, since males and females are perceived to belong to alternative opposing categories, and thus belonging to the one is not belonging to the other.

Masculinity and femininity are treated as distinct and complementary (Vecchio, 2002; Bem, 1981; Bakan, 1966). For example, Bem (1987) developed a model, which focuses on psychological sex (or gender role identity) rather than biological sex (being male or female) and treats femininity and masculinity as theoretically orthogonal. Individuals who rate themselves high on feminine traits and low on masculine traits are considered feminine; those who rate themselves high on masculine traits and low on feminine traits are considered masculine; those who rate themselves high on both are considered androgynous; and those who rate themselves low on both are considered undifferentiated. With respect to leadership in groups, this theory would predict that regardless of group sex composition or the sex of the individual, masculine group members will display competitive and task-oriented behaviour and emerge as task leaders and feminine group members will not compete or engage in much task behaviour in a group but will instead engage in high levels of social behaviour, emerging as social leaders. The degree to which males and females are expected to behave differently, are treated differently, or are valued differently has little to do with sex and everything to do with gender (Northouse, 2001).

Furthermore, masculinity and femininity are related to power. Lewis and Morgan (1994) suggest that the social construction of masculinity and femininity plays a central role in negotiating and limiting power and status. In most contexts, including

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the workplace, perceptions of the behaviour of men and women are "automatically filtered through a gendered lens" (Stubbe *et al.,* 2000:250). The gender role of masculinity and other individual characteristics, such as career ambition and work motivation have been associated with success in management (Kirchmeyer, 2002). Additionally, gender roles proved to be particularly important to decisions about women's promotions.

Another issue in masculinity and femininity refers to the two classes of attributes associated with them which are agenticism and communalism respectively. Agenticism includes being assertive, controlling, aggressive, ambitious, dominant, forceful, independent, self-confident, and competitive. Communalism includes being concerned with the welfare of others, caring, nurturing, emotional, empathetic, supportive and selfless. Female managers are likely to have a more people-oriented, participative, and supportive leadership style while men are more task-oriented and commanding (Toren *et al*., 1997; Eagly and Johnson, 1990). For example, a good manager is described predominantly by masculine attributes and the stereotypically male qualities are thought necessary to being a successful executive (Heilman, 2001).

In this thesis, gender is conceptualised as socially constructed, produced and reproduced through daily practices, and interactions (Alvesson and Due Billing, 1997). Gender will be used to refer to the social-psychological categories of masculinity and femininity and sex will be used to refer to the biological categories of male and female. Sex does not inherently determine which behaviours an individual is capable of or will display, and the sex of a target person determines the expectations that both that person and others in the group will have for the target person's behaviour (Berdahl, 1996). Since biological sex is not an important factor in determining leadership style (Korabik, 1990) which is the main issue in this research, gender will be studied in order to investigate how or if it influences transformational leadership. Thus, gender is used to describe the cultural, social and psychological traits of individuals as masculine or feminine, but which may be ascribed to traits of either biological sex.

3.5 GENDER, SEX ROLE STEREOTYPES AND LEADERSHIP

There is evidence that sex stereotypes influence the way in which male and female leaders develop their leadership style as well as the way in which they are evaluated as to their effectiveness. There are others who claim that the sex or gender do not influence the leadership style. Although, people expect male and female managers to have different leadership styles, the existing evidence is weak (Van Engen *et al.*, 2001; Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Dobbins and Platz, 1986). Therefore, this section explores the sex and gender stereotypes that exist in order to show how or whether these influence the way men and women behave in organisations based on the gender roles they are expected to perform.

Sex role stereotyping works to define the understanding of women and men whereas masculinity and femininity to the creation of traditional and often idealised notions of what each sex is like and do (Halford and Leonard, 2001). Gender-role stereotypes are the features people assign to men and women in societies, features not assigned due to biological sex but due to the social roles that men and women hold (Helgesson, 2005). Stereotypes create specific perceptions and images about certain demographic, ethnic, organisational, national or gender issues (Phatak *et al.*, 2005). Moreover, Eagly *et al.* (2003) claim that there are expectations of individuals who occupy a certain position. In fact, Eagly (2003) suggests that there is prejudice toward female leaders that creates a disadvantage for this group of people. In general, prejudice exists when people have specific beliefs about the social roles of the two sexes. In an earlier study, she suggests that prejudice arises from the relations that people perceive between the characteristics of members of a social group and the requirements of the social roles that group members occupy or aspire to occupy (Eagly, 1991). She also claims that this prejudice may explain the low representation of women leaders. Ragins (1997) in his study of women minority workforce in the UK found that women were marginalized and excluded from management positions due to stereotyping. Moreover, Schein (2001) in his studies found that gender stereotypes in management exist, mainly on the male managers' part who hold attitudes that are influenced by stereotypes and she states (2001:678) "think manager

– think male". Interestingly, the female managers in her study see women and men equally, and both show the same behaviour as managers.

Social stereotypes, like those about gender, are generalisations made to differentiate categories or groups of people (Catalyst, 2005). In the case of gender stereotypes, these consist of generalisations about how women and men differ. People often apply stereotypes automatically. Stereotypes enable people to function in a similar way on social tasks or interactions. With stereotypes people can and do arrive at judgments about individuals. It is interesting that people accept these perceptions without being aware of the role that stereotypes have played in creating them. Clearly, when stereotypes are used to make judgments about people – especially about their traits and abilities – that these judgments will be wrong (Catalyst, 2005; Heilman, 2001). Thus, sometimes stereotypes may lead to generalizations that do represent reality, since people as Eagly (2003) proposes are influenced by stereotypes without being aware of it.

In fact, many authors agree that what is considered good or appropriate leadership behaviour is linked to stereotypes that favour men as having more leadership qualifications (Eagly, 2003; Yukl, 2002; Oakley, 2000; Brenner *et al*., 1989). Moreover, other studies have shown that traditional masculine characteristics generally are considered to be more positively valued than traditionally feminine characteristics (Bass, 1990). When studying gender and leader roles, Knippenbergh and Hogg (2003:89) suggest that "it is in thinking about female leaders suggests that people would combine two divergent sets of expectations – those about leaders and those about women", since men have been perceived as being better suited to become leaders than women. Miner (1965) claimed that in sex stereotypes, being a manager is paralleled with being a man, therefore, both a manager and a man need to be able to take charge, to make decisions, to be assertive, and to take disciplinary action, but women managers in hierarchical organisations must follow masculine behaviour patterns. Furthermore, Hennig (1971) proposed that women in their effort to overcome the prejudice against women managers adopted the masculine

management style. Similarly, Merrick (2002:107) also proposes that female managers in a study feel they "must adapt the characteristics, attitudes and temperaments of the masculine stereotype". Eagly and Johnson (1990) in their study suggest that women managers in male-dominated companies show masculine leadership styles. Korabik (1990) found that when women hold managerial positions are higher in masculinity. Brenner *et al*. (1989) in their study found that men confirmed the view that successful managers possess characteristics ascribed to men, whereas, interestingly, women in their study linked successful managers' characteristics with both men and women in general. Another study by Catalyst (2001) in the UK claims that women adjust their style to one that men are comfortable with. Thus, as Mosckowitz *et al*. (1994) claim they behave in a more commonly way due to their interactions with men.

These stereotypic beliefs spill over into the workplace, posing an invisible and powerful threat to women leaders (Heilman, 2001). According to Ridgeway (1997:231) gender provides "an implicit, background identity in the workplace", and stereotypes can limit women's opportunities for advancement into top leadership positions and for development of their own leadership style, especially since women anticipate a glass ceiling. Sex stereotypes suggest that women do not hold the necessary qualities to become successful leaders. Thus, women do not measure up to men in leadership (Catalyst, 2005; Dawley *et al.,* 2004; Oakley, 2000; Eagly *et al*., 1995) and women who actually occupy leadership roles should excel relative to their male counterparts (Eagly *et al.,* 1995). Women are faced with the conflict between the stereotypic expectations of them in their roles as women and leaders (Bass, 1990). More specifically the Catalyst (2005) report, as shown in Table 3.1, provides a list of behaviours of women and men and how they are expected to behave under gender stereotypes (Heilman, 2001).

Table 3.1: How leader behaviours connect to feminine and masculine stereotypes

Supporting	Problem-Solving
Encouraging, assisting, and providing resources for others	Identifying, analysing, and acting decisively to remove impediments to work performance
Rewarding	Influencing Upward
Providing praise, recognition, and financial remuneration when appropriate	Affecting others in positions of higher rank
Mentoring	Delegating
Facilitating the skill development and career advancement of subordinates	Authorizing others to have substantial responsibility and discretion
Networking	
Developing and maintaining relationships with others who may provide information or support resources	
Consulting	
Checking with others before making plans or decisions that affect them	
Team-Building	
Encouraging positive identification with the organisation unit, cooperation and constructive conflict resolution	
Inspiring	
Motivating others toward greater enthusiasm for, and commitment to, work objects by appealing to emotion, value, or personal example	

Source: Catalyst (2005:10)

Gender role stereotypes regarding women's behaviour and work habits and the reasons women work, have a real and negative impact on women, although there are some supportable and complex reasons for women's absence from senior management, such as their taking time out for raising children, lack of mobility and social problems (Vinnicombe and Singh, 2002). Others suggest that sex and gender role stereotyping do not influence leadership since both male and female managers were found to possess characteristics and attitudes of leaders. Alimo-Metcalfe (1998:38) reports that "up until the early 1990s most studies investigating whether there are significant differences between the sexes in leadership style concluded that there were no major sex differences". Later studies show that there are gender differences and stereotypes that influence the leadership style that men and women

will adopt. However, more recently, Schein (2007) proposes that gender stereotyping at work has been proved wrong, after all her studies with female managers. Dipboye (1975 cited in Merrick, 2002:110) also criticized studies on male advantage and existence of gender stereotypes, because false assumptions are made and specifically says "the ultimate consequence of sex stereotypes is that they may become self-fulfilling". Similarly, Stanek (1980) claims that male and female characteristics blend as managers move into management, and highlights the changing business environment that forces female managers to be more aggressive and to change their stategies. Peters and Kabacoff (2002:3) in their study confirmed the view that "women and men have fewer differences in leadership style at the top". In addition, Merrick (2002) argues that men and women resist gender stereotypes. Eagly *et al.* (2003) also minimize the importance of any differences found between men and women. Further, Korabik and Ayman (1989) disagree with Rosener's study and suggest that men and women have a leadership style that is influenced by both masculine and feminine characteristics. They continue that people have both types of characteristics and depending on the situation they develop or use the one more than the other. In addition, Reavley (1989 cited in DeMatteo, 1994) proposes that it is not necessary to provide a debate between male and female effectiveness or characteristics in leadership, since management and leadership required abilities and skills some of which are ascribed to men and other to women. This could be an androgynous style where there is a blend of feminine and masculine characteristics and behaviours, where men and women strengthen each other' s approach to complement them (DeMatteo, 1994). Toren *et al*. (1997) in their study of management in the USA, Japan, Australia, Israel and Italy found that the preferred managerial style is strongly influenced by country, and only a few differences between women and men have been found in their management style and preferences. In fact, their data do not confirm the gender stereotype that women differ from men in their management, and that women are more person-oriented, whereas men are more task-oriented.

In sum, research on gender and sex stereotypes and differences in leadership styles shows that there is inconsistency in the findings and this suggests that a closer look is required.

3.6 MALE AND FEMALE LEADERS' EFFECTIVENESS

It is suggested that for a woman to attain the same leadership position as her male counterpart, she has to be more qualified, but given poorly administered affirmative action policies, the reverse could also be argued. Given the positive correlations of transformational leadership with effectiveness and satisfaction among those led (Bass, 1998), it follows that if women are more transformational than their male counterparts, they will be more effective and satisfying. This influence of gender roles on organisational behaviour occurs not only because people react to leaders in terms of gendered expectancies and leaders respond in turn, but also because most people have internalized gender roles to some extent (Eagly *et al.*, 1995). Table 3.2 shows some results of the Catalyst report.

Table 3.2: Leaderhip behaviours at which men are considered better than women

Women Respondents	Men Respondents
… consider MEN leaders better than women leaders at:	
Influencing Upward	Problem-Solving
Delegating	Delegating
Networking	Influencing Upward
	Inspiring

Feminine behaviour Masculine behaviour

 Source: Catalyst (2005:11)

As reported by Catalyst (2005) male and female respondents agreed that male leaders are more effective in all the masculine leader behaviours. Furthermore, female participants in the study consider male leaders better than women on delegating and influencing upward, and greater competency on inspiring. Thus, male leaders were perceived better than female leaders not only in masculine leaders behaviours, but also in inspiring which is considered as a feminine behaviour. Moreover, the report

proposes that in general gender stereotypes are evident since male leaders were more characterised by masculine leader behaviours and female leaders on feminine.

Table 3.3 shows that female leaders were consistently considered better at the more feminine leader behaviours than masculine behaviours. In fact, female managers in the sample judged women leaders as better than men in all of the behaviours classified as feminine except for networking. Men's responses showed a similar but abbreviated pattern. Male participants judged female leaders better at only two of the leader behaviours, and both of them were feminine behaviours. In support of this view, Wood (1976 cited in Bass, 1990) had suggested that male managers in his study tended to rate their female peers highly in decision-making, competence, and ability to handle emotions. Further, Bass (1990) acknowledged some evidence that male leaders were evaluated more favourably than female leaders, but attributed this trend to observer's biases and stereotyped expectations. In fact Eagly (1995) suggests that negative preconceptions about female's leadership can diminish their performance. Moreover, male leaders may have an advantage over female leaders and may be somewhat more effective on the average because they are less likely to be subjected to prejudiced reactions (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly *et al*., 1995). As noted earlier, problem-solving was the only masculine behaviour at which women perceived female leaders to be superior.

Table 3.3: Leaderhip behaviours at which women are considered better than men

Women Respondents	Men Respondents
… consider WOMEN leaders better than men leaders at:	
Supporting	Supporting
Rewarding	Rewarding
Team building	
Mentoring	
Consulting	
Inspiring	
Problem-solving	

Feminine behaviour   Masculine behaviour

Source: Catalyst (2005:12)

The effects of communication style on influence may also depend on the gender (Carli, 2001; Kabacoff, 1998). Men in particular, respond unfavourably to women who communicate self-interest rather than friendliness, warmth, and other communal characteristics. Women tend to be seen as better communicators (Bass, 1990). They emphasise emotional and interpersonal dimension in their speech, whereas men emphasise rational and instrumental dimensions in their speech (Bowes-Sperry *et al.,* 1997; Appelbaum *et al.*, 2003). Also, women have been found to be superior in encoding and decoding nonverbal cues (Hall and Halberstadt, 1981 cited in Bass, 1990).

In general respondents were aligned with gender stereotypes. Eagly *et al.* (1995) in their meta analysis of 96 studies, where female and male leaders were compared, found that male and female leaders hold similar roles that are however, broadly defined. Nevertheless, they found that women are typically judged better than men at feminine leader behaviours and men judged better than women at masculine behaviours. Small differences may indicate where stereotypes are beginning to break down, where women and men no longer rely on trait-based judgments, but instead recognise individuals' capabilities and base their assessments on merit rather than perception. Similarly, Eagly and Karau (2002:587) state "the relative effectiveness of female leaders compared with their male counterparts decreased substantially for the roles rated as more congruent with the male gender role and increased for the roles rated as more congruent with the female gender role".

Large differences may indicate which stereotypes are particularly immune to extinction – those aspects of leadership where men and women continue to resort to error-prone stereotypic judgments. These show that gender-stereotype norms also include "should nots". Typically, according to Heilman (2001) these include behaviours associated with the opposite sex that are seen as incompatible with the behaviour deemed desirable for one's own. Thus, as Eagly and Carli (2003) suggest in many cases the agentic tendencies for which men are so positively valued are prohibited for women. Women who are effective leaders tend to violate standards for their gender, because they manifest male-stereotypic, agentic attributes and can fail

to sufficiently manifest female-stereotypic, communal attributes. These gender-role violations can lower evaluations of women in leadership roles. However, role conflict for female leaders might also be minimised by adopting a relatively feminine leadership style that would meet people's traditional expectations about female behaviour (Eagly *et al*., 1995). In their study Eagly and Johnson (1990) found that female leaders, including managers in organisations, adopted a relatively democratic and participative style, consistent with the female gender role. In addition, Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) suggest that when female leaders adopt a participative leadership style they may overcome the resistance from other people in the organisation and may be easier accepted as leaders. Nevertheless, adopting a feminine leadership style may not provide women with a sure route of unbiased evaluations of their competence as leaders. Therefore, as Van Knippenberg and Hogg (2003:86) propose "the role incongruity analysis thus portrays women in leadership roles as facing two sorts of dangers − being too feminine or too masculine". Thus, women may be excluded from leadership, or may be perceived as lesser leaders due to stereotypical prejudice. In addition, Eagly (2003) proposes that such stereotypes may be also self-imposed by women, therefore, they may not aspire for higher leadership positions.

Moreover, Eagly (2003) proposes that several types of research have confirmed the hypothesis that women have lesser access to leadership roles than men. They may also cause women to be reluctant to assert themselves for the fear of being seen as aggressive or as Heller (1982) claimed to display their ambition to achieve for the fear of failure. However, if the managerial styles are feminine, then women run the risk of not being viewed as effective managers, but if they adopt masculine styles viewed as appropriate for managerial roles, they may be criticized for not being feminine (Heilman, 2001; Oakley, 2000; Ragins *et al*., 1998; Korabik, 1990). In addition, Carli and Eagly (2002:661) suggest that women who do not display "womanly" attributes and men who do not display "manly" attributes are judged less psychologically healthy and are evaluated less favourably than those who do so. Furthermore, Eagly (2005) states that the leaders were rated to be more effective when they performed a role that congruents with their gender role. Moreover,

Appelbaum *et al.* (2003) state "acting feminine is associated with "incompetence", and acting "competent" is associated with the opposite polarity of masculine traits that when adopted by women can only lead to the conclusion that one must be "un-feminine" to be competent". Thus, as Eagly *et al.* (1995) suggest leaders' effectiveness depends on their style of leading in interaction with the features of the situation. Women and men may differ in effectiveness to the extent that they have chronically different leadership styles.

In view to the fact that women are challenged when they use their gender related leadership style, Oakley (2000:326) suggests that "double-binds are challenging because they are often not articulated as such, but instead present themselves to women in the form of challenges or obstacle courses to surmount". According to Oakley (2000:324) "a double-blind is a behavioural norm that creates a situation where a person cannot win no matter what she does". But, as she continues women face challenges such as the decision to speak assertively but not too much, to dress like a woman but not too feminine, that consume much of their time, effort and energy and finally away from the really important tasks. In addition, Oakley (2000) proposes that women are also challenged when they speak and the tone of their voice, their physical appearance and the way they dress. Thus, as Dawley *et al.* (2004) agree, a female leader is likely to receive conflicting messages express incompatible expectations, e.g. a leader but feminine, a female leader's inability to meet all of these expectations can lead to dissatisfaction with her performance. Therefore, women are more likely to change their behaviour according to the social context, becoming more "masculine" when necessary. In fact, women strive for a balance between masculinity, which is valued in leaders, but only to a modest extent in female leaders, and in femininity (Callahan *et al.*, 2005; Olsson, 2000). It is evident from the above, and as Kirchmeyer (2002) suggests, that because female managers are assumed not to possess the suitable traits for managing it may be necessary for them to adopt masculine leadership behaviours to strengthen people's perception on their competence to manage and lead.

Furthermore, as Heileman (2001) claims usually a woman's work is regarded as inferior to a man's, even if their result or work is similar or identical. She (2001:662) continues that "unless the quality of the work product is incontrovertible, women's accomplishments are undervalued as compared to those of men". Moreover, it appears that the more women are viewed in stereotypic terms the more likely this is to occur. It has also been demonstrated that the evaluation of work is different depending on the actor. In the case of gender bias, the preconceived ideas are expectations about the lesser capability of women to perform competently (Eagly *et al.,* 1995). Often success is not seen as the woman's. A man's success is more likely to be attributed to ability, but a woman's success will be attributed to hard work, good luck, or an easy task (Deaux and Emswiller, 1974 cited in Bass, 1990). However, there is not a great deal of consensus about what makes a senior manager successful, evaluations of managers in organisations is often less structured than would be optimal (Heilman, 2001). In addition, she suggests that conditions in organisations that blur the contribution of individuals to a final product are particularly conducive to attributions that place responsibility for success elsewhere than on the woman, such as the organisational culture, the hierarchy, the power of control and other external influences. Olsson (2002) claims that male leaders are transformed to transformational leaders, and female leaders have distinctive female leadership style that should be acknowledged. The fact that women may choose to adopt masculine characteristics and become as good as male leaders, is a fact that different cultures should reconcile and digest.

Nonetheless, the sexes do differ with respect to social actions (Eagly, 1987). As shown above men have been found to be somewhat more self-assertive, aggressive, and coarse in their manner and language than women. Females, in contrast, have been found to be more expressive of emotion and compassion. Men can exercise leadership in a more compassionate, relationship-oriented way and overcome some of the weaknesses associated with traditional male-oriented leadership, just as women can cultivate more directive and assertive ways of leading when the situation call for them, moving both sexes towards a more androgynous style (Korabik, 1990). As it has already been discussed, Bem (1974) argued that personality traits of

masculinity and femininity are not mutually (exclusive?)inclusive; an individual may possess both masculine and feminine traits. Holter, (1997) claims that the organisations that show gender equalities perform better. As Marshall (1995) proposes the organisations that tolerate gender related practices of masculinity, harm their members and exhibit lower organisational effectiveness. Hollander and Yoder (1980) early on, concluded that observed differences in the leadership behaviour of women and men can be attributed mainly to the interrelationship of the role expectations, style and task demands of particular circumstances, therefore, all those stereotypes may work to a woman's advantage.

However, some researchers have argued that there is no difference between males' and females' effectiveness (i.e. Eagly *et al.,* 1995; Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Hall, 1975 cited in Bass, 1990) but males are often evaluated as more effective in laboratory settings. Contrary to what has been hypothesized, Eskilson and Wiley (1976) and Smith (1986) found that female-led groups were more productive than those led by males. Nevertheless, Eagly and Johnson (1990) concluded that gender differences are not highly exhibited in organisational studies, mainly because the managers in the samples are chosen with similar criteria and they are subject to similar organizational socialization, forces that tend to equalize the sexes. However, many studies have reported that there are no differences in the way male and female managers lead (i.e. Wajcman, 1996). In addition, Billing and Alvesson (1994) and Ferrario (1994 cited in Vilkinas, 2000) claim that most empirical research shows that there are very few or no differences in leadership between the sexes. Vilkinas (2000) confirmed these views and adds that men and women in the study are regarded as equally competent. Additionally, Carless (1998) studied women in management in Australian banking and she claims that female and male managers who perform similar tasks, and occupy similar positions do not differ in their leadership style both on how they are viewed by their subordinates as well as by their self-ratings. Similarly, Komives (1991 cited in Carless, 1998:889) found no differences when female and male leaders self-rated in leadership except for Intellectual simulation. Oshagbemi and Gill (2003) in their study of UK managers found that the leaders in

the sample differ significantly only in inspirational motivation, but not in the other aspects of leadership behaviour.

Moreover, Dobbins and Platz (1986) reviewed 17 studies examining sex differences in leadership and they found that male and female leaders exhibit similar leadership behaviours, and differ only in those studies that have taken place in laboratories. Similarly, Hollander (1992) found no differences in the leaders' effectiveness. Powell (1993:175) noted "women and men do not differ in their effectiveness as leaders, although some situations favor women and others favor men". Additionally, Manning (2002) in the study of the management team of a large US social services agency found that male and female leaders are similar when they exhibit transformational leadership style. Further, Thompson (2000) in a study of educational leaders found no differences in the effectiveness of male or female leaders' style, but he suggests that it is the style that matters and not the leaders' gender. Finally, Vecchio (2002) claims that the gender advantage based on stereotypic reasoning are overstated.

Despite role incongruity prejudice, women are rising into elite leadership roles around the world. Although the pace of change may be slow, there is discernible acceleration (Van Knippenberg and Hogg, 2003:88). As Eagly (2003) suggests more value has been placed on feminine qualities in leadership roles, and change leads to new ways to lead that finesse the still remaining incongruity between leader roles and the female gender role.

3.7 GENDER AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Most studies on gender and transformational leadership are in line with gender perspectives, and represent the women in management literature with focus on examining if female and male leaders differ in the extent they apply transformational and transactional leadership (Kark, 2004). As discussed in the above paragraphs, the relationship between gender role and leadership style is the association of masculinity with task-oriented leadership styles and femininity with relationship-

oriented ones. An analysis of more than 40 studies, leadership researchers such as Thompson (2000), Powell (1999), Kolb (1999) Shimanoff and Jenkins (1991) and others, find very little difference between women's and men's leadership. Yet, Catalyst (2005) finds that misleading perceptions about gender differences in leadership exist, and are even held by corporate executives. The greatest concern is that even though women are flooding the managerial pipeline, there is still lack of progress. For example, Alimo-Metcalfe (2010:630) suggests that "over a decade later (than her first study), the situation is almost unchanged with regard to women's representation at the top levels of organisations in the UK, other parts of Europe, and the USA. Additionally, Kirchmeyer (2002) claims that common gender differences in work experiences, family responsibilities, and career interruptions have failed to explain the poorer progression of women in management. The main point is whether men and women differ in aptitudes and abilities for leadership, and it deserves special attention "due to the controversy surrounding recent claims that one gender role is inherently better skilled for leadership in organisational settings" (Vecchio, 2002:647).

As discussed in Chapter 2, early typologies of leadership had nothing to do with gender because they were conceived in the 1960s at which time women and leadership or management was not an issue of research and deliberation. Rather, the discussion focused on the question of whether leadership types are mainly associated with different personality traits or situational factors, and which style is more effective in achieving organisational goals (Yukl, 1989; Bass, 1990). According to Alimo-Metcalfe (2010) most of the studies on leadership were based on samples of male managers. Very little attention was devoted to the leader's gender or the effect of his/her gender on influencing others (Carli, 2001). However, Trinidad and Normore (2005) claim that the presence of feminine and masculine characteristics in leadership styles is related to the construct of gender. Kolb (1999) and Yukl (2002) also confirm this, and find gender as an important factor to the study of leadership. However, the core question of whether the sexes differ in aptitudes and capabilities for leadership deserves special attention due to the controversy surrounding recent

claims that one gender role is inherently better skilled for leadership in organisational settings.

Often, authors refer to transformational leadership as a feminine leadership style (e.g. Carless, 1998; Helgesen, 1990; Loden, 1985). Others, claim that transformational leadership is associated with both feminine and masculine characteristics which suggests that transformational leadership is a stereotypically gender-based style. The following paragraphs discuss the debate of whether there is gender influence on transformational leadership, as transformational and transactional styles according to Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001:787) "are not as obviously related to gender roles".

Having studied the literature there are three different views on gender and transformational leadership. The first debate supports that there are no differences between male and female leadership. The second that there are differences and thirdly that there are more similarities rather than differences.

Firstly, many studies have indicated *no major differences* between men and women as they found that many of the leadership behaviours and styles did not vary across gender (Thompson, 2000; Bass, 1990; Dobbins and Platz, 1986; Hollander, 1985; Butterfield and Bartol, 1977 cited in Powell, 1999). For example, Carless (1998) found that superiors rated female managers higher on transformational behaviours according to their subordinates there was no distinction. According to Thompson (2000) although men placed greater emphasis on goal setting, while women placed greater emphasis on interaction facilitation, neither differentiated significantly on any other dimensional aspect of leadership. Both men and women performed a variety of leadership functions that overlapped stereotypical gender usage, forming a balance of leadership traits used to achieve organisational goals. In addition, Kolb (1999) and Shimanoff and Jenkins (1991) demonstrate in their research that there are far more similarities than differences in the leadership behaviours of men and women, and they are equally effective. Early research that explored gender disparities found a lack of support for the notion that women utilise different leadership styles than do

men (Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Powell, 1990; Eagly and Karau, 1991). Eagly and Johnson (1990) statistically reviewed 167 studies and they found that female and male leaders did not differ in their leadership styles. Manning (2002) found that there are no significant differences in the transformational style of leadership between women and men. The differences between the sexes blur if one contrasts women and men who already have achieved status as leaders (Bass, 1990). However, research suggests that the above findings are based on a limited number of studies, and the differences, although statistically significant, are small.

In contrast, there have been studies *supporting gender differences* in leadership style (Helgeson, 1991; Rosener, 1990; Kabacoff and Peters, 1998). Leadership itself is gendered (Eagly and Johannessen-Schmidt, 2001; Schein, 2001). Leadership is a process that occurs within a social context that itself is gendered (Yoder, 2001). The stereotype of manager and leader as discussed in the previous paragraphs, as well as the normative expectations associated with being a good manager include more masculine than feminine qualities creates a conflict mainly for women. The idea that women are subjected to incompatible expectations from the managerial and the female role thus, presumes that gender roles are important within organisations and influence leadership styles. Leadership has traditionally been construed as a masculine enterprise with special challenges and pitfalls for women, nevertheless, Kark (2004) claims that there is strong tendency to find gender differences favouring women. Although, male and female leaders are quite similar in a number of ways, on average they do behave somewhat differently.

Rosener (1990), Druskat (1994) and Bass *et al.* (1996) provide support that gender differences in leadership styles exist and that females are more transformational than males. Helgesen (1990) agreed, noting that women leaders are more likely to structure flat organisations and more likely than men to emphasise frequent contact and sharing of information in "webs of inclusion". Eagly (1991) provided empirical evidence of consistent differences between males and females in leadership styles, particularly in that women leaders tend to be more democratic and participative, thus transformational, than their male counterparts. Druskat (1994) and Carless (1998)

found that female subordinates rated female leaders as displaying significantly more transformational behaviours and significantly less transactional behaviour than male leaders who were rated by male subordinates. Bass *et al.* (1996) and Bass and Avolio (1994) found that female leaders were rated by both female and male subordinates as displaying transformational leadership behaviours more frequently than male leaders.

Rosener (1990) found that getting subordinates to transform the leader's self-interest into the interest of group through concern for a broader goal is a transformational leadership style. Women encourage participation, share power and information, enhance people's self-worth, and get others excited about their work. Women share information and solicit input from others. Some may see negatively or criticise or even challenge the fact that women allow participation in decision-making as lack of power. But women share willingly this power rather than guard it and they make apparent their reasoning behind their decisions. Sharing power creates loyalty and enhances communication flow, and makes employees feel important. As Trinidad and Normore (2005) and Eagly and Johnson (1990) claim feminine leadership styles are described in general terms as interpersonal-oriented, charismatic and democratic and related to gender because of stereotypes of women as being sensitive, warm, tactful and expressive.

Transformational leaders connect with their followers in a way that can account for extraordinary performance and accomplishments of individuals, work groups, units and organisations. This relationship is personal and not based on formal, institutional rules, regulations, rewards, or punishments. Transformational leaders gain respect, trust and confidence of others and transmit a strong sense of mission to them. They communicate a vision with fluency and confidence, increasing optimism and enthusiasm, and set high expectations for themselves and followers. According to Burns (1978) transforming leadership occurs when a leader engages with a follower in such a way that both parties are raised to higher levels of motivation and morality with a common purpose. According to Bass (1990) transformational leadership raises the levels of awareness about the importance and value of designated outcomes and promotes development and vision in subordinates. Bass and Avolio (1994) claim that

transformational leaders exhibit charisma, use symbols to focus employee efforts, encourage followers to question their own way of doing things and treat followers differently but equitably based on follower needs. Women's management style is often described as transformational based on personal respect, mutual trust, regard for the contribution which each team member can bring and the development of individual and often diverse talent (Vinnicombe and Singh, 2002).

Several studies show evidence that men and women differ in personality characteristics which could affect leadership style and effectiveness (Dobbins and Platz, 1986). Furthermore, they claim that several studies demonstrated that men and women differ in leadership behaviours and effectives. Authors have also speculated on possible gender differences in the use of transformational leadership (Avolio and Bass, 1988). As Yoder (2001) argues, transformational leadership may be especially advantageous for women, although it is an effective style for men as well as women. The reason that this style may be a special asset for women is that it encompasses some behaviours that are consistent with the female gender role's demand for caring, supportive, and considerate behaviours.

Studies focusing on women managers document their orientation toward more participative, interactional, and relational styles of leading (Fondas, 1997; Helgesen, 1990; Rosener, 1990; Oshagbemi and Gill, 2003). Females are often credited with greater sensitivity and responsiveness to other people's needs and motivations, which enables them to forge social alliances by managing interpersonal relationships (Fondas, 1997). Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) data from four separate investigations gathered between 1986 and 1992 support the conclusion that women display more transformational than transactional leadership (Bass *et al.*, 1996). In all four studies women leaders attained higher scores for all four components of leadership: charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. For management-by-exception and laissez-faire leadership, no differences emerged between male and female leaders. The results favouring women as transformational leaders were confirmed by Druskat (1994 cited in Bass, 1998) who also conducted an MLQ survey. An explanation for

the male-female differences in transformational leadership may be due to the well-known tendency for women to be more nurturing (Eagly, 1991), thus women leaders appear to display qualities more in line with transformational leadership.

Additionally, Kuhnert and Lewis (1987) suggest that women leaders are more transformational in the component of moral value in transformational leadership and when reasoning morally, women highlight responsibility and care; men highlight rights and justice. Again, women may be more transformational as they tend to be less self-serving authoritarians than men in leadership style (Eagly and Johnson, 1990). Statham (1987) and Druskat (1994) found that women were more likely to use styles involving the completion of tasks and interpersonal competencies with subordinates, while men were more like to utilise a "hands-off" approach, keeping a distance from subordinates and using their power as authority. Female subordinates expect women to exhibit transformational leadership because it is more relationship-oriented, and perhaps more consistent with feminine values.

Female leaders favour an "interpersonally oriented" leadership style, that others expect them to display such a style, and that female leaders are successful and effective when they do so (Loden, 1985; Eagly, 1987; Eagly *et al.,* 1995). Deaux (1976b) suggested that women were more likely to seek interpersonal success in groups, in contrast to men's greater concern for being successful in the task. Women develop a feminine style of leadership, which is characterised by caring and nurturance, and men adopt a masculine style of leadership, which is dominating and task-oriented (Eagly *et al.*, 1995; Korabik, 1990). The female gender role prescribes supporting as the most appropriate helping response for women. Female leaders are more likely than male leaders to provide support to poor performing employees (Bowes-Sperry *et al.*, 1997). Similarly, the social role theory (Eagly, 1987) proposes that individuals behave in accordance with societal expectations about their gender role. Through the socialisation process, people learn to conform to cultural expectations about their gender role. The feminine model of leadership includes typical transformational leadership behaviours, for example, participatory decision-making, collaboration and quality interpersonal relationships between leader and

subordinate (Helgesen, 1990; Loden, 1985). Hence, it could be expected that females and males may differ in their use of certain transformational leadership behaviours. The feminine attributes of collaboration, open communication, sensitivity to feelings and development of support and trust are the basis for human resources management and hence contribute significantly to managerial effectiveness (Korabik, 1990).

The gender-stereotypic feminine leadership style is one in which women display high levels of communal (rather than agentic) attributes (Eagly *et al.,* 1995). Such leadership is collaborative, democratic, and interpersonal; such leaders help subordinates, do favours for them, and look out for them. Informality, warmth, cooperativeness, low leader control, a participative decision-making style, and problem solving based on intuition and empathy as well as rationality characterise female-stereotypic leadership. Eagly and Johnson (1990), Eagly *et al.* (1995) and Rosener (1990) found that leadership style tended to be gender-stereotypic. Women were more likely to adopt a democratic or participative leadership style, while men were more likely to adopt a more autocratic or directive style. This was attributed to women having more skills in interpersonal behaviour, which would facilitate a democratic style of leadership. According to Yammarino *et al.* (1997) some female leaders may be able to display the transformational qualities and behaviours admired by male subordinates when working with them as well as the participative, democratic behaviours and characteristics evaluated favourably by female subordinates when engaging them.

Masculine styles, which emphasise competition, have been found to be self-delegating in problem solving situations, which require group cooperation whereas a feminine concern with the equity of an outcome rather than individual gain has been found to be advantageous in many situations including negotiation (Korabik, 1990). Additionally, masculinity is detrimental and femininity is beneficial for subordinate job satisfaction. According to Alimo-Metcalfe (1995) women as leaders believe that people perform best when they feel good about themselves and their work, and they try to create situations that contribute to that feeling. Transformational leadership

involves the important distinguishing features of encouraging the empowerment of staff.

Female leaders have been found to be more innovative (Bass *et al.,* 1996) better at getting the job done and setting priorities than their male counterparts. Women tend to be more task- and -results focused than men. Women work towards setting high standards of performance and the attainment of results and organise work in a structured way to follow-up to ensure objectives are met, and to push for results (Kabacoff and Peters, 1998). They are also stronger team builders and developers and their staff (Bass *et al.,* 1996; Rosener, 1990).

Leaders constantly need to balance their emotional needs and health with the needs of the organisation. This increased sensitivity to the emotional needs of their employees enables transformational leaders to effectively communicate the essence of their vision and create a need for followers to accomplish that vision. According to Callahan *et al.* (2005) and Kabacoff (2000) a high level of ability in emotional management is consistent with a leader's ability to be inspirationally motivating and intellectually motivating to their followers. This in turn leads to higher leader and organisational effectiveness. Thus, emotional expression in particular increases perceived effectiveness of individuals as transformational leaders (Groves, 2005). Transformational leaders use emotions in forming the culture of an organisation by establishing a common vision, exhorting employees to a higher purpose, and motivating members of the organisation to embrace the change visualised by the leader (Schein, 2001). Women are more expressive than men and they are better at decoding emotions (Gallois, 1993; Hatcher, 2003; Callahan *et al.*, 2005); even though research shows that there is a difference between male and female executive perceptions of their emotions expressiveness. As organisations become more accepting of emotional expression as an important trait for effective leaders, emotion-based constructs may be employed more by leaders.

Finally, nevertheless, one cannot ignore some personality traits favouring transformational leadership in male leaders for, as with men in general,

transformational leaders are less conforming, more self-confident, and more likely to take risks (Bass, 1985). Women generally are more conforming, less self-confident, and less likely to take risks. Research has shown that transformational leadership requires a *gender balance* rather than the traditional leadership stereotype of masculinity (Bass, 1998). The possession of feminine characteristics does not decrease an individual's chances of emerging as a leader as long as the individual also possesses masculine characteristics (Appelbaum *et al*., 2003). There has been an increased call for "feminine leadership" that takes advantage of the personal characteristics associated with women (Helgesen, 1995; Rosener, 1990). Some authors have suggested that "all managers today need to incorporate a more feminine leadership style" (Fondas, 1997:259). He observes that when businesses must improve their competitiveness by transforming themselves into learning, self-managing, empowering, and continuously improving organisations – transformations that rely upon more interactional, relational, and participative management styles – lead some writers to conclude that women are well-suited for managerial roles in contemporary organisations and that male managers need to cultivate feminine leadership traits. The current implication is that both female and male leaders also need to cultivate such feminine characteristics in their styles of leadership.

Gender differences in influence and leadership occur because people presume that men are more competent and legitimate as leaders than women are. Transformational leadership is not the exclusive domain of women, nor does it create an uncongenial context for men because if its seemingly feminine or communal undertones. Transformational leadership establishes a congenial context for the expression of women's effective leadership. Transformational leadership should prove just as effective for women as it does for men. For both women and men is to determine when, and when not, to rely on transformational leadership (Yoder, 2001). Therefore, a man or a woman may possess either masculine or feminine characteristics or both.

3.8 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

It is evident from the above that women's presence in management has increased despite the fact that they are still found in middle management and are considered to be underrepresented in high managerial positions. The literature suggests that social roles, sex stereotypes, gender and gender roles may influence leadership and transformational leadership.

Gender roles influence the beliefs about women and men and their attributes. Men are thought to show evidence of masculine qualities and women of feminine, qualities and traits that arise from observations of people in sex-typical social roles. These roles are culturally influenced by social pressures in order for people to act in a manner accepted by their gender roles. These roles in societies as well as in organisations are supported and enhanced by stereotypes. Sex stereotypes are often used to judge people's traits and attributes and may lead to wrong assumptions. Moreover, social roles and social identity influence at the same time the leadership styles and behaviours of male and female managers, since leadership has been viewed as a social process where complex relationships are developed. Therefore, a woman may engage in leadership in a feminine way and a man in a masculine way. This happens because gender incorporates the attributes or activities that are thought to be appropriate for one's sex category and it includes the distinct qualities of men or women that are used in a socially dynamic way. For example, in some studies women are considered to be more effective leaders than men, since women have changed their behaviour and have adapted it based on the managerial context. In contrast, other studies regard women inferior, since they are viewed in a stereotypical way and since success and management are linked with men's abilities. In other studies, there seem to be no differences between female and male managers and leaders' behaviours.

In addition, it is suggested that regardless of their gender individuals may display either feminine or masculine behaviours and emerge as such leaders. Interestingly, gender is considered to be important in studying leadership and many have correlated

with transformational leadership. Transformational leadership is considered to be an effective leadership style in today's hierarchical, contemporary organisations but it is not an exclusive domain as some suggest, for either men or women. Nevertheless, the literature reveals that the traits ascribed to transformational leaders are very similar to feminine attributes and behaviours. Nevertheless, these feminine and masculine leadership behaviours are culturally and context specific and may be fluid. They cannot necessarily represent the actions of either women or men but they define how leadership for example will be implemented in certain time or occasion depending on the circumstances, the organisational culture, the hierarchy, the context and other external factors.

CHAPTER 4: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapters the researcher explored and discussed the issues on leadership, transformational leadership, and gender. In addition, she discussed the glass ceiling phenomenon and the debate on whether gender influences the leadership style that men and women exhibit in the workplace. Finally, she discussed the debate on transformational leadership and whether it can be considered as a female leadership style, or not. Therefore, this chapter discusses the theoretical framework that underpins this thesis.

4.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Contemporary organisations are facing many changes in the environment in which they operate, such as rapid development of technology, growing global competition and demographic changes of employees, which impose challenges to managers who deal with constant changes in the culture and the organisational structure and operations. More specifically the Greek economy is highly challenged by the economic crisis. Furthermore, recent studies reveal that the Greek tourism and hospitality industry is facing fierce competition (Buhalis and Deimezi, 2004). According to Buhalis and Deimezi (2004:111) "at the micro level, the European travel trade and intermediaries warn that the Greek tourism product is no longer competitive. At the macro level the Government has failed to implement a nation wide plan that will enable the country to optimise its impacts and capitalise on its full potential". They suggest that Greek tourism should face all the challenges, and these include "planning, environmental issues, management, marketing, distribution, private sector and competitiveness" (Buhalis and Deimezi, 2004:111). They also suggest that Greece has not reached its potential, and has failed to have a strategic vision or plan to face the challenges and the competition.

In addition, managers in this environment should be able to provide emotional assistance to their employees in order to be effective and be able to deal with the new changes. In light to this, leadership should be studied in order to find the most appropriate style in the current context of change. This challenging situation has contributed to the development of new leadership styles based on charisma and empowerment such as transformational leadership. It has been argued that there is no universally accepted leadership style to apply to all situations, as managers have to adapt to the new requirements. However, the literature suggests that transformational leadership may be appropriate for this new environment in organisations as this style is viewed as an effective style to lead staff, and inspire them to perform beyond expectations (Humphreys and Einstein, 2003; Kark, 2004). The literature suggests that transformational leadership is the most relevant to the hospitality industry (Bass, 2000; Gardner, 2005; Pittaway *et al*., 1998). There is a growing need especially in the hospitality industry (Brownell, 2010) for leaders to be visionary, to get maximum benefit of their resources, to guide with integrity, and to lead with a style that facilitates employee care and environmental stewardship, to promote a culture of trust and respect and to encourage ethical practices in a global organisational context, thus there is need for transformational leaders. In this context, transformational leadership has been found to correlate with staff satisfaction, to leader effectiveness and overall organisational performance. Additionally, Yukl (1999) and Dionne *et al.* (2004) found that transformational leadership contributes to the prediction of follower outcomes and thus may contribute to the choice of appropriate ways and leadership style in order to accomplish organisational goals.

In the 21st century hotels remain labour intensive, fragmented, and multi-faceted service organisations (Erkutlu, 2008). The hospitality industry is a diverse industry in terms of employee population and groups of guests, as employees have to understand the guests' different cultures (Kapiki, 2012; Burke *et al*., 2012). Additionally, global competition in the hospitality industry increases, and quality plays an essential role therefore hotels should provide the best services with qualified personnel to gain the competitive advantage (Helms and Mayo, 2008). As a result understanding and promoting effective leadership is important in coping with

all these changes and challenges. Bennis (2000:46) in view to this states "transformational leaders manage the dream", as they are found to be effective in hotel management since they share values which is found to be the most important quality of a leader in the industry (Clark *et al.,* 2009). Furthermore, the Greek hospitality industry has been influenced by the economic crisis. For example, as Kapiki (2012:9) states "during the first half of 2010 international tourist arrivals to Greece decreased by more than 5%". In addition, the Greek hospitality industry faces the traditional challenges of the sector such as seasonality, lack of trained and skilled staff (Barr, 2006; Robinson and Barron, 2007) and thus they provide less opportunities for women (Kapiki, 2012; McCuddy *et al.*, 2010). In this hospitality environment, there is a growing need for leaders who can guide with integrity, who can promote a culture of trust and respect, and encourage ethical practices (Blayney and Blotnicky, 2010; Brownell, 2010). They should also be sensitive to guests' problems, and effective in communication (Baum, 2006). Cave and Kilic (2010) also suggest that the hospitality industry requires teamwork, achievement, desire and risk taking. All these are found to be female characteristics of leadership style and therefore women are valued in this turbulent environment (Erkutly, 2008). Moreover, employment in the hotel sector provides opportunities for talented, career oriented women and especially those who aspire a career in hotel management (Burke *et al.,* 2012).

Women in this environment continue to make progress in preparing themselves for careers in hospitality management (Burke *et al*., 2012). Nevertheless, women are still under-represented in senior management in hotels (Davidson and Burke, 2011) as many prefer to enter other professions due to the difficulties and challenges they face, thus the industry has become mainly male-dominated, especially in Greece. For example, Blayney and Blotnicky (2010:233) suggest "the skills required for a hotel general manager are demanding due to the unique characteristics of the industry". Nevertheless, studies propose that diversity and women in management benefit organisations not only financially, but also in other areas (Catalyst, 2008), i.e. the benefits for example in the Canadian hotel industry include the effective use of talented women who are more educated. Additionally, an increased gender diverse

workforce impacts hotels with new products development that relate to the growing female business traveller (Catalyst, 2008).

All the above have influenced not only the leadership style that is considered more appropriate to the constantly changing organisational environment in the hospitality industry, but also the position of women in hotel management. As women's position in management has changed over the years it is found that they are still under-represented in management, especially in male-dominated environments such as hotels (Blayney and Blotnicky, 2010; Appelbaum *et al*., 2003); this paucity of women in senior management has driven the studies of female leadership. The women in management studies have brought forward the issues related with women's position in management and whether they differ with their male counterparts. Much of research on gender similarities or differences is driven by the paucity of female hotel managers holding significant roles (Kent *et al*., 2010; Ng and Pine, 2003). These studies argue that causal factors such as the glass ceiling, sex and sex stereotypes, gender and gender roles, and attitudinal issues such as the female and male debate, and the transformational and transactional leadership influence women's position in management. In addition, a debate has emerged as to whether female and male managers use different leadership styles. There are currently three main different views; Firstly, that there are differences in the ways male and female managers lead (Kabacoff, 2001; Karau and Eagly, 1999; Rosener, 1990; Helgesen, 1990), secondly those who propose that there are no differences or very little (Morgan, 2004; Anderson *et al.,* 2006; Carless, 1998; Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Powell, 1990) and finally recent studies proposing that there are many similarities between the two (Brownell, 2010; Van Engen *et al*., 2001; Powell, 1993). Furthermore, there are many studies that attempt to look at the practice of transformational leadership and whether it applies across cultures (Kent *et al*., 2010). For example Koopman *et al.* (1999) and Brodbeck *et al*. (2000) found cultural differences across European countries in the practice of leadership, and they are partially explained by the glass ceiling and how it operates in each country or culture (Kent *et al*., 2010). Additionally, the hospitality industry characteristics impact on the norms and values which form part of the industry culture (Pittaway *et al*., 1998).

Van Engen *et al*. (2001) in their study found that organisational and sectorial culture is an important factor in exhibiting and practicing leadership. Thus, the context of this study is important to study the transferability of transformational leadership.

The *glass ceiling* is the phenomenon found to consist of the barriers that impede women's career advancement. The literature suggests that the barriers refer to categories of corporate culture, practices and gender related issues. For example, corporate culture and practices barriers refer to assumptions developed in reference to a group such as women. In this case, stereotyping leads to negative attitudes and stereotypes of women as leaders (Klenke, 1996; Cooper-Jackson, 2001). Thus, men are viewed as leaders in organisations and women as supportive followers. Women are not well represented in executive positions; therefore, they are limited in mentoring other women. Additionally, this inhibits women's self-perception and evaluation of potentially becoming a leader. In terms of organisational climate, research suggests that in most organisations that are male-led, the old boy network exists and women have been excluded, depriving them from the benefit of networking with other leaders (Klenke, 1996). Moreover, these organisations adopt a male-oriented management style which requires managers to be assertive, aggressive and more direct. When women embrace this style they are labeled 'bossy', whereas men are labeled 'leaders' (Cooper-Jackson, 2001). Other barriers are those related to family obligations and responsibilities that do not allow adequate time to women to spend at work. In developing countries, like Greece, females face fierce competition with their male counterparts due to several barriers and challenges such as motherhood, discrimination, stereotyping etc. (McCuddy *et al.,* 2010). Blayney and Blotnicky (2010) claim that in the hotel industry, career paths involve multiple hotel property moves, which are not easy for women, especially those who have family obligations. In addition, Brownell (2008) suggests that women do not follow the career ladder as quickly as men mainly due to the need to move in order to go higher in the hierarchy. Baum (2007) and Ladkin (2002) suggest that the sector is prone to vocational and career mobility. Many studies also demonstrate that there is a disparate distribution of income between male and female managers in the hospitality industry (Biswas and Cassell, 1996; Purcell, 1996). Finally, Nebel *et al.* (1995) in

their study found very few female general managers in hotels, and none in luxury hotels in Canada. Moreover, the hotel environment exhibits a male-dominated culture where "men are more active and adept at fostering solidarity while women depending on where they are in the hierarchy, have to "draw on different sources of power to modify their position within an organisations structure and culture" (Halford and Leonard, 2001:100). According to Stelter (2002) countries whose cultures value masculine styles may value leadership behaviours that are more competitive, valuing the strong, and holding up male norms as "best practice." Conversely, countries whose cultural values include decreased masculinity may tend to value organizational solidarity, gender complimentarity, and sympathy and understanding for the "weak."

The glass ceiling and the position of women in management as well as leadership are found to be influenced by *sex and sex stereotypes* that undermine women's managerial and leadership positions, as they refer to socially constructed expectations and beliefs of the position of men and women at work. In view to sex stereotypes men are viewed as leaders and they are considered to exhibit masculine leadership style with attributes such as competition, task-orientation and establishment of status and authority, whereas women are more feminine in their leadership style and promote participation and collaboration (Van Vianen and Fischer, 2002). In this case, when women adopt the male leadership style they are negatively evaluated, whereas when they prefer a more female approach they are viewed as ineffective (Raggins *et al.,* 1998). Stereotyping pervades arguments for and against the leadership competencies of women in comparison with men (Pounder and Coleman, 2002). Nevertheless, the context in which leadership is exhibited influences the style adopted by each gender, as for example Maher (1997) found that the context influences whether men or women will be more transformational in their leadership style.

Thus, the debate on whether women and men lead differently has also been studied based on *gender and gender roles*. According to Vecchio (2002:656) "the gender advantage perspective implies that sex/gender dictates leader behavior and that all

group members will be subjected to or experience the manifested appropriate (or relatively less appropriate) leader style". Men and women behave according to their gender and gender roles (Weyer, 2007; Appelbaum *et al*., 2003). Thus, men use agentic behaviours, and women communal behaviours (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). Each gender is assigned a certain way it is expected to behave, in a stereotypical way that defines how men and women should behave and they influence the way they are viewed and evaluated by others. People behave according to their gender and social roles, however, there is prejudice and criticism to those who do not comply and choose to behave differently regardless their gender. These roles according to Eagly and Johnson (1990:233) "spill over to organisational roles" and may influence organisational role expectations. Thus, gender and gender roles are studied in this thesis as they may influence the transformational leadership style that female and male managers may exhibit in this study.

Men and women acquire sex role learning early in their lives, more specifically, authors of socialization theories argued, "gender identity and differences are acquired through various developmental processes associated with life stages, such as schooling and work life" (Bartol *et al*., 2003:9), thus they exhibit *attitudes* and behaviours according to their gender roles. The different social roles between men and women lead to stable patterns of behaviour (Weyer, 2007). Female and male managers exhibit behaviours that are ascribed to their gender, therefore, female managers are more feminine and male managers are more masculine in their behaviours. However, Kolb (1999) claims that masculinity appears to have a significant relationship with the leader emergence, however, women who exhibit feminine characteristics in balance with masculine, may be important in perceptions of leadership. It appears that today, in business, values have changed towards becoming more feminine, and they are based on a different management approach to communications, leadership, negotiations, and control (Appelbaum *et al.,* 2003). In a more contemporary conceptualisation of leadership, there seems to exist a feminine leadership style that has been associated with transformational leadership. Additionally, research shows that leaders perceive their own leadership behaviours in a more gender-role stereotypic than others. Eagly *et al.* (2003:570) claim that a

"leader's own behaviour is a major determinant of their effectiveness and chances for advancement". Brownell (2010:363) suggests that "global hospitality organisations are affected by a leader's behaviours and personal characteristics and especially the manner in which the leader relates to and influences followers". For example, women are found to rate themselves as more transformational than males (Carless, 1998). Therefore, it is interesting to investigate how the leaders in the study rate themselves and whether there are differences between female and male managers.

Many claim that there are *minor or no gender differences* in leadership exhibited by male and female managers, and more specifically they claim that both exhibit similarly transformational leadership characteristics. For example, Bass *et al.* (1996) found that there are no differences in the leadership style of men and women, and more importantly when they exhibit transformational leadership style. Eagly and Johnson (1990), Powell (1990, 1993) and Eagly and Karau (1991) suggest there are no differences and they do not support the notion that women utilize different leadership styles. Similarly, Wajcman (1996) and Billing and Alvesson (1994) examined management behaviour and found no significant differences in the way men and women manage.

On the other hand, others claim that there *are differences* and that gender matters. Some claim that feminine characteristics and behaviour are associated with transformational leadership, whereas masculine are associated with transactional leadership (Appelbaum *et al.,* 2003; Kabacoff, 1998). Thus, women are more concerned about people's needs and form close relationships with staff, they show empathy, they are good at communications, they listen to others, they are outgoing, and more cooperative (Kabacoff, 1998; Helgesen, 1990), characteristics that by many are ascribed to transformational leadership. Men are more assertive, they take advantage of their power, they penalize subordinates characteristics ascribed to transactional leadership (Burke and Collins, 2001). Minett *et al.* (2009) argue that females are found to be more inclined to use transformational leadership style compared to male counterparts. They further indicate that transformational leadership is negatively correlated with dominance and masculine vigour while it is

positively correlated with feminine attributes and nurturance. Rosener (1990) also states that women are more likely to use transformational leadership than males in the workplace, and she has found that this female leadership is evaluated as more effective. Raggins *et al. (*1998) report that women in their study consistently exceeded performance expectations and exhibited transformational leadership. Bass and Avolio (1990, 1993) propose that transformational leaders are more effective and have a positive effect on organisational productivity and financial results, whereas transactional leadership was negatively correlated with organisational performance. In many studies female managers perceive themselves differently (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1998; Rosener, 1990, 1996). Additionally, female managers are found to be stronger team builders and developers of their staff (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1998), male managers are found to be more bureaucratic (Vilkinas and Cartan, 1997).

There is also a third view that male and female managers lead in a *similar way*. Kent *et al*. (2010) suggest that the results the leaders achieve are the same regardless of their gender. Further, they claim that men and women lead in similar ways, a view that has been supported by others as well such as Gardiner and Tiggemann (1999), Mohr and Wolfram (2008). Additionally, Eagly and Johnson (1990) in their meta-analysis also refer to similarities in leadership behaviour. Similarly, Johnson (1993) found that male and female leaders in their study lead similarly.

Regardless of the three opposing views on whether gender influences transformational leadership, the presence and the debate of gender differences seem to continue. Male and female leaders may be influenced by their gender on how they exhibit their leadership style, stereotypes and their social roles. This thesis aims at deconstructing the phenomenon of women in hotel management, with a more contemporary approach to the study of transformational leadership as very few studies have examined the concept of transformational leadership and gender recently. There is also need to specify the link of leadership style with outcomes of leadership, as according to Vecchio (2002:662) "a fair amount of research on gender has been atheoretical in nature with a consequence that results are often difficult to integrate". Besides that as Yukl (2002:413) claims "sex differences in leader

behaviour and effectiveness may be driven by biologically-based differences that are reinforced by socialization processes and/or differing gender stereotypes that influence role expectations, perceptions and evaluations". The thesis has been organised around the model of transformational and transactional leadership developed by Bass (1985) and operationalised by Bass and Avolio (1995). This model has been used to identify whether transformational and/or transactional leadership are more exhibited by either female and/or male managers in hotel management in the study. The particular leadership style is studied in this thesis, as it is found to be the most appropriate and effective in the hospitality industry. It has also been used to investigate which of the two is the most effective leadership style, based on the evaluation of the followers and the leaders themselves. Finally, the researcher explores the other influencing factors for women's advancement, such as gender roles, perception of their leadership style, and some stereotypical factors in order to enhance the findings of this study, since "transformational and transactional leadership styles are not related to gender roles by earlier researchers" (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001:787), and as gender roles spill over to influence leadership behaviour in organisational settings. Thus, she explores the behaviours of male and female leaders separately in order to be able to make some comparisons of their leadership behaviours.

There are several theoretical models used to study gender differences in leadership styles and transformational leadership. Most of the studies on gender differences in leadership have focused on task and interpersonal styles, but according to Eagly and Johannessen-Schmidt (2001) some have focused on transformational and transactional leadership. Additionally Kark (2004) suggests that studies on gender differences use established models without consideration of complex ideas on gender, without gender and transformational leadership specific theoretical development and if they do so they are considered limited. Additionally, despite the large number of gender and leadership studies most have suffered from methodological limitations (Kabacoff, 2000). Some have used self-reports of leadership style (Rosener, 1990), reports of leadership by others (Carless, 1998; Druskat, 1994) and use of a stereotypic female or male leaders as the target

evaluation (Maher, 1997). All have used quantitative research methods and treat gender as a variable. Therefore this study was designed to extend previous studies by investigating possible gender differences in leadership behaviour of hotel managers in the higher levels in organisations by investigating not only leaders' own perceptions of transformational leadership, but also their followers' evaluations and other gender related issues that may emerge from the interviews.

The above arguments are illustrated in Graph 4.1.

Graph 4.1: Theoretical framework
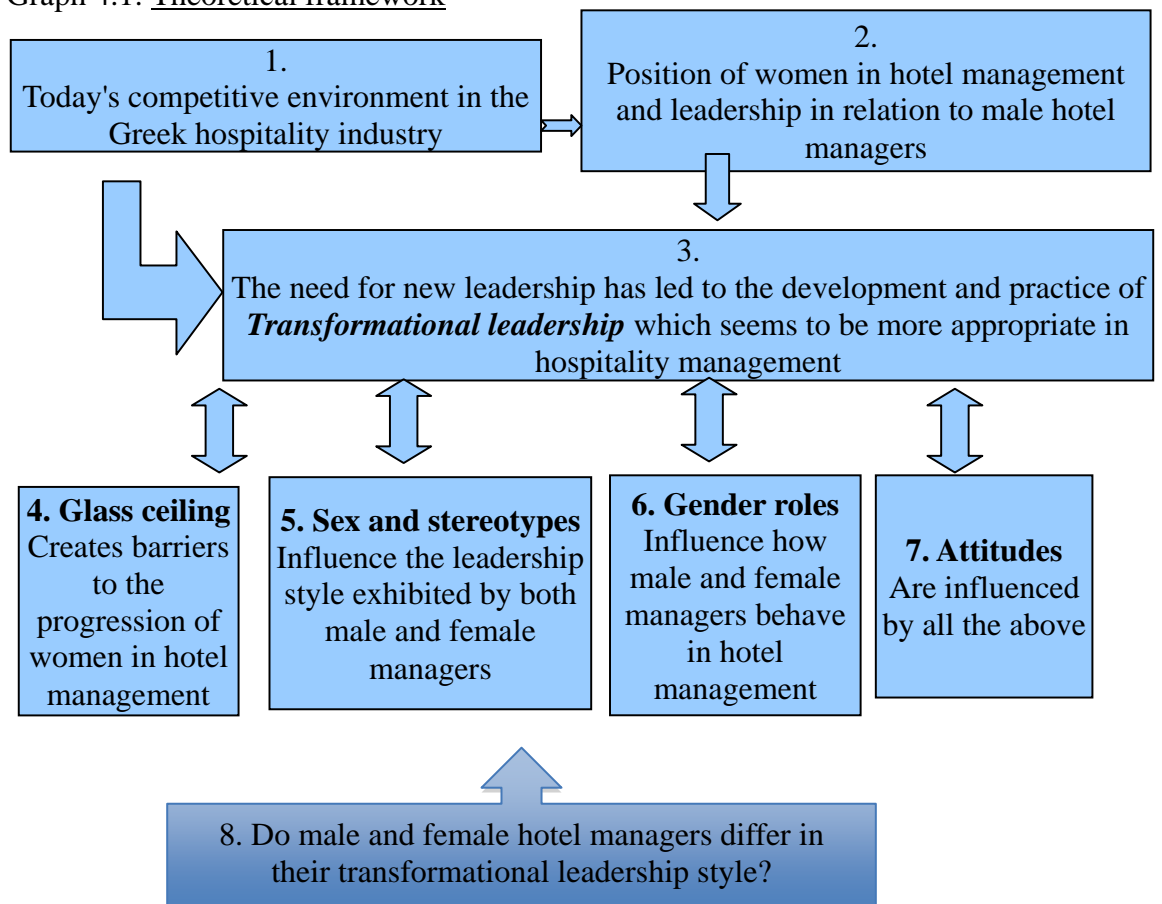
4.3   RESEARCH AIM AND QUESTIONS

The **aim** of this thesis is to investigate whether gender influences transformational leadership behaviours in the Greek hospitality industry. The purpose is to explore the meaning of significance of the outcomes of leadership and transformational leadership and gaining an understanding of the underlying dynamics that foster gender differences. Hence, gender is not only viewed as a variable but the researcher aimed at more comprehensive patterns and structures than can lead to gender inequalities and differences in transformational leadership as these according to Alvesson and Billing (1997) have not been considered in previous research.

Hence, the **research questions** of this thesis are the following:

1.   Do female and male managers differ in their perceived transformational leadership behaviours?

2.   Do the managers in the study differ on their perception of their own leadership style from their followers' evaluations? And if yes, how do they differ?

3.   Does gender influence transformational and transactional leadership style exhibited by female and male hotel managers?

4.   Are there gender differences in perceived effectiveness in leadership?

5.   Are leadership behaviours associated with leadership and managerial success and effectiveness more highly correlated with transformational or transactional leadership?

6.   Which is the most effective leadership style in hospitality management, transformational or transactional?

7.   Is transformational leadership transferable to the Greek hospitality industry?

CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the research methods used in order to meet the objectives of this thesis. Ghauri and Gronhaug (2002) argue that the term systematic suggests that research is based on logical relationships and not just beliefs, research is about discovering and understanding the human environment. Thus, in order to conduct systematic research, secondary and primary research methods have been used in order to collect data for the completion of this work. This chapter also presents the rationale of the chosen methodology as well as the research design.

5.2 THE RESEARCH CONTEXT – THE GREEK HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

There is an emerging consensus from the leadership literature that there is no single 'recipe' for effective performance of leaders (Gill, 2001; Higgs, 2003; Dulewicz and Higgs, 2005). However, the relationship between the approach of leaders and the context in which they operate is seen to be important. For the purpose of this study the context to study gender and transformational leadership is hospitality in Greece. Tourism has been considered to be a major contributor to the Greek economy (Papalexandris, 2008). According to the WTTC (2010) tourism in Greece contributed approximately 15 percent of Gross Domestic Product in 2010, showing a small decrease mainly due to the financial crisis in the European Union (www. bbc.co.uk). Anastassopoulos *et al.* (2007) claim that after the 2004 Athens Olympic Games the country changed from being a low cost destination, to a high quality and value for money tourism destination. For example, the foreign arrivals in Greece in 2008 were 18.754.590 (NSSG, 2009). Tourism in the country is considered a major employer with 659,000 jobs being provided which represent 16.5 percent of the total employment in the country (www.gnto.gr, 2005).

Buhalis and Deimezi (2004:111) suggest that Greek tourism should face all the challenges of the competition with other countries, and these include "planning, environmental issues, management, marketing, distribution, private sector and competitiveness". In addition, Papalexandris (1992) claimed that some Greek hotel firms have tried to adopt some methods used by other companies abroad successfully in their human resources management, but still little has been done towards employee professional development. Likewise, Buhalis (2001:453) also suggests that "there is lack of specialized personnel and inadequate training procedures. In most Small and Medium Tourism Enterprises (SMTEs), personnel have to cover a wide range of positions, a vague job description is usually provided and multi-skilled personnel are required". In early studies, it was found that the hierarchy is strict and the management and leadership style in family owned SMTEs is authoritative, additionally, the managers-owners will very rarely delegate authority and decision-making (Makridakis *et al.*, 1997:389). As a consequence their employees seem to be secure and "show high levels of dedication towards their boss" (Makridakis *et al.*, 1997:389); it is not certain if this attitude is real or whether they are affected by their owner-manager management. Additionally, very little research has been done in the field of management and especially tourism and hospitality management in Greece and therefore, it is not clear whether this behaviour leads to productivity, effectiveness and efficiency of Greek firms (Nikolaou and Robertson, 2001).

Although for many years there was not professional management implemented in Greece, the situation has changed in recent years. For example, Myloni *et al.* (2004) propose that Greek management is changing and managers are employing practices and styles that are used in other countries that have proven to be successful. Nowadays, in tourism, there are few subsidiaries of multinational companies that have long-term goals, and hire professional career managers who either bring with them or train Greeks who have worked abroad (Nikolaou and Robertson, 2001; Makridakis *et al.*, 1997; Papalexandris, 1992). In general, Greek managers have to adapt and face the various challenges and the increasing competition (Papalexandris and Nikandrou, 2000). The new competitive environment has forced today's managers in Grece to implement HR practices adopted by international companies,

thus they still want to reward seniority and devotion, they understand the need to relate pay with performance, and they are less willing in comparison to other managers to fire people who do not achieve the company's objectives (Myloni *et al.,* 2004). Greek organisations not only have they faced fierce competition, but also the need for modernisation and European integration, have forced managers to adapt their management style (Papalexandris and Nikandrou, 2000). All these changes have been supplemented by changes in the workforce that is diversified, more educated and trained in new technologies (Koufidou and Michail, 1999). The societal environment has also changed and has brought demographic changes in organisations along with flexible practices at work, mainly in the form of part-time work (Papalexandris and Nikandrou, 2000). These have also been adopted by SMEs, which are geared towards a more professional management style. They have "abandoned the authoritarian and paternalistic management style" (Spanos *et al.,* 2001:640) and are enhancing the management teams with professionals that are well educated.

Greeks usually think that they will spend most of their working life in one particular organisation, thus, this organisation has great impact on their lives and their well-being and therefore, they are all considered to be a member of one family (Kessapidou and Varsakelis, 2002). Surprisingly, in this family group they tend to be warm and accept people with authority, at the same time they show self-sacrifice that stems from the value of 'filotimo'. Therefore, there is distinction among those that belong to the group and those who do not. Thus, Greeks tend to be committed to their organisations that they consider their 'family'. Additionally, Greeks perform better when they belong to the group; they are loyal and comply with the organisation's regulations, and meet their colleagues' expectations (Earley, 1993). With regard to this idea, Triandis (1972:308) developed the idea that the people who have 'filotimo' behave in a "polite, virtuous, reliable, proud, truthful, generous, self-scrificing, tactful, respectful and grateful" way, thus they are loyal to the group they manage, or the family. Additionally, people with this trait may overcome challenges and crises with exceeding their own self-interest and by focusing on the groups' well being.

Nikandrou *et al.* (2003) claim that the cultural diversity of employees in multinational organisations influences the leadership styles implemented. Leadership in Greece has been considered by Hofstede (1991) and he suggests that in this matter Greeks prefer the 'consultative style', while a smaller percentage of his sample prefer the participative style. Within this culture the Greeks maintain their 'ego needs', their self-esteem which are important factors towards organisational effectiveness in the Greek culture (Bourantas and Papadakis, 1997; Bourantas *et al.,* 1987). In addition, Greece is highly assertive, thus people are tough, assertive and competitive, but at the same time they tend to have a 'can do' attitude, which is a very positive attitude for businesses. Furthermore, "gender egalitarianism and performance orientation seem to be the two most important issues, for all southern countries, since there is remarkable difference between organisational practice and value" (Nikandrou *et al.,* 2003:83). Bourantas *et al.* (1990) referring to Hofstede's study, claim that Greece seems to be male dominated (androcracy). Similarly, Kourvetaris and Dobratz (1987) argue that the Greek culture is male dominated. In Greece, men dominate all aspects of life (Pettraki-Kottis and Ventoura-Neokosmidi, 2004). Moreover, Hadjikyriacou (2009:18) found in his study that the male in the Greek society "should provide for himself…a successful provider for his family and make sure that not even a breath of gossip touched the reputation of the females in his house". Thus, the honourable male is connected with power and authority, while the female are related to domesticity, motherhood and subordination. Men are more valued than women, especially in the managerial world. The gender inequality is mainly evident in the household, where such responsibilities fall entirely on women, therefore women, especially those who work, have a heavy load from their family obligations and thus less interest or time to dedicate to their careers. Hofstede (1980:46) in his study supports that 'androcracy' (male domination) is more evident in Greek culture and that Greeks scored moderate in masculinity values, thus assertiveness, the acquisition of money and not caring for others are dominant.

Although, there are more women in employment in Greece, Mavridis (2002) claims that only 10.4 percent of the directors in Greek firms are women who do not belong

to the family that owns those businesses. In fact, Pettraki-Kottis and Ventoura-Neokosmidi (2004:23) suggest that "among the 336 firms listed in the Athens Stock Exchange only eleven had a woman president". Mavridis (2002) continues that only in recent years have women been introduced to managerial positions in Greece and only recently have they been allowed to advance up the managerial ladder. He specifically states that "men in Greece are now running major corporations while women are not" (Mavridis, 2002:32). Other studies confirm Mavridis' statement and suggest that male employees are promoted in a more frequent and rapid way than equally qualified females (Papalexandris, 1992; Owen and Todor, 1993; Cordano *et al.,* 2002; Tomkiewicz *et al.,* 2004). Moreover, women have lower earnings than their male colleagues, and it ranges from 65 to 80 percent of the men's salary (Pettraki-Kottis and Ventoura-Neokosmidi, 2004). Despite the large number of women employed in Greece, relatively little research and data exists to show women's position in management in Greece (Mavridis, 2002; Mihail, 2006).

It is evident that women's employment in senior positions in Greece has not increased as expected. Even though Greek organisations are hiring women, they keep them in lower positions without a lot of authority (Mihail, 2006; Ntermanakis, 2003). Petraki-Kottis (1996) reveals that the largest companies in Greece do not have or have very few women managers at the higher levels of the hierarchy, and that organisations do not benefit from women's talent. Further, Galanaki *et al.* (2009) and Vakola and Apospori (2007) in their study in Greece reveal that there are gender differences in leadership styles between the two genders and that women seem to be restricted in management roles due to family responsibilities and their other roles. Others claim that gender stereotypes persist in Greece and prevent women from attaining managerial positions (Vakola and Apospori, 2007; Pettraki-Kottis and Ventoura-Neokosmidi, 2004; Ntermanakis, 2003; Kottis, 1996; Papalexandris and Bourantas, 1991). Therefore, the region may play a role in the gender attitudes, and perhaps the race and the ethnicity as well (Scott, 1995). Mihail (2006:688) for example claims that the gender stereotypes in Greece stem from the 'patriarchal society of modern Greece'. He also claims that "women who aspire to managerial careers in corporate Greece are likely to face intense attitudinal barriers" (Mihail,

2006:690). Pettraki-Kottis and Ventoura-Neokosmidi (2004:24) present one woman's statement where she says "women usually do not advance to leading positions and as a result many of them do not see any purpose in exerting the required effort and in participating in training programmes".

Furthermore, Papalexandris and Bourantas (1991) have also identified differences among male and female managers, and in the attitudes towards women as managers in Greece. In their study they found that working women were rejected easier than male managers. They did not identify any differences in the leadership styles adopted by both gender, because they found that women in Greece adopt the male leadership style that is more autocratic in their effort to survive or to be accepted in their organisations. Additionally, they found that their subordinates did not have different opinions and satisfaction of their superiors regardless their gender. Additionally, a study by Granet Network suggests that in 2000, 29 percent of the women in the study were human resource managers, and they seemed to lead in a more dynamic style and showed greated professionalism than the men in the study (cited in Pettraki-Kottis and Ventoura-Neokosmidi, 2004).

In a more recent study by Papalexandris *et al.* (2006) it was revealed that 18 years later than their first study things are different in Greece. Employees are more positive towards female managers. The employees' attitude towards their managers seems to be irrelevant to the organisation's structure, the culture or the department. All the respondents believe that equal opportunities should be adopted by all organisations, and that women are equally capable with men, even though they still believe that women may be better since they can combine work with family, they can be successful without sacrificing their femininity. The stereotypes towards women seem to becoming positive in the Greek working environment and that depends on personal, professional, organisational characteristics, which seems to contradict the findings of the older study where the gender and the age of employees influence their attitude towards women managers. They continue that regarding their leadership style, Greek employees are satisfied more from democratic leadership styles (30.28 percent of their sample) and prefer this style in management.

However, women are still disadvantaged in the private sector. Even though it seems that the leadership style is not influenced by gender, the number of women managers is still limited. According to Papalexandris *et al.* (2006) this situation exists due to four main reasons. Firstly, the negative stereotypes that persist, the lack of supporting programmes to allow women to balance work with family, the limited opportunities offered to women (employers see maternity as an obstacle) and finally, the lack of flexible work policies in Greek organisations. Even though there is relative legislation for promoting gender equality since 1975, the 'Equal pay between men and women for work of equal value', the country signed other international treaties to promote gender equality in Greece (Pettraki-Kottis and Ventoura-Neokosmidi, 2004). They continute that the glass ceiling still persists in the country mainly due to problems such as the lack of financial resources, or their employers' punitive action. A lot of effort has been done the last decade to support and promote gender equality in Greece, either by institutions or mechanisms such as the General Secretariat for Equality that has been established by the Greek government in 1985. The main goals of this organisation are "to disseminate information, propose corrective measures and intervening at all levels for the promotion for gender equality" (Pettraki-Kottis and Ventoura-Neokosmidi, 2004:27). Additionally, Committees and Offices for Equality have been established in ministries and public organisations, and finally the most important has been the Research Centre for Gender Equality, in 1994, that conducts research and organizes activities to support women. Finally, to promote women's entrepreneurship the Greek government provides women who want to start their own business with grants and/or financial assistance, as well as technical expertise. Evidence shows that there are not updated statistics and information on stereotypes in Greek management or measurement of how male and female managers are viewed in today's labour market in Greece (Mihail, 2006).

It is evident from the above, that the context of Greece provides an interesting area to study gender and leadership issues. Although, it seems that changes have occurred, people in management are still influenced by stereotypes that influence their behaviour towards women. In this context, women may be accepted as managers,

however, very little research has been conducted to investigate how gender influences the leadership style implemented in such an environment. Therefore, the researcher has chosen Greece for her study, and more specifically the hospitality industry.

Besides that, Zhao and Ritchie (2007) claim that little research has been conducted within hospitality and as a result few studies exist which investigate leadership in the specific context of the hospitality industry that is the main focus of this thesis, therefore thorough primary research is required to reach to valid conclusions. In addition, Guerrier and Deery (1998:149) claim that little work has been done "which looks at hospitality organisations as organisations", thus the context of hospitality is emphasised in this thesis in order to explore gender influences on the leadership style implemented by male and female hotel managers within this context.

Although, the hospitality industry is characterised as heterogeneous with focus on people (consumers and staff), and it provide services (Pittaway *et al.,* 1998), leadership has not been widely studied even though people are the key to this industry. For example, Goffee and Jones (2000 cited in Martin and Ernst, 2005) claim that in 1999 there were more than 2000 books published on leadership, but very little has been published to study leadership in hospitality and tourism. The fact that the industry is labour intensive and has increasingly harsh demands suggests that leadership skills may help organisations utilise the available human resources more effectively to increase performance (Porreca, 1990). In fact, Pittaway *et al.* (1998:412) claim that "the majority of studies have focused on the importance of leadership in this context and have neglected to identify or propose the most effective leadership style in the industry". Additionally, they have not studied the possibility of having different styles among male and female managers. It is documented that there are many changes creating challenges for the industry that perhaps a new model of leadership is required (Yammarino *et al.*, 2004). Therefore this thesis aims to investigate whether gender influences transformational leadership style in the context of the Greek hospitality industry. There is a focus on the exploration of similarities or differences that male and female managers may show in their transformational

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leadership style specifically in the context of 5* hotels in Greece, as it will be further elaborated.

5.3 METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES AND RESEARCH DESIGN

The methodology identifies the philosophical issues that influence the research design. Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2003) suggest that failure to think through philosophical issues can seriously affect the quality of management research, and these issues are central to the notion of research design. Nevertheless, as Collis and Hussey (2003) suggest no matter which paradigm is adopted it is important to be aware of all its features in order to ensure that there will be no contradictions in the methodology.

This thesis investigates whether gender influences transformational leadership. According to Hunt (1991) leadership is a process, it is a social influence, mainly the process between the leader and the follower involving the mobilisation of organisational resources, to achieve goals held mutually by leaders and followers (Burns, 1978:425). Storey (2004) also claims that leadership is a dynamic relationship based on processes where leaders and followers have a common purpose which they try to achieve. Hence, leadership research needs to investigate the nature of this social influence process. It is that process of leadership that now needs most attention from researchers (Storey, 2004), with an appropriate methodology to reflect this need. It is within the context of this debate that an increasing number of authors have recently questioned the dominance of quantitative methodology in leadership research and have made pleas for the greater utilisation of qualitative methodologies in this field (Conger, 1999; Alvesson and Due Billing, 1997; Bryman *et al.,* 1996). Berson (1999) suggests that integrating qualitative with quantitative methods in the form of triangulation contributes to obtaining a more comprehensive and valid assessment of leadership. Olsson and Walker (2003) suggest that although, most research on leadership is quantitative and positivistic, a qualitative approach complements and adds to the quantitative research findings. For example, Antonakis *et al.* (2003:286) state "a survey can at best tell what a leader is doing but it cannot

explain why". The statistical findings of leadership competence and the position of men and women in management and leadership are valuable though the language and the symbolic meaning system through which people perceive reality and knowledge may be better studied with the use of the qualitative approach (Olsson and Walker, 2003). Research on gender and sex differences in leadership, power and job satisfaction, as well as the circumstances under which women and men differ has been influenced by experiments and behaviourist psychological research (Kark, 2004). Alvesson and Billing (1997) suggest that research on gender issues is most commonly quantitative, in which however, gender is viewed as a variable and women are considered as a research category. Other studies on gender have used mainly qualitative analyses or survey or interviews with select group of women leaders (for example Helgesen, 1990; Rosener, 1990, 1995). These methods allow a review of women leaders' experiences, however they do not provide a systematic examination of gender differences and similarities in the leadership and transformational leadership behaviours of managers. There are studies that have used qualitative methods, and they have identified common themes in the findings, and others that have done meta-analyses on quantitative techniques in order to produce accurate generalisations (Eagly and Carli, 2003).

Considering the above the author has used a *mixed method* approach for this research, instead of focusing on either the positivistic or the interpertivistic approach. These two opposing paradigms view the social world differently (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Guba and Lincoln, 1994). On the one hand, within positivism, social phenomena preexist, and the researcher is studying them in a objective way, where the researcher investigates the causes of the phenomenon, in this case the position of women and men in management and leadership. On the other hand, in interpretivism, the researcher tries to understand differences between humans in their roles as social actors (Saunders *et al.,* 2003), thus how the leaders in the study perceive their transformational leadership. The mixed method approach seems to fit the purpose of this project better, since as Conger (1998) proposes that both quantitative and qualitative methods can address the "what and why" questions of leadership more effectively.

Borkan (2004:4) defines mixed methods research as "those studies or lines of inquiry that integrate one or more qualitative and quantitative techniques for data collection and/or analysis". Mixed methods research is now being adopted uncritically by a new generation of researchers who have overlooked the underlying assumptions behind the qualitative-quantitative debate (Johnson *et al.,* 2007). In short, the philosophical distinctions between them have become so blurred that researchers are left with the impression that the differences between the two are merely technical (Smith and Heshius, 1986 cited in Sale *et al.,* 2002). Moreover, Morgan (2007) claims that the epistemology of a paradigm refers to the nature of knowledge and assumptions but it does not show how research can be conducted. Therefore, the two approaches can be combined because they share the goal of understanding the world in which we live (Haase and Myers, 1988). Khun (1996) claims that although paradigms reflect the researchers' views, there will be groups that share contextual and paradigmatic views. Therefore, there is a group of researchers who believe that combining qualitative and quantitative research may be appropriate in their field of study (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003; Armitage, 2007).

Although there are others, such as Sale *et al.* (2002), who claim that it is impossible to combine qualitative with quantitative research because of the philosophical issues in the respective paradigm, the key issue is to identify the most appropriate methods to conduct research that will meet its objectives and therefore, to identify the underlying philosophical assumptions associated with the chosen methods. When this research project started the mixed method approach was not widely used in research, but now it is becoming commonplace. Nowadays, not only is this approach used in management research, but also a distinct paradigm has emerged; pragmatism. According to Morgan (2007:67) "a pragmatic approach would place its emphasis on shared meanings and joined actions". He also suggests that language and meaning are important emphasising the interaction of humans and their mutual understanding. For the purpose of this thesis, semi-structured interviews have been conducted to identify specific leaders' behaviours and perceptions of their leadership and transformational leadership as they implement it in the Greek hospitality industry as

well as to explore any other factors that influence the managers' leadership style. These data are gathered inductively to complement the findings from the survey questionnaire, which has been used to investigate the transformational leadership style components mostly used by male and female managers in the study.

Furthermore, "in pragmatic approach there is no problem with asserting both that there is a single 'real world' and that all individuals have their own unique interpretations of that world" (Morgan, 2007:72). According to Brownell (1994) most of the information about women's career development has come from surveys of middle managers or from in-depth interviews with a small sample of women executives. Addtionally, Korabik *et al.* (2001) have commented that while transformational leadership style has been examined and validated, the work has been developed primarily by studying male leaders. Therefore, the researcher conducted a survey among female and male managers, their peers, subordinates and superiors forming a large sample. The purpose is to identify the components of their transformational leadership and whether gender makes any difference. In addition, semi-structured interviews were conducted with both female and male managers in order to have an overview of how they view their transformational leadership, their leadership effectiveness broader issues around their careers. In addition, where gender has been examined in the context of leadership style, it has been on the basis of biological sex rather than gender-role orientation (Bass *et al.,* 1996). In order to explore women's career development and leadership a broader sample of men and women has been used. More specifically for the purpose of the interviews male and female managers who hold managerial positions are included in this study.

Moreover, Morgan (2007:72) suggests that in pragmatism it is not necessary to choose "between a pair of extremes" and have specific findings either from qualitative or quantitative data. Therefore, the results from both the qualitative and the quantitative data of this study can be potentially applied in a specific context, i.e. the Greek hotel industry or they can equally be generalised to the hotel sector of 5* hotels. In view to this, pragmatism supports transferability, "the factors that affect whether the knowledge we gain can be transferred to other settings" (Morgan,

2007:72). In fact, the author suggests that the findings of this project may be seen as relevant to other similar settings and contexts outside Greek hospitality that show similarities with the context used for this study.

Despite the arguments presented for integrating methods, it has been demonstrated that each of these methods is based on a particular paradigm, a patterned set of assumptions concerning reality (ontology), knowledge of that reality (epistemology), and the particular ways of knowing that reality (methodology). Qualitative data is required in view of the notion that quantitative methods cannot access some of the phenomena that management researchers are interested in (Bryman, 2006). For example, the discussions with the leaders in the study provide some data on how they view their own leadership style, and how they behave in leadership situations. Although Greene *et al.* (1989:271) claim that the notion of mixing paradigms is problematic for designs in triangulation or complementary purposes, the information presented in this thesis is not new in the sense that a "new" case for or against the debate is made. Nevertheless, based on the paradigmatic differences concerning the phenomenon under study, a "new" solution for using mixed methods in research is proposed that the researcher believes is both methodologically and philosophically sound.

A survey (quantitative method) was used to identify broad patterns throughout the sample, thus to identify the most effective and efficient leadership style, transactional or transformational, in the Greek hospitality industry with the use of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). The questionnaire has been introduced in order to be used for the purpose of this study and to offer validity. Additionally, the MLQ has been used in an effort to find correlations between gender, transformational and transactional leadership style and effectiveness. Semi-structured interviews (qualitative method) were conducted to deepen understandings of emergent findings in an effort to see the world from the point of view of the actor, in this case, the leaders. Thus, the interviews were conducted in order to explore how the leaders in the study view their world, their working environment, and their working life. Additionally, they were used to explore the factors the leaders consider influence

their leadership and more specifically their transformational leadership; as well as to identify how they view how they apply leadership in their organisations (Bryman *et al.*, 1996). By taking the actor's viewpoint as the central focus, such an approach brings to the surface issues and topics, which are important but which are also omitted by relying on the researcher as the source of what is relevant (Bryman *et al.*, 1996). In fact, during the interviews many issues were brought to the surface and the main themes that were identified were the glass ceiling issue in hospitality management and the barriers that managers, mainly female managers, face in their career, and then the traits, required for effective leadership.

It is evident from the above that this thesis is influenced by the pragmatic philosophy and it has used a mixed method approach with a combination of a survey questionnaire with semi-structured interviews, a combination that has recently been considered common in management (Bryman, 2006; Bazeley, 2002). Mixed methods and pragmatism are used in this thesis to enrich the understanding of leadership in the hospitality industry and to expand this understanding in terms of identifying the most effective leadership style in the context of the study.

It is important to mention at this stage that the multi method approach is not superior to research that relies on a single method on the grounds that more and more varied findings are inevitably a "good thing". It must be competently designed and must be appropriate to the research questions or research area concerning the project. The researcher argues that methods are shaped by and represent paradigm that reflect a particular belief about reality. She also maintains that the assumptions of the qualitative paradigm are based on a worldview not represented by the quantitative paradigm.

5.3.1 Research design

In view of the above discussions, the research strategy of this thesis has been carefully designed. Much attention has been paid on the parallel or sequential designs, in which each approach is studied separately allowing the use of its own

paradigmatic and design requirements (Bazeley, 2002). Therefore, the research of this thesis has been split into eight stages as illustrated in Figure 5.1. At the first stage the researcher studied the literature on leadership and transformational leadership, and gender issues to formulate the aim, the objectives, and the research questions of the study. In the second stage she designed her study. She explored the hotel sector in Greece in various sources such the Greek hotel owners association, the Greek National Tourism Organisation and the Hellenic Chamber of Hotels in Greece in order to identify the potential hotels, which could be included in the study. Additionally, she contacted the Association of Women in Tourism in Greece (www.womenintourism.com), in order to find out how many hotels in Greece employ female managers, and more specifically general managers. According to their website the Club is a professional association of women active in the tourist industry. It was founded in June 1997 as a non-profit, non-syndicate association of women active within the tourist industry, and its members work in tourism as entrepreneurs, professionals and scientists.

Figure 5.1: <u>The research project eight stages</u>
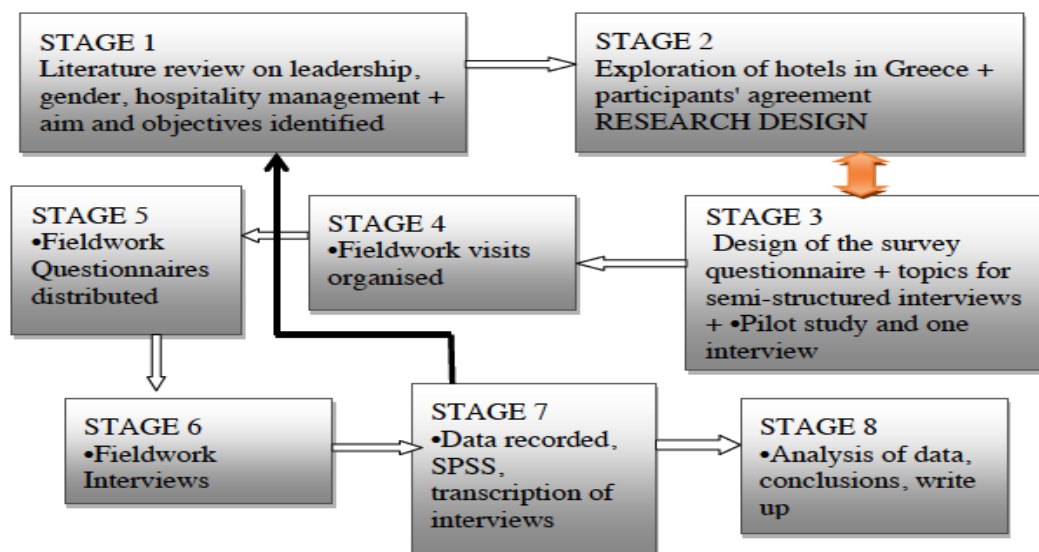
At this stage she explored the willingness of hotel managers, mainly female managers to participate in the study. The researcher explored the hotels and information provided by the secretary of 'Women in tourism' and she concluded that there are few female general managers in hotels in Greece. Therefore, she decided to

investigate which hotels have female general managers to start her study. Initial contacts were made by phone to inform them about the topic of the study and then gain their consent to participate, as well as their willingness to contact other managers in their area to secure their approval to be included in the sample. The final list of the participant managers was only available after the primary research was completed since snowball sampling was used. The study started with piloting the tools with a female general manager in Crete who is a friend of the researcher.

In the third stage, considering the relevant literature, the questionnaire was designed, including the MLQ and other more general questions on demographics in the beginning. She also created a list of questions and topics to be used for the semi-structured interviews. Then a pilot study was conducted for this questionnaire as it is further discussed in the chapter, where some minor changes were required and then final questionnaire was reproduced in copies. At the fourth stage, the researcher arranged visits to five main tourist areas in Greece, Crete, Rhodes, Thessalonica, Mykonos and finally Attica, since these are considered to be the most popular tourist areas in the country, and because this is where the researcher has acquaintances. At stage five the fieldwork took place, at different times and periods based on the availability of the managers. The meetings were arranged by phone, and all took place at the hotels where the managers work. Firstly, the questionnaires were given for them to complete and to distribute to their peers, superiors and staff members of their team. Then, for stage six, the interviews (30 in total) were arranged to discuss the topics, which were communicated by e-mail upon request, and the discussions took place. In that way, the researcher had already an opinion from the questionnaires and she could ask further questions to enhance the data gathered. At stage seven, the researcher recorded all the data to SPSS and transcribed the interviews, while at the final stage, eight, she analysed the data.

The fieldwork started in April 2007 when the pilot study took place. The screening of the questionnaire was done and in the same month the survey and interviews were done in the area of Chania, Crete. In July and August 2007 the researcher conducted the research in Attica mainly because this period is not the high season for hotels in the area, while it is the opposite in the rest of the areas in Greece. In October 2007

she went to Thessalonica, in November 2007 she went to Rhodes and in April 2008 in Mykonos. All questionnaires were returned to the researcher by November 2008. The whole process lasted a year, mainly because the researcher has a full time job as the head of a tourism management department on the University of Hertfordshire in Athens, which restricted her availability to take leave of absence and to travel to all those places. At the same time the managers were many times contacted by the researcher to be reminded to collect all the questionnaires from their staff.

5.4 SAMPLING TECHNIQUES AND SELECTION CRITERIA

Whatever research is conducted the sample to be used should be chosen carefully. The sample should be chosen based on the size of the study and the size of the population under consideration, thus the population of this study includes all the general and departmental managers in 5* hotels in Greece. Evidently, it is not possible to include all these people in the study for a variety of reasons such as time restrictions, availability and the considerable cost involved in the study. Thus, a sample has been identified that may be considered representative of the population in the study.

In a quantitative study a representative or good sample is one in which the results obtained for the sample can be taken to be true for the whole population, that is to be able to generalise (Chan, 2008; Collis and Hussey, 2003; Saunders *et al.*, 2003; Bryman and Bell, 2003; Marshall, 1996). In addition, according to Collis and Hussey (2003:155) a good sample should be chosen at random, should be large enough to satisfy the needs of the investigation being undertaken, and should be unbiased. In light of the above, as well as to other considerations such as the statistical analysis, and the research questions to be answered, the researcher identified the sample to study. The sample of this study is large and diverse and it represents all those engaged in leadership activities in a wide range of organisational settings, because the data was gathered representing a large number of perspectives (the leaders, the subordinates, the peers), who work in different departments in the hotels in the study.

In the beginning the researcher wanted to include only general managers (both male and female) in hotels in Greece, however, as already discussed, data shows that there are few women in this position in Greece. Previous studies suggest that women have limited access to well-paid, skilled and managerial positions. In fact, women's work in hospitality is found to be vertically and horizontally segregated with "the majority of female workers located in subordinate jobs receiving lower level of renumeration" (Jordan, 1997:528). Thus, a convenience sample has been used for this thesis for both the quantitative and the qualitative approach, as Bryman and Bell (2003) suggest in the field of business and management convenience samples are very common. The findings of this sample may prove quite interesting, however there is always the problem of generalisation, since it is not that clear that the sample is representative of the population, and this could be considered a limitation of this study. However, as Yin (1994) states there are two criteria in selecting cases either because similar results are expected or because it may lead to different results for predictable reasons. Thus, the researcher based her choice on structure and cultural settings, as it is more possible to find female managers not only as general managers, but also in senior management positions in 5* hotels.

This sampling technique allows the researcher to select the most accessible subjects, and thus she identified those female managers who occupy the general managers position or those who hold relatively senior positions in the hierarchy (Marshall, 1996), as they were identified by the Association of Women in Tourism, and the Hellenic Chamber of Hotels. Within this sampling technique, there is the option of snowball sampling, which seemed to be appropriate considering the researcher's profile. The researcher made initial contact with two female managers, one of whom is an assistant manager and a friend and former fellow student at the Hotel School in Rhodes, and the other is the general manager in one of the hotels of the study and the researcher's friend also. The general manager has been used for the pilot study, but both have been used to establish contacts with others, with snowball sampling who have actually been recommended by the initial sample (Bryman and Bell, 2003), mainly in Crete. Although this technique is not random, it is mainly used in qualitative research, but it has also been used in terms of convenience for the

quantitative research. Besides that, in quantitative research snowball sampling may be important if the researcher needs to focus upon or to reflect relationships between people, (i.e. leadership used between managers and their subordinates).

The researcher studied the number of people employed in the industry and the total number of 5* hotels in Greece, which was176, as shown in Table 5.1. The regions of the list were limited to those that are more easily accessible and more tourism related developed; therefore they attract a large number of tourist arrivals. In addition, they are considered as primary destinations in Greece (Papadimitriou and Trakas, 2008). Then she found the respective hotels in the areas of study, i.e. Crete, Rhodes, Mykonos, Thessalonica and Attica that employ female general managers to choose them for the study. She started with the hotels that employ people who are the researcher's acquaintances so that she could make contacts with the rest by their references.

Table 5.1: 5* hotels in Greece

Area	Number of hotels
Central Greece (excl.Attica)	7
Attica (Athens)	28
Peloponnese	10
Ionian Islands	10
Epirus	2
N. Aegean	6
Crete	41
Dodecanese	16
Cyclades	17
Thessaly	12
Macedonia	26
Thrace	1
Total :	176

Source: Hellenic Chamber of Hotels (2007)

Additionally, the hotels chosen for the study provide the conditions and the characteristics that may cover the critical issue of representativeness. These hotels actually represent the two main types of hotels that operate in Greece, city and resort. More specifically, the organisations were chosen having the following characteristics:

- complex organisation (large size – not less than 50 rooms, hierarchical structure);

- private sector organisation;

- female managers in departments that lead a group of people;

- and/or female general managers.

Thus, all the hotels chosen for the study are 5* hotels either city or resort type, medium to large with at least 50 rooms. They cover all the ownership type status, thus there are some that are family-owned, national hotels chains, and some that operate locally, and international hotel chains either Greek or international. Although the hotel sample may be considered representative of the population, there were variances in terms of the organisational structure of each unit. The hotels, however, have similar structures. They have been chosen based on the hotel beds offered as well as the willingness of the managers to participate in the study. The 5* hotel sector was chosen as they are considered SMEs which show divergence in management practices. In addition, luxury hotels have similarities in the size, location and type of ownership, and the managers in these hotels are thought to share practices (Buhalis, 2001). The hotel sample details are presented in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: <u>Sample hotel details</u>

No	AREA	OWNERSHIP	TYPE	No of ROOMS
1	Attica (A)	Greek National Chain	City	182
2	A	International Chain	City	508
3	A	International Chain	City	345
4	A	Family owned	City	154
5	A	Family owned	City	150
6	A	Greek International Chain	Resort	153
7	A	Family owned	City	192
8	A	Greek National Chain	City	374
9	Crete (C)	Greek National Chain (local)	Resort	188
10	C	Family owned	Resort	146
11	C	Family owned	Resort	81

12	Rhodes (R)	Family owned	City	60
13	R	Greek National Chain (local)	Resort	377
14	R	Family owned	City – Resort	75
15	R	Greek National Chain	City – Resort	405
16	R	International Chain	Resort	356
17	R	Greek National Chain (local)	Resort	70
18	R	Family owned	Resort	285
19	Myconos (M)	Family owned	Resort	80
20	M	Greek National Chain (local)	Resort	112
21	M	Family owned	Resort	105
22	Thessaloniki (T)	Greek National Chain	City	425
23	T	Greek International Chain	City	284
24	T	International Chain	City - Resort	152

Considering the above the researcher made contacts to secure access to managers. The initial contact was made by phone to explore their willingness to participate in the study. Resultantly, 15 female and 15 male managers form the sample of managers to be studied. Their profile is available in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Sample demographics – 15 female managers + 15 male managers

Criteria	Female managers		Male managers	
	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Age 18-25 26-30 31-40 40+	3 7 5	20 26.6 33.3	2 8 5	13.3 53.3 33.3
Marital status Married Single	6 7	40 46.6	6 9	40 60
Academic qualifications VET				

ASTE	7	46.6	10	66.6
TEI	6	40	0	
Bachelor	1	6.6	3	20
Master	1	6.6	2	13.3

The above table shows that both male and female managers are more likely to be single. Male managers are more likely to have a postgraduate degree, however more managers in the study are graduates from ASTER. More details on the female and male managers are provided in Table 5.4. It is interesting to note that female general managers that the researcher could finally arrange a meeting with, were mainly found in Crete, where she actually met with 2 of the 3 female general managers in 5* hotels in the area at the time the research was conducted.

Table 5.4: Managers' profile

Manager	Position	Sex	Age	Degrees	Languages
MGM1	General Manager	M	40-50	MSc in Tourism	4
FGM2	General Manager	F	30-40	ASTER	3
MM3	Assistant GM	M	25-30	IST College - UH	2
MGM4	General Manager	M	40-50	ASTER	3
FM5	Food & Beverage Manager	F	25-30	TEI	2
FM6	Rooms Division Manager	F	30-40	TEI	3
MGM7	General Manager	M	30-40	ASTER	3
FM8	Food & Beverage Manager	F	25-30	TEI	2
FM9	Sales & Marketing Director	F	40-50	TEI	3
FGM10	General Manager	F	30-40	ASTER	3
FM11	Sales & Marketing Director	F	30-40	MA in Marketing	3
MGM12	General Manager	M	30-40	ASTER	3
FM13	Assistant GM	F	30-	ASTER	4

			40		
FGM14	General Manager	F	40-50	ASTER	4
MM15	Food & Beverage Manager	M	25-30	ASTER	2
MM16	Rooms Division Manager	M	30-40	ASTER	3
MM17	Human Resources Manager	M	30-40	ASTER	3
MM18	Food & Beverage Manager	M	40-50	ASTER + MA	2
MM19	Rooms Division Manager	M	30-40	ASTER	3
FM20	Human Resources Manager	F	25-30	TEI	2
FM21	Sales & Marketing Manager	F	25-30	Alpine College	4
MGM22	General Manager	M	30-40	ASTER	3
MM23	Food & Beverage Manager	M	25-30	ASTER	3
MGM25	General Manager	M	25-30	IST College - UH	2
FM25	Rooms Division Manager	F	40-50	ASTER	3
MGM26	General Manager	M	40-50	ASTER	3
FM27	Sales & Marketing Director	F	40-50	ASTER	3
MGM28	Assistant General Manager	M	30-40	Alpine College	2
FM29	Sales & Marketing Manager	F	30-40	TEI	3
FGM30	General Manager	F	40-50	ASTER	3

NOTES: Sex: Male= M   Female = F
ASTER = Advanced School of Tourism Education Rhodes
TEI = Technological Educational Institute (Business and Management - Department of Tourist enterprises)
IST College – UH = University of Hertfordshire (BAhons Tourism Management)
Alpine College = BAhons Hospitality and Tourism Management

Only three participants hold a postgraduate diploma while all have studies in hospitality and/or tourism management. The majority speak at least two foreign languages, which is an important skill in hotel management; four managers speak four foreign languages and the rest speak three. These data do not show any norms in

the areas of the study. In general, the managers in the hotel sector in Greece are required to speak foreign languages and to hold at least a degree in hotel and/or tourism management (Christou, 1999). Finally, the participants in the study are graduates from either public or private educational institutions, whilst the majority is graduates from public schools and more specifically ASTER, which for many years has been considered the most successful hotel school in Greece, that follows the Swiss model in education where theory and practice are combined in the programme of study (Christou, 1999).

The sample for the survey was identified by the managers in the study. The researcher planned to distribute the questionnaire to 15 subordinates, 5 peers, 5 superiors and 30 managers, a total of 920 questionnaires. As the questionnaire should be distributed to the managers' peers, subordinates and superiors, the managers accepted to do so to their teams. Each manager firstly completed the questionnaire him/herself and then they distributed the questionnaire to their teams. Therefore, the numbers vary according to the size of the teams the managers lead, nevertheless in total 651 questionnaires were collected giving a 70.7 per cent response rate. Their details were finally available after the questionnaires were collected as they evolve from the questions of the demographics of the sample. These are illustrated in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5: <u>Participants' demographics</u>

n=651		
Criteria	**Frequency**	**Percentage (%)**
<u>Sex</u> Male Female	295 350	45.4 53.8
<u>Age</u> 18-25 26-30 31-40 40+	123 201 207 118	18.9 30.9 31.8 18.2
<u>Marital status</u> Married Single	231 370	35.5 56.9

<u>Academic qualifications</u>		
None	8	1.2
VET	133	20.5
ASTE	241	37.1
TEI	172	26.5
Bachelor	64	9.8
Master	28	4.3
PhD	3	.5
<u>Foreign languages</u>		
English	622	
German	14	95.7
Italian	13	2.2
		2
<u>Position</u>		
Manager	31	4.8
Supervisor	91	14
Departmental manager	38	5.8
Departmental employee	490	75.4

In addition Table 5.6 shows the numbers per manager.

Table 5.6: <u>Sample size for each manager</u>

Manager	Staff	General Managers
MGM1	25	
FGM2	16	
MM3	14	1
MGM4	17	
FM5	26	1
FM6	17	1
MGM7	17	
FM8	16	1
FM9	18	1
FGM10	13	
FM11	14	1
MGM12	22	

FM13	26	1
FGM14	15	
MM15	36	1
MM16	17	1
MM17	16	1
MM18	26	1
MM19	15	1
FM20	5	1
FM21	18	1
MGM22	23	
MM23	19	1
MGM24	21	
FM25	24	1
MGM26	18	
FM27	24	1
MGM28	20	
FM29	29	1
FGM30	36	
TOTAL	603	18

The subordinates and peers chosen for the questionnaires were those members of staff that are part of the leaders' group or team. The leader chose them based on the period those were distributed, and the staff willingness to participate in the study. This was the most effective choice for the researcher because the participants would easier agree if their managers asked for it. This poses a challenge in the study because the participants might be influenced by the fact that the leader would collect them him/herself on behalf of the researcher. This could be considered a limitation to this study, but bearing in mind the circumstances (i.e. busy time, in some cases high season) that was proven to be the quickest and the most effective way. Jankowicz (2000) suggests that the accuracy of the findings gathered with convenience sampling depends on the variety of different groups and the time and effort spent on sites. Evidently, there is a variety of groups that participated in the study and the researcher spent considerable time on the sites not only for the interviews but also for the collection of the questionnaires.

In addition, Dillman (1978) argues that the messages contained in a self-administered questionnaire's covering letter will affect the response rate. Thus, a detailed cover letter was included at the front of the questionnaire (See Appendix A). The potential advantage of large sample sizes using self-completion questionnaires may be lost if the response rate is low. The researcher's persistence increased the rate of returned questionnaires since almost all the respondents had to be cajoled into responding. A few reminders were made by phone to urge the respondents to send the questionnaires back to the researcher.

The process was completed at the end of November 2008. Overall the impression was very good. All the people that were contacted were willing to help and participate at the process. Especially the female managers found it a good opportunity to discuss issues that mattered to them. Some particularly started even talking about very personal issues like family, friends, events and incidents at work, problems they faced and ways they handled them as well as the various obstacles they faced throughout their career. Almost all the female managers in the study were interested in the results of the questionnaire that describes some their leadership style implemented, more specifically they wanted to know if they are more transactional or transformational leaders. Although, they were busy, as the interviews and the questionnaire distribution took place during their work hours, they were enthusiastic, and they usually shared many of their own experiences at work. Most of them contacted others on the spot to inform them of the study and to ask them to participate and allow the researcher access to their establishments. Only one female manager was reluctant to talk and the researcher had to ask many questions in order to acquire answers that would provide some valuable data. Male managers were also keen on participating, they were very interested in the results, to see if there are any differences at all. The majority of the male participants were interested in what their female counterparts discussed, and they commented on the details mainly on the barriers that women face in management. Others admitted they have noticed how the female managers act in the hotels and they have started imitating their behaviour. However, they did not seem to care much about the researcher's gender as they found

it a good opportunity to discuss such an issue with a female. As there are many ethical considerations of doing research in social science with humans (Robson, 2002; Silverman, 2000), there was a mutual agreement for confidentiality; therefore their names are not published in this study.

5.5 THE QUANTITATIVE APPROACH OF THE STUDY

According to Johns and Lee-Ross (1993) quantitative methods of data collection and analysis are of enormous benefit to service organisations because they provide information about consumer behaviour, market trends, quality control, employee work attitudes and so on, thus it is a useful method to study the hotel sector that is service oriented. The quantitative approach is discussed in details in this section, including details on the tools and the methods used. Quantitative research is often highly preoccupied with establishing the causal relationships between concepts (Bryman, 1996; Johnson and Duberley, 2000), and "the analysis of causal relationships between variables" (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000:4). For that purpose, a *survey questionnaire* was used to identify the causal relationship between gender and transformational leadership style. Considering Veal's (1994) suggestion that this method aims to collect limited information about a large number of people, the researcher has distributed in total 920 questionnaires and in total she received back 651 which is a good response rate of 70.6 percent of the whole sample. It is not possible to keep track of the response rate in relation to those who did not agree to participate, since the researcher did not distribute the questionnaires herself. This method helps to study a population and make inferences about the population (Davis, 1998), therefore the researcher aims with the use of a survey questionnaire to make generalisations on the 5* hotel sector in Greece, and to other similar contexts. According to Johns and Lee-Ross (1993) the questionnaire should accurately reflect the conceptual framework of the research, therefore, the survey questionnaire used for this study (See Appendix A) covered general managers and departmental managers from 5* hotels from all the major regions of Greece. More specifically the regions were: Attica, Crete, Rhodes, Myconos, and Thessaloniki. Nonetheless, there are some studies that criticise the use of a quantitative approach in studying

leadership. More specifically, Conger (1998:109) provides some shortcomings as they are presented in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7: <u>Shortcoming of quantitative methods in studying leadership</u>

- Inability to draw effective links across the multiple levels to explain leadership events and outcomes
- Typically focus on a single level of analysis
- More often measures attitudes about behaviour rather than actual observed behaviour
- Are influenced by the social desirability concerns of respondents
- Are poor at measuring interaction
- Employ broad and sterile item descriptors often ignoring richness of detail and also the processes behind the descriptors – the 'how' and 'why' leadership questions are traded off for highly abstracted concepts only allowing generalisations across a range of contexts at relatively superficial levels

Source: Conger (1998:109)

Nevertheless, survey research has been considered a useful tool in research in management (Brotherton, 1999). In addition, there are a few concerns, such as *design*, where the researcher has identified with the pilot study some problems of control, clarity and the range of questions. It took the participants about 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire, but it seemed it was easy for them to complete it. Despite the concerns, she has ensured that the data collection and the findings address the research problem and the aim of this thesis. Therefore, a lot of attention was paid to the design of the current survey's self – administered questionnaire, especially after the pilot study. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) has been considered carefully, and has been used because it is found to assess the leadership styles in terms of transformational and transactional leadership behaviours, as well as laissez-faire. It also measures effectiveness, and staff satisfaction (Antonakis *et al.*, 2003).

The survey design is affecting the response rate and the reliability and validity of the data to be collected; the researcher following Saunders *et al.* (2003) in reference to responses rates, validity and reliability and how these can be maximised she considered the following:

- Careful design of individual questions;
- Clear layout of the questionnaire form;
- Lucid explanation of the purpose of the questionnaire;
- Pilot testing.

5.5.1. The Pilot Study

A pilot study is an exploratory phase, which aims to identify and eliminate problems before the full questionnaire survey is carried out (Johns and Lee-Ross, 1993). As Silverman (1993) argues surveys based upon pre-tested, standardised questions are a way of increasing the reliability of research. The questionnaire was designed and piloted to a female general manager, a sample however, that was very similar to the survey sample, with small amendments made in the final version. The on-site interview was then held with the participant to discuss her responses to the questionnaire. The purpose was to see how the participants feel about the questionnaire and identify any badly worded questions, which should be changed. The researcher also checked if she understood the words and their meanings, and whether any further instructions were required (Johns and Lee-Ross, 1998). The questionnaire was reformulated after ensuring that the instrument was clear and comprehensive. In fact, the researcher realized that there was a time issue since the participants needed a little bit more than 15 minutes to complete all the questions, which was mentioned to the participants to be aware of the time required. In addition, there were two questions where the boxes were not printed well and they were not clear. Finally, she added a question that identified the position the participants hold in their organisations.

5.5.2 Measures - The MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (MLQ)

The survey questionnaire for this thesis begins with a covering letter, which explained the purpose of the survey as well as providing some instructions to the participants on how to complete the questionnaire (See Appendix A). Quality issues such as typing, paper quality and typefaces were considered carefully, since in self-completion or self-administered questionnaires the respondents must read each question themselves and answer the questions themselves (Bryman and Bell, 2003). On the one hand, questionnaires are cheap and quick to administer, there is the absence of interviewer effects, there is no interviewer variability and it provides convenience for respondents. On the other hand, they cannot probe, it is not possible to collect additional data and it is difficult to ask a lot of questions while there is greater risk of missing data (Collis and Hussey, 2003; Bryman and Bell, 2003). All the important issues are taken into consideration for the creation of the questionnaire such as clear instructions, clear questions that address one question each time. The type of the individual questions in the survey questionnaire used for the thesis is closed questions, which provide a number of alternative answers from which the respondent is instructed to choose (DeVaus, 1991). These questions are quick and easy to answer, as they require minimal writing. Responses are also easier to compare, as they have been predetermined.

In the final version of the questionnaire, in the first part, demographic information was included to identify whether significant differences exist between the samples of men and women participants since education, gender, age, and marital status are four social characteristics that have been found to influence gender attitudes and behaviour (Marcos and Bahr, 2001). To gather data on gender differences and similarities in the self-perceptions of the leadership styles of Greek managers, the questionnaire requested respondents to indicate their gender and how often they adopted each of the four leadership styles in the MLQ. The study gathered data on the personal and professional characteristics of the respondents in order to provide a composite picture and to analyse any significant differences. In addition, the same

questionnaire was distributed to the managers' subordinates, superiors and peers in order to evaluate their managers' leadership style. The employees were asked to read the items in the questionnaire and have in mind the manager of their department or the general manager in some cases. These employees were identified as the group of people that the managers in the study interact with a day-to-day basis. Employees evaluated their managers on the dimensions of leadership as they are available in the MLQ.

The sample (n=651) includes 15 male and 15 female managers and their staff (peers, superiors and subordinates and in some cases their general managers). The managers are those who have been evaluated by their staff in their transformational and transactional leadership behaviour as well as on their satisfaction from the managers' leadership behaviour. Finally, the staff members have evaluated the managers on their effectiveness and the extra effort they show based on the managers' more exhibited leadership style, as well as their satisfaction from the leadership style the leader exhibits. For this purpose the MLQ has been used that according to Burke and Collins (2001:247) is "an instrument used to measure perceived frequency of transformational and transactional leadership behaviour". The questionnaire "assesses the leadership behaviours that are associated with what is generally considered 'exceptional' as well as more ordinary performance" (Bass and Avolio, 1990:4). This is a measure used broadly by researchers and practitioners all over the world.

Gender and leadership style was tested using a version of the MLQ form 5-45, as developed by Bass and Avolio (1998). It contains 45 items 36 of which represent the nine leadership factors and 9 items that assess three leadership outcome scales. The MLQ instrument is used to measure perceived frequency of transformational and transactional leadership style and behaviour. It also measures laissez-faire leadership and a number of leader performance outcomes. The dimensions of leadership and outcomes of the MLQ are included because their interrelationships are well established in prior work (Avolio and Bass, 1988; Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1995; Waldman *et al.*, 1998; Yammarino and Bass, 1990).

The MLQ, *Transformational leadership* (or 5Is) measures five main attributes, Idealised Attributes, Idealised Behaviours, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation and Individualised Consideration. *Transactional leadership* is measured by the use of Contingent Reward, Management by exception active and passive, and finally the *Nontransactional* leadership in terms of the laissez faire style (see Table 5.8 for details). The respondents indicated how frequently the leader demonstrated a leadership behaviour as it is described in the questionnaire. The choices were proposed on a 5 items Likert scale, 1= Not all, 2= Once in a while, 3= Sometimes, 4= Frequently, 5=Fairly often. Likert scales are the commonest type in general use for measuring attitudes or perceptions (Johns and Lee-Ross, 1993). The anchors of the leadership style scales incorporated a magnitude-estimation ratio to each other of 4:3:2:1:0 with "frequently, if not always" and "not at all" serving as the endpoint anchors.

Table 5.8: <u>MLQ components</u>

Transform ational leadership	Idealised Attributes (IA)	Builds trust, gains respect with qualities and pride when others are associated with the leader
	Idealised Behaviours (IB)	Acts with integrity, communicates values, purpose and mission
	Inspirational Motivation (IM)	Inspires others, exhibits optimism
	Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	Encourages innovative thinking, new perspectives for solving problems
	Individualised Consideration (IC)	Coaches people, develops and mentors others
Transactio nal leadership	Contingent Reward (CR)	Rewards achievements
	Management by exception (Active) (MEA)	Monitors mistakes

	Management by exception (Passive) (MEP)	Fights fires, but only when they are severe
Non transactional	Laissez faire (LF)	Avoids involvement

Source: Adapted from Eagly *et al.* (2003) and Bass and Avolio (1990)

Many authors have used the MLQ for their research and empirical data supports the view that each transformational and transactional leadership should be examined in its whole and not on the individual components of the model (Carless, 1998; Tepper and Percy, 1994 cited in Rafferty and Griffin, 2004:330). The questionnaire requested respondents to indicate the extent to which they believe they themselves (in the case of the managers of the study), or their managers (the rest of the participants), use each of the following leadership behaviours – laissez-faire, management-by-exception, contingent reward, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation or idealised influence in their activities. The interpretation of each of the leadership styles and behaviours used was not explained in the survey. An explanation of transactional and transformational leadership behaviour was not given in the questionnaire itself. It is not felt that it would have affected the results in any way. The questionnaire also measures subordinates' satisfaction (Youssef, 1998).

The MLQ was developed to expand the dimensions of leadership measured by previous leadership surveys and to provide concise computerised feedback from that can be used for individual, team, and organisational development as well as individual counseling (Muenjohn and Armstrong, 2008; Bass and Avolio, 1990). According to Lowe *et al. (*1996) and Bass and Avolio (1989) the MLQ scales have been related to a range of effectiveness criteria such as subordinate perceptions of effectiveness, as well as to a variety of organisational measures of performance such as supervisory ratings, number of promotion recommendations, and financial performance of the work unit. The MLQ has a variety of advantages that reflect the purpose of this study.

Table 5.9: Advantages of MLQ

- It assesses perceptions of leadership styles that represent avoidance of responsibility and action;
- It uses a range of ineffective and effective leadership styles than other instruments;
- It is more suitable for administration at all levels of organisations and across different types of production, service, and military organizations;
- It has 360 degrees capabilities feedback;
- It can be used to assess perceptions of leadership effectiveness of team leaders, supervisors, managers, and executives from many different levels of an organization;
- It emphasises on development;
- It is based on a model that is easy to understand.

Source: Adapted from Bass and Avolio (1990)

While some studies have challenged its reliability and validity (e.g. Carless, 1998), it is quite legitimate to use it and it has indeed been described as the most popular leadership instrument (Muenjohn and Armostrong, 2008; Kirkbride, 2006; Yukl, 1998). Results of different studies using this survey indicate the factor structure of the MLQ may not always be stable (Antonakis *et al.*, 2003). Other criticisms of the MLQ have focused on its discriminant validity with respect to the scales comprising transformational and transactional contingent reward leadership (i.e. Tracey and Hinkin, 1998). Similarly, Carless (1998) confirmed Densten and Sarros (1997) and they suggest that the MLQ mainly assesses the construct of transformational leadership, rather than the transformational leader's behaviour.

In contrast to the above, according to Avolio *et al.* (1995) the MLQ (Form 5X) scales have, on average, exhibited high internal consistency and factor loadings. Similar validation results confirming the validity of the tool have been reported by Bass and Avolio (1997). It is interesting that no other studies apart from the original validation studies of the MLQ (Form 5X) of Avolio *et al.* (1995) and Bass and Avolio (1997) have shown support for the nine-factor model, thus the 5X form has been used. Antonakis *et al.* (2003:286) claim that regardless of the theoretical or measurement shortcomings, their results indicate that the current version of the MLQ (Form 5X) is a "valid and reliable instrument that can adequately measure the nine components comprising the full-range theory of leadership". They further claim that although it

will never account for all possible leadership dimensions, it represents a foundation from which to conduct further research and to expand the understanding of the "new models of leadership". Antonakis and House (2002) argued that Bass and Avolio's model of leadership appears promising as a potential platform for developing an even broader theory of leadership which is the aim of this thesis, as its purpose is to investigate whether transformational leadership is influenced by gender and to identify and potentially develop a leadership model based on gender, that is effective in the Greek hospitality industry and potentially to other service industries that share similar characteristics with the context investigated in the current study.

Moreover, Bass and Avolio (1997) suggest that ideally the MLQ should be administered to all of a focal leader's associates. A manager's perceived leadership style and effectiveness may be different from actual leadership style, as managers tend to rate themselves as more competent than others rate them. Therefore, the survey questionnaire was distributed to the manager him/herself, the manager's peers, superiors, members of team they lead and superiors whenever it was feasible.

The names of all female and male managers were obtained from acquaintances and snowball sampling. The whole process started with the general manager at Hotel 9 in Chania (Crete) who is a friend of the researcher with the method of snowballing all the rest were acquired. A cover letter indicated the purpose of the study; they were told that the research was being conducted to provide practical, useable information about what actually occurs in organisations. They were made explicitly aware of the fact that their answers would be kept totally confidential. All questionnaires were completed anonymously and were returned to the researcher either by post or she collected them from the hotels of the study.

5.6 THE QUALITATIVE APPROACH OF THE STUDY

In view to the mixed method used, in addition to the quantitative method, the researcher has used a qualitative method as well. Qualitative data refers to all non-numeric data or data that have not been quantified and can be a product of all

research strategies (Saunders *et al.,* 2003). The study included a short list of responses to open-ended questions and more complex data such as transcripts of in-depth interviews. Within the qualitative approach, human behaviour is viewed as a product of how people interpret their world, the task is to capture this process of interpretation and see things from people's point of view (Bryman, 1996). It also comprises the understanding of which can be treated as an explanation of the actual course of behaviour (Weber, 1947 cited in Bryman, 1996); therefore, in this study the researcher aims to study the way female and male managers view their leadership style and more specifically their transformational and/or transactional leadership. She also aims at exploring how these managers view their work settings, and the culture within this context. Grint (2000) claims that the concept of leadership can be understood only through understanding the meaning of the concept for those involved in this form of social actions. He claims that leadership is primarily a social phenomenon that relies on the subjective interpretations of followers, more that the specific actions of individual leaders. Thus, the researcher used firstly the survey to identify how the followers view and evaluate their leaders, whereas the leaders themselves completed the questionnaire to evaluate their leadership style and then they were interviewed in order to identify any other factors that they believe influence their leadership style. Wass and Wells (1994) suggest that semi-structured interviews may be used to explore and explain themes that have emerged from the use of the questionnaire. The researcher aimed at identifying any other issues or causes that influence the managers' leadership style, in addition to their gender.

A series of interviews was conducted to obtain qualitative data in order to access experiences, memories and interpretations of research subjects thus, producing rich and localised data. The researcher used a list of questions to gear the discussions. These questions were sent in advance and were supplemented at the time of the interview with additional questions that emerged from the discussions as well as the MLQ. Questions were also asked to find out how women and men in the study thought their career was going to develop in the future, whether they saw any barriers within the authority. Biographical questions were asked at the end of the interviews and the relationship between the managers' career and personal life was

explored. The topics covered in the semi-structured interviews, included the effective and not effective leadership traits required in hotel management, career progression in the sector, views and perceptions on their relationships with their staff and the future of women in employment in hospitality. Due to the relaxed nature of the interviews, the participants were happy to discuss these areas. All the interviews were wide-ranging in content and produced very rich material for analysis.

Considering Miles and Huberman's (1994) suggestion that qualitative methods help to explore the way managers understand and make sense of their lives and how they manage day-to-day situations, the researcher aspired to explore the nature of hospitality leadership through the eyes of the participants, by penetrating to the frames of meaning with which these people operate in the organisational context. In addition, an examination of organisational cultures has been done since it enables a focus on the hidden barriers that inhibit the achievement of women workers and impact on the gendered nature of organisational experience, which influences the adopted leadership styles. Biswas and Cassell (1999) argue that sexual discrimination is not only evidenced in a number of overt organisational practices but, more significantly, is embedded in the cultural values that permeate both organisations and the concept of organisation itself. Therefore, the interviews included as an essential requirement the hotel managers to express, in their own way, the beliefs and attitudes that they held with the minimum of preconceived structure. A list of general themes and questions to be covered was prepared, allowing sufficient flexibility in the approach for participants to elaborate on particular points (See Appendix B). Almost all the interviewees were provided with the list of the topics to be discussed in advance by e-mail. She wanted to go beyond pure description and to provide analyses of the environments she examined. Additionally, she aimed at exploring which style is the most effective in this context. The main purpose was to provide a framework for the study of transformational leadership style implemented in the Greek hospitality industry. Having adopted the mixed method approach she believed that the open approach allows her access to unexpectedly important topics, which may have not been visible by the survey approach.

The taken-for-granted assumptions about gender that are embedded deeply within established organisational discourses serve to create organisational environments where it is difficult for women to succeed. The literature shows that the typical response from women in this situation is to adapt themselves to existing cultures by adopting the appropriate behaviours and roles (Carli, 2001; Powell, 1999), an issue that the researcher explored with the interviews. Furthermore, the qualitative method in research provides more opportunities to explore the phenomenon, it helps to investigate processes more effectively, to explore the contextual factors and it is more effective to investigate symbolic dimension (Conger, 1998; Billing and Alvesson, 1994). Thus, the in depth interviews allowed the researcher to explore a variety of issues that were relevant to the research questions of the study. In order to explore how the leaders perceived their leadership style, there was a discussion on what constitutes leadership, what they considered effective and non-effective leadership, and they were also asked whether they implement transformational and/or transactional leadership behaviours as those behaviours described in the MLQ. In service organisations it is generally important to assess the attitudes of employees, customers and managers, qualitative research provides an effective way to do this (Johns and Lee-Ross, 1993) therefore, the objective was to study manager's opinions, emotions and feelings, to understand how they make sense of leadership and transformational/transactional leadership within the context of their particular work environment, how they reacted to and managed the impact of leadership on them and how leaders, in turn, reacted to behaviours, emotions and attitudes of organisational subordinates. Additionally, questions were focused on what female managers and male managers perceive as qualities and behaviours of leadership; their perceptions of gender as a variable with regard to supervisory relationships; their perceptions and personal experiences with regard to open-ended questions on the subject of women and men in management. Respondents among others were asked to indicate their past experiences both with male and with female supervisors and gender preferences with regard to supervisory relationships. Evidently, male managers were also interviewed to ensure that no potentially significant items were omitted. The semi-structured interviews were chosen in order

to avoid the rigidness of the structured interviews and the informality of the unstructured interview. Furthermore, the aim of the interviews was to explore the topic in depth, and explain the findings of the answers. Questions were put in any pre-established order and the selection of questions was governed instead by the actual situation as it has been recommended by Gummesson (2000). Semi-structured interviews (sometimes referred to as focused interviews) involve a series of open ended questions based on the topic areas the researcher wants to cover (Saunders *et al.*, 2003; Collis and Hussey, 2003), therefore, the researcher ensured that all the topics were discussed, not necessarily following the order provided to the interviewees. The participant managers were involved in an informal style conversation, as the interview schedule was not tight. Careful planning was done for that purpose, in order to overcome any potential issues. Cassell *et al.* (2005) claim that the validity an the reliability of the interviews has been questioned, thus the researcher developed abilities and plans, such as an interview protocol, in order to use the appropriate techniques necessary for this methods with a purpose to explore the leaders' behaviour and perception of leadership.

In a semi-structured interview the interviewer also has the freedom to probe the interviewee to elaborate on the original response or to follow a line of inquiry introduced by the interviewee (Bryman and Bell, 2003). Thus, the researcher did not necessarily follow the same order with all interviewees. She let people describe their work experiences, this would provide some access to gender dynamics that are otherwise hidden from view. She also led the discussions, especially in those few cases when the interviewees started discussing some other issues that were not relevant to the study, which required specific skills from the researcher in order to handle this properly and effectively (Bryman and Bell, 2003).

In this kind of qualitative work, it is important to consider the impact the researcher has on the research process (Bryman, 2006a). Qualitative researchers have to be able to maintain distance between themselves and the phenomena under investigation and to draw upon practical and theoretical knowledge to interpret what they see (Johns and Lee-Ross, 1993). The researcher is female, and it is interesting to consider how

the participants responded to her as a relatively young woman. A general observation by the researcher was that men treated her with caution in the beginning but after the conversations started they felt free to discuss the topics with her. The women treated her as a peer, and discussed any issues concerned them from private, family matters, how they were treated when they were promoted to managers and other issues. Nevertheless, it would be interesting to investigate how the interviewees would have responded differently to a male interviewer.

By asking questions and conducting interviews, a researcher brings issues to the fore that may not otherwise have been the case. As previously acknowledged, the whole issue of gender is generally neglected; yet, when openly researching it as a topic over a period of seven months in a relatively small number of organisations, the issue inevitably becomes heightened in people's minds. Additionally, the researcher learned to communicate clearly and effectively with informants and used language in different ways, ascribing different meanings to common words and phrases (Johns and Lee-Ross, 1993).

Furthermore, semi-structured interviews tend to work well when the interviewer has already identified a number of aspects he wants to be sure of addressing, which in this research project were guided by the research questions. In addition, the literature and the survey questionnaire provided some information on aspects of transformational/transactional leadership, as well as gender issues that could be further elaborated with the interviews. This can be particularly important if a limited time is available for each interview and the interviewer wants to be sure that the "key issues" will be covered. Even though the majority of the interviewees had agreed to allow 30 to 45 minutes for the interview, they offered the researcher more time. They seemed to find the discussion very interesting and they only stopped when they realised they had to go back to work. Moreover, semi-structured interviews should not be seen as a soft option requiring little forethought (Bryman and Bell, 2003). Good quality qualitative interviews are the result of rigorous preparation. The development of the interview schedule, conducting the interview and analysing the

interview data required careful consideration and preparation. The researcher considered the participants' availability and she did not hesitate to allow more time (a whole year) for the fieldwork, even though she had initially planned the process to last about 7 months. A digital tape recorder has been used which had a counter facility that can be useful when analysing the taped data. Qualitative researchers are interested not only in what people say but also in the way they say it. A tape recorder has been used and none of the interviewees refused its use. The use of the tape recorder helps to correct the natural limitations of the memories, it allows thorough examination of what people say and it opens up the data to public scrutiny by other researchers, who can evaluate the analysis that is carried out. It is however, time and money consuming since good quality of equipment is necessary to be used (Bryman and Bell, 2003; Saunders *et al.*, 2003).

In the study of gender in organisations, it is imperative that study participants who have work experience are used, to obtain more accurate and generalisable results (Cooper and Bosco, 1999:490). The researcher conducted interviews with 15 male and 15 female managers who were also asked to complete the questionnaire and indicated a willingness to participate in an interview. The number was chosen based on research on the existing number of female general managers in 5* hotels in Greece. Unfortunately, there is no official record to provide these data, therefore the researcher relied on data obtained from the organisation "Women in tourism in Greece" (www.womenintourism.gr). Even though a small sample is used, more time was spent on data gathering. Each interview lasted between thirty minutes and two hours and was tape-recorded. The research took place over a period of eleven months (End of April 2007– End of November 2008). Due to the seasonality of tourism in Greece people were not available at any time. It was very difficult to arrange the appointments not only because the managers were busy but also because the researcher has a full time job. Service organisations like hotels, are labour intensive, with personnel interacting with customers most of the time. In fact, many times the interviews were interrupted either by phone calls or people who came and asked the interviewees questions relevant to work.

Consequently, it is being suggested here that apart from a quantitative approach, a qualitative approach to the study of leadership may be fruitful, not simply because it takes the actor's viewpoint as a central focus, but because, in so doing, it may bring to the surface issues and topics which are important yet which are omitted by relying on the researcher and the source of what is relevant.

5.7 DATA ANALYSIS AND RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY ISSUES

The techniques that should be used to analyse data are matched to the research aim and objectives. The quantitative data collected for this thesis has been tabulated and analysed with the use of SPSS 17. The researcher did some analysis on the first part that includes information on the demographics of the sample. These data are discussed in relation to the research questions. The rest of the data have been analysed performing one sample t-tests, independent sample t-tests and Linear Regression Analysis.

According to Johnson *et al.* (2007) the most important issue in mixed research is the validity and the trustworthiness, and the most prominent criteria in business and management research are reliability, credibility and replication (Bryman and Bell, 2003). Reliability is concerned with the question as to whether the results of a study are repeatable. The quantitative researcher is likely to be concerned with the question whether a measure is stable or not. They are also concerned with whether the findings may be replicated. In order to assess the reliability of a measure of a concept, the procedures that constitute that measure must be replicable by someone else. For testing the reliability of the findings Cronbach's alpha test was done which varies between 1 (denoting perfect internal reliability) and 0 (denoting no internal reliability) (Bryman and Bell, 2003:77) assuming that the data is reliable.

The qualitative data has been analysed using thematic analysis. According to Rice and Ezzy (1999:258) thematic analysis is "the process that involves the identification of themes through careful reading and re-reading of the data". In fact, the researcher heard the digital recordings and read the transcriptions many times in order to

identify any patterns of data, thus she identify the three emerging themes that are analysed in details in chapter 6. She organized well the encoding of the data in order to identify the emerging themes that interpret aspects of the phenomenon under study (Boyatzis, 1998). The research design, the research objectives and the literature review helped the researcher to prepare a template to organize the emerging themes (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006) and to analyse them.

The qualitative approach displays a devotion to participants' perspectives and that brings to the problem of interpretation. Quality researchers have to be sensitive to this issue since there is the criticism of how the qualitative researchers can evaluate the validity of their interpretations of those perspectives (Bryman, 1996). Researchers who employ experimental designs are preoccupied with problems of generalisation too. This topic is often referred to as the problem of external validity, which denotes the extent to which findings can be generalised beyond the experiment (Campbell, 1957 cited in Bryman, 1996). A solution recommended by Bryman (1996) is to study more than one case, and to seek the case that is typical of a certain cluster of characteristics (Woods, 1979 cited in Bryman 1996). In order to face this issue this research project explored a variety of hotels that belong to the same category and they all entail the same cluster of characteristics as it has been further explained in the sampling paragraph within this chapter. Besides that the aim of employing this approach was merely to deepen and enhance the findings of the survey and not to generalise from the findings of the semi-structured interviews. The main task of this thesis is to explain what is going on in the particular research setting that is the Greek hospitality industry.

Validity is concerned with whether the findings are really about what they appear to be about (Saunders *et al.*, 2003; Bryman and Bell, 2003). Despite differences in usage, most researchers agree that validity is an important attribute of well-conducted research. Validity in social research includes reliability, objectivity, truth, value and rigour (Thomas, 2006). He continues that challenges to quantitative research and what were perceived as inappropriate positivistic research methods saw a substantial growth in alternative approaches. The validity problem in quantitative

research focuses on the measurement issues with unresolved epistemological and methodological ambiguities (Bryman and Bell, 2003). Additionally, in qualitative research the work of Guba and Lincoln (1985) has been particularly influential, they have championed the idea that distinct criteria of validity apply to qualitative research (Thomas, 2006:135). They have identified four issues, truth, value, applicability, consistency and neutrality. Qualitative researchers have accepted the terms of validity as prescribed by quantitative researchers but have devised alternative meanings. In both however, the distribution of responsibility for making validity claims seems to have shifted from researchers to users. According to Cho and Trent (2006:320) "validity in qualitative research involves determining the degree to which researchers' claims about knowledge correspond to the reality being studied". In view to the above, the researcher has used triangulation for greater validity (Bryman, 2006a; Denzin, 1989). The techniques are used as a medium to ensure a reflection of reality (Cho and Trent, 2006). The qualitative data is used to enhance and exemplify the patterns of leadership behaviour – style that is identified via the questionnaire.

The data analysis is well illustrated in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10: <u>Procedures for data analysis</u>

Category	Task	Details
Data collection	Survey and semi-structured interviews	Used women and men managers and network, phone calls to arrange meetings. Interviews were arranged and distributed the questionnaire
Data loading	SPSS 17	
Data analysis	Descriptive statistics	Mean and standard deviation, percentage distribution for demographic characteristics Most exhibited leadership style is tested
	Independent sample t tests	Male and female managers perceptions of leadership, differences
	One sample t tests	Staff evaluations of leadership

	Regression analysis	Managers and staff correlations of outcomes of leadership with dimensions of leadership Most effective leadership style exhibited
		and differences with managers' self-ratings

At this point it should be noted that the researcher performed a variety of analysis in order to meet this thesis objectives. The quantitative data was statistically tested with SPSS. Means and standard deviation were performed in order to explore the demographics and the most exhibited leadership style. Independent t tests to identify the perceptions of leadership by male and female leaders as well as the differences that might exist between their perceptions. One sample t tests were conducted to explore the staff evaluations of leadership and any potential differences with managers' self-ratings. Finally, regression analysis was performed in order to identify the most exhibited leadership style. Additionally, the qualitative data was transcribed and coded. Thematic analysis was performed and a limited number of themes were identified that reflected the textual data. As the researcher conducted the interviews herself and she transcribed them she was familiarized with the data. Small chunks of data were collected together and codings were done, having in mind the literature, the thesis objectives and the quantitative data. The text was read twice in order to examine it closely and ensure that the sort items-themes were appropriate to the study. Each theme was finally defined and supported with relevant data from the interviews.

5.8 METHODOLOGICAL LIMITATIONS

This study used the mixed method approach in order to answer the research questions. There are implications in using the mixed method approach as it has been argued in the beginning of this chapter. However, the ongoing debate that exists in literature on whether female and male managers differ in their leadership styles has created an interest to the researcher to explore this issue in depth. The positivistic perspective suggests that reality exists in an objective way, not influenced by the

individual's consciousness (Girod-Seville and Perret, 2001). This philosophy influenced the research design as the researcher used a survey questionnaire (MLQ) to investigate the gender influences on transformational leadership. The researcher aimed at being as objective as possible, however, the sample for the survey has been chosen at the researcher's convenience. In addition, this instrument measures how people evaluate leaders in the study settings. However whether the setting has influenced the results is not tested. For example, the researcher wonders whether the results would be different if the sample of hotels was different or the type of hotels i.e. what if they were 4*. Moreover, Avolio and Gibbons (1988) note that while much of prior research on the construct of transformational leadership has been conducted with top organisational leaders the MLQ is the only instrument widely used that attempts to assess transformational leadership in a quantitative way across organisational levels.

The interpetivistic philosophy has also impacted on the study as reality is based on the experience of the participants (Lincoln and Guba, 2003). Under this philosophy knowledge is socially constructed thus, the semi-structured interviews were used to study the phenomenon as it is perceived by the participants themselves. However, in this case the researcher should have some common grounds with the participants (Silverman, 2000), and decided how will report the 'story' (Stake, 1995). Therefore, there are considerations to be made in order to avoid the researcher's bias. It is possible that the researcher has omitted information that is available, as she may have discussed some issues from the interviews while ignoring others. The meanings are consensus formed, they are produced with an ongoing basis that may change from time to time (Giddens, 2001). This part of the research was influenced by the researcher's background as she has her own views on the context of the study. She was employed in the hospitality industry for many years, thus she has conveniently used her network to establish contacts for the study. Furthermore, she was influenced by her gender as in the beginning she strongly believed and supported the view that there are differences in the leadership styles implemented by men and women. In fact, she believed that women lead differently, and more effectively and they have a 'female voice', in support of other studies (Gilligan, 1982; Carless, 1998; Helgesen,

1990; Loden, 1985; Yammarino *et al.*, 1997). This belief may have influenced the study in its initial stage, though in a later stage she recognised that her own beliefs and interest influenced the subject study and the writing of the thesis. She strived to remain impartial and objective when designing, conducting and interpreting the data, but some element of bias in qualitative research is inevitable.

Further, some other limitations of the study are relevant to the sample. The sample is focused on 5* hotels as their structure offered the basis to find women general managers. In addition, the samples represented a variety of individuals from different organisations and thus external validity was enhanced. These participants were selected by the managers of the study, therefore, the researcher had limited control on their profiles. The practicality of obtaining access to willing participants is another limitation. Silvestri (2003) explored the potential problematic nature of doing research with people in power, and she states that power relations may be created between the researcher and the research subject causing problems that prevent the interviewer from gathering rich data. This power relation may be exacerbated or reduced due to the researcher's personal status. For this thesis, the rsearcher attempted to minimise the impact of power by highlighting her role and remaining focused on listening to the research subjects' experiences. Similarly, an assumption could be drawn that the women who volunteered to participate in this study have done so because they have a particular interest in the progression of women in management. These women, as well as the men in the study, may have their own bias regarding the research and they perceive their social world differently, perhaps differently than those who did not participate in the study.

Finally, some more practical limitations refer to the fact that the researcher has chosen specific areas to study, while other regions are omitted, for example the Ionian islands. As the sample has been conveniently chosen, by no means does the researcher intend that the results can generalise to the entire hospitality sector in the country. It can however, provide a solid picture of how things look in the sector, and provide the basis for a larger study with the use of larger random sample.

5.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented the methodology and the philosophical issues that influence this research project. The researcher had in mind the purpose of this study as well as the objectives, thus she designed her research carefully considering all the main points such as the participants' availability and the most effective tools to gather data for reliable and valid findings. The adopted tools are justified since the researcher aimed at gathering data that may provide insights on gender influences on transformational leadership and on the most effective leadership style in the context of the hotel sector in Greece, and to investigate whether gender matters in leadership issues. Therefore, a mixed method approach was chosen for this research and a survey questionnaire (for managers and their followers) and semi-structured interviews were conducted with 30 managers in 5* hotels that operate in Greece. The limitations and the challenges of the chosen methodology are addressed in the chapter and a justification has been provided on the choices made and the research design adopted in the study. The analysis of the data and the findings are presented in the following chapters.

CHAPTER SIX: RESEARCH FINDINGS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the analysis of the data collected with the use of the MLQ in the Greek 5* hotel sector as well as the findings from the semi-structured interviews conducted with 30 managers. The hotels that have been chosen for the study are presented in Appendix C, and are in total 24. The sample (n=651) consists of 15 male and 15 female managers and their staff. The managers are those who have been evaluated by their staff in their transformational and transactional leadership behaviour as well as on their satisfaction from the managers' leadership behaviour. Staff members have evaluated the managers on their effectiveness and the extra effort they show based on the managers' more exhibited leadership style, as well as their satisfaction from leadership style leader exhibits.

In the MLQ, *Transformational leadership* (or 5Is) is measured of 5 main attributes, Idealised Attributes, Idealised Behaviours, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation and Individualised Consideration. *Transactional leadership* is measured of the use of Contingent Reward, Management by exception active and passive, and finally the *Non-transactional* leadership in terms of the laissez faire style (see Chapter 5 for details). The respondents indicated how frequently leader demonstrated a leadership behaviour as it is described in the questionnaire. The choices were proposed on a 5 items Likert scale, 1= Not all, 2= Once in a while, 3= Sometimes, 4= Frequently, 5=Fairly often.

The author conducted several tests of significance to examine the research questions of the thesis. It was not necessary to do factor analysis and check if the factors load similarly in this study, as the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) has been used in its original form in English. Its validity and reliability in this form have been confirmed many times by other studies (Antonakis *et al.*, 2003; Avolio *et al.*, 1999). Additionally, the questionnaire has not been translated into Greek because all the

participants in the study were found to have a good, satisfactory level in writing and reading in English.

Prior to performing data analysis, data were screened for normal distribution and skewness results for all leadership dimensions. Cronbach's Alphas ranged as follows in the samples. Transformational leadership and the five items are Idealised Attributes (IA) .837, Idealised Behaviour (IB) .783, Inspirational Motivation (IM) .801, Intellectual Stimulation (IS) .891, Individualised Consideration (IC) .812. Transactional leadership Contingent Reward (CR) .781, Management by exception (active) (MEA) .721, Management be exception (passive) (MEP) .804, and Laissez-faire (LF) .871. They indicated that data was normally distributed. These Cronbach's Alphas are higher than 0.7 and can be considered satisfactory and confirm the reliability of the instrument. For all the statistical tests an alpha level of .05 has been used.

Qualitative data came from interviews with 15 male and 15 female managers in hotels. The interviews were semi-structured in line with what is called conversation with a purpose. The purpose of the interviews was to study manager's opinions, emotions and feelings regarding leadership and more specifically transformational leadership, to understand how they make sense of this leadership style within the context of their particular work environment, how they reacted to and managed the impact of leadership on them and how leaders, in turn, reacted to behaviours, emotions and attitudes of organisational subordinates. In addition, the interviews were conducted in order to explore any other leadership characteristics that leaders value highly in the context of the study, as well as to explore any differences they potentially exhibited with their staff or between male and female managers. A list of questions and general themes (See Appendix A) were prepared to allow flexibility to the discussions.

At the process of interviews transcription, thematic similarities of the data began to emerge, lending them to analysis according to career-related issues. Therefore, thematic analysis was performed to the 30 semi-structured interviews conducted with

female and male managers in order to answer research question 1. Thematic analysis is used to analyse words or concepts in texts, in order to quantify and analyse the meanings of these words and make inferences about the messages in the text (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Bryman and Bell, 2003). The interviews were transcribed and although Stemler (2001) claims that there might be some challenges in using simple word frequency counts to make inferences, themes are developed not only from those that were more frequently discussed, but also based upon the relevant theory discussed in the literature review.

The themes that emerged as dominant in the discussions with the participants were:
- ⚞ The glass ceiling issues in management in the context of the Greek hospitality industry;
- ⚞ Effective leadership factors and poor leadership factors and behaviours.

6.2 LEADERSHIP STYLE PERCEPTIONS – LEADERS SELF-RATINGS AND STAFF EVALUATIONS

One purpose of this study is to assess whether the self-reported leadership styles of male managers differ from those of female managers. Therefore, independent sample t tests have been done and the results are shown in Table 6.1 and Table 6.2. Table 6.2 shows the means, standard deviations, and mean differences of female and male rating regarding all the dimensions of leadership.

Table 6.1: Female and male managers (self-rating) independent samples t tests

Leadership Dimensions	Mean n=30	SD	Male n=15 Female n=15	Mean	SD	Mean difference
Transformational						
IA	3,7	.70	Male Female	3,67 3,73	.65 .77	-.243
IB	7,26	.65	Male Female	7,14 7,38	.68 .62	-.052

IM	3,56	.68	Male Female	3,37 3,75	.60 .72	-.377
IS	3,52	.70	Male Female	3,36 3,69	.62 .76	-.323
IC	3,62	.67	Male Female	3,38 3,85	.52 .73	-.466
Transactional						
CR	3,61	1,12	Male Female	3,25 3,97	.66 1,38	-.726
MEA	3,79	2,31	Male Female	3,72 3,88	.80 .97	-.158
MEP	2,31	.90	Male Female	2,35 2,26	.69 1,09	.090
Non-leadership						
LF	1,85	.85	Male Female	2,13 1,56	.99 .57	.566
Outcomes of leadership						
Extra effort	3,67	.65	Male Female	3,73 3,62	.49 .79	.111
Effectiveness	3,83	.57	Male Female	3,70 4,083	.61 .46	-.378
Satisfaction	3,81	.73	Male Female	3,73 3,89	.62 .85	-.159
All leadership dimensions	3,68	.43	Male Female	3,63 3,72	.37 .49	-.092
All outcomes of leadership	3,78	.47	Male Female	3,71 3,92	.49 .44	-.202

Note: SD: Standard deviation, IA: Idealised Attributes, IB: Idealised Behaviours, IM: Inspirational Motivation, IS: Intellectual Stimulation, IC: Individualised Consideration, CR: Contingent Reward, MEA: Management by exception (active), MEP: Management by exception (passive), LF: Laissez-faire. *: indicates significance level 0.05

The data showed that that the lowest mean among the whole sample (n=30) was for Laissez-faire (1.85) with a standard deviation (.85), Management by exception (passive) (2.31) with a standard deviation (.90) among transactional leadership dimensions, and Intellectual Stimulation (3.52) with a standard deviation (.70) among transformational leadership dimensions. Whereas the highest mean is Idealised Behaviours (7.26) with a standard deviation (.65). The results are similar when checking the data separately for male and female leaders. Interestingly,

however, female managers rated themselves effective (4,083) more than male managers (3,70).

Comparisons of means through independent samples t-test were utilized to examine whether there were significant differences between female and male leaders' behaviours depending on their self-rating. Table 6.2 shows the results.

Table 6.2: <u>Results of Independent samples t test of leaders' self-rating</u>

	Lavene's test of Equality of variances		T test for Equality of Means		
Leadership Dimensions	**F**	**Sig.**	**t**	**df**	**Sig.**
Transformational					
IA Equal Variances assumed	0,23	.880	-.943	24	.355
IB Equal Variances assumed	1,09	.306	-.196	26	.846
IM Equal Variances assumed	0,95	.339	-1,55	28	.133
IS Equal Variances assumed	0,98	.333	-1,2	25	.241
IC Equal Variances assumed	2,01	.167	-1.996*	28	.056
Transactional					
CR Equal Variances assumed	.997	.327	-1,77	26	.088
MEA Equal Variances assumed	1,02	.322	-.479	27	.636
MEP Equal Variances assumed	1,36	.254	.264	27	.794
Non-leadership					
LF Equal Variances assumed	4,96*	.034	1,91	28	.067
Outcomes of leadership					
Extra effort Equal Variances assumed	2,58	.119	.460	28	.649
Effectiveness Equal Variances assumed	.258	.619	-1,32	15	.207
Satisfaction Equal Variances assumed	.547	.466	-.575	27	.570
All leadership dimensions Equal Variances assumed	2,45	.135	-.471	18	.643
All outcomes of leadership Equal Variances assumed	.010	.924	-.787	14	.445

The data showed that there was a significant difference between female and male leaders' behaviours only on Individualised Consideration, where male leaders scored slightly higher on that dimension. No significant differences were shown between female and male leaders in their self-rating on all dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership and non-leadership styles. However, they differed in the non-leadership laissez-faire, where male leaders scored significantly higher than female leaders on that dimension. Additionally, there was no significant difference between the self-ratings on all the outcomes of leadership of female and male managers in the study.

Although, there were significant differences between female and male leaders' behaviours, Individualised Consideration and Laissez-faire, *the results did not support gender differences* in the overall transformational and leadership behaviours of leaders' self-ratings, since the calculated t value for all dimensions (-.471) was smaller than the tabulated t value, and at the same time the t significance value (.643) which was bigger that the significance level of the study (.05).

In order to examine Research question 2 "Do leaders in the study differ in their perception of their leadership style from their followers' evaluations?", the author looked at the degree to which men and women leaders' perceptions of their own leadership behaviours coincided with those of their subordinates, peers and superiors. For this purpose leaders were associated with the group members that evaluated them and *one sample t tests* were conducted to check the significance of the difference between the mean of leaders and staff in each leadership dimension. The results are shown in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3: <u>Staff for male and female managers one sample t tests</u>

Leadership dimensions	For 15 Male n=330	SD	t	df	Sig.	For 15 Female n=291	SD	t	df	Sig.
Transformational										
IA	3,75	.797	1,72	329	.086	3,92	.632	4,72	260	.000*
IB	7,29	.621	4,4	328	.000*	7,23	.623	-3986	270	.000*
IM	3,68	.704	7,67	326	.000*	3,74	.818	-.404	287	.687
IS	3,68	.851	6,42	306	.000*	3,77	.848	1,51	263	.132
IC	3,64	.775	5,95	326	.000*	3,8	.893	-1,1	274	.273
Transactional										
CR	3,44	.751	4,43	310	000*	3,44	1,1	-7,99	277	.000*
MEA	3,71	.854	-.237	324	.813	3,84	1,34	-.552	263	.582
MEP	2,6	.863	5,16	324	.000*	2,41	.977	2,44	283	.016*
Non-leadership										
LF	1,94	.891	-3,83	328	.000*	1,63	.845	1,3	287	.195
Outcomes of leadership										
Extra effort	3,71	.793	-.613	328	.540	3,59	.857	-.582	287	.561
Effectiveness	3,91	.848	2,84	133	.005*	3,98	.837	-1,55	154	.124
Satisfaction	3,86	.927	2,52	323	.012*	3,99	.956	1,73	287	.084
All leadership dimensions	3,81	.410	7,32	280	.000*	3,7	.532	-.793	201	.429
All outcomes of leadership	3,85	.801	1,87	128	.063	3,77	.656	-2,87	154	.005*

Note: IA: Idealised Attributes, IB: Idealised Behaviours, IM: Inspirational Motivation, IS: Intellectual Stimulation, IC: Individualised Consideration, CR: Contingent Reward, MEA: Management by exception (active), MEP: Management by exception (passive), LF: Laissez-faire. *: indicates significance level 0.05

At this stage, the researcher compared the mean of staff to the mean of the leaders' self-ratings. The data showed that when leaders (male separately from female) are examined in groups, their perceptions of leadership differed from the evaluations of their staff. More specifically, male leaders differed from their staff significantly in their evaluation of four dimensions of transformational leadership, Idealised Behaviours, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualised Consideration. They also differed in two dimensions of transactional leadership,

Contingent Reward and Management by exception (passive). Similarly, significant difference was found to Laissez-faire, and two outcomes of leadership, Effectiveness and Satisfaction. Overall, there were significant differences between male leaders and their staff.

On the other hand, the data showed that female leaders differed in their self-ratings with their staff in two transformational leadership dimensions, Idealised Behaviours, and Idealised Attributes. Significant differences were found in two-transactional leadership, Contingent Reward and Management by exception (passive). However, the differences in the overall outcomes of leadership dimensions were found to be significant.

The means showed that staff evaluated male managers highly in transformational dimensions Idealised Behaviours (7,29) with standard deviation (.621), in Transactional dimensions Contingent Reward (3,44) with standard deviation (.751), and they found them effective (3,91). Female managers were highly evaluated on Idealised behaviours as well (7,23) with standard deviation (.623) and Management by exception (passive) (3,84), whereas they were found to be satisfied with their leadership (3,99). Both male and female managers scored low in Laissez-faire (male 1,94 / female 1,63). Interestingly, the higher scores were found within transformational leadership dimensions for male and female managers.

Independent sample t-tests revealed no significant differences between male and female managers on their self-rating of the MLQ scales on total scores. Female managers scored higher in almost all leadership dimensions, however, both male and female managers in their self-ratings exhibit similar leadership. However, one sample t tests showed that there was a difference on the perceptions of leadership when looking at leaders' self-ratings against at looking at leaders with their group.

6.3 LEADERSHIP STYLES AND OUTCOMES OF LEADERSHIP-EFFECTIVENESS AND GENDER

The literature suggests that there are several individual factors identified that may correlate with the study of leadership. However, for this study the main interest is gender and it has been included in the study in order to find any significant predictors of employee satisfaction and commitment, as these were identified in research questions 4 and 5. The author performed *simple linear regression analysis* to examine these research questions on gender influences on transformational and transactional leadership styles and how they influence the outcomes of leadership. Simple linear regression estimates how one dependent variable (i.e. Satisfaction, extra effort, effectiveness) changes when a predictor changes (dimensions of leadership). The existing literature has been used to construct a structural relationship between the two variables. The dependent variables are chosen from the MLQ and are presented as Outcomes of leadership, thus the dependent variables are *satisfaction*, *effectiveness* and *extra effort*. Then the independent are all the five Is of transformational leadership, the three variables for transactional leadership and finally the non transactional leadership. In regression analysis the most important indicators are R, which is the correlation between the observed and predicted values of the dependent variable and should be close to either -1 or 1 to have high correlation. The R^2 that explains how much of the variability of the model is attributed to the variation of independent variable and should be higher than .250 (i.e. = 25% of the variability in the deviation). Further, the significance level of the F ratio shows that model fit. Finally, the B coefficients show how strongly the independent variable is associated with the dependent (i.e. the higher the B the greater the rate of change in the dependent variable for every unit of change in the independent variable). If the B is negative (-) then the change in the dependent variable is negative. The opposite is true if it is positive (+). Furthermore, if the B is significantly different from zero ($p<0.05$) then the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable is significant.

6.3.1 Female managers self evaluations

The author checked firstly female managers to investigate the relationship between the outcomes of leadership, satisfaction, effectiveness and extra effort with each attribute of their transformational, transactional or non transactional leadership style. female managers were separated from the data set to perform the analysis and test how they view their leadership style. Table 6.4 presents descriptive statistics and correlations for the variable in the model.

Table 6.4: <u>Female managers self evaluations – regression analysis</u>

N = 15	Independent variables	Dependent variables		
		Satisfaction	Effectiveness	Extra Effort
		B	B	B
5Is Transformational	Constant	-.885	2,5	-2,7
	t	-.339	2,18	-1,14
	IB	.216	.231	.671
	t	.467	1,14	1,61
	IA	-.016	-.268	.192
	t	-.036	-1,43	.495
	IM	.481	-.123	.570
	t	1,06	-.618	1,39
	IS	-.066	.186	-.395
	t	-.151	.964	-.992
	IC	.437	.170	-.008
	t	1,33	1,18	-.027
	R^2	.592	.309	.640
	Adjusted R^2	.366	-.075	.440
	F	2,61	.805	3,2
	R	.770	.556	.800
Transactional	Constant	1,37	4,33	0,84
	t	1,15	10,054*	0,61
	CR	.156	.025	.273
	t	1,16	.512	1,76
	MEA	.570	.010	.376
	t	2,769*	.137	1,57

	MEP	-.136	-.172	.105
	t	-.759	-2,648*	.507
	R^2	.529	.451	.314
	Adjusted R^2	.401	.301	.127
	F	4,12	3,01	1,68
	R	.727	.672	.560
Non transactional	Constant	4,96	4,24	4,22
	t	8,516*	19,506*	6,914*
	LF	-.681	-.101	-.384
	t	-1945	-.775	-1,05
	R^2	.225	.044	.078
	Adjusted R^2	.166	-.029	.007
	F	3,78	.601	1,09
	R	.475	.210	.279

Note: IB: Idealised behaviour; IA: Idealised attributes; IM: Inspirational motivation; IS: Intellectual stimulation; IC: Individualised consideration; CR: Contingent reward; MEA: Management by exception (active); MEP: Management by exception (passive); LF: Laissez-faire. The t-statistics are presented with * and indicate significance level 0.05

The *dependent variable satisfaction* was regressed on all three leadership styles dimensions. The data showed that the value of the B of the coefficients are very low and were not significant for any of the predictors, therefore, satisfaction did not increase with transformational leadership behaviours. Similarly, satisfaction was not significantly related to non-transformational leadership. However, female leaders significantly related their Management by exception (active) with their satisfaction. The R^2 of .529 indicated that 52.9 per cent of the observed variability in the dependent variable satisfaction was explained by this dimension of transformational leadership. Further evaluation of the Beta coefficients indicated that there was significant negative relation of *effectiveness* to Management be exception (passive) for female leaders. Effectiveness decreased by 3 per cent when this style increased. Finally, *extra effort* was found to negatively decrease (by 1 per cent) when Laissez-faire increased, however the data showed that this relation was not significant.

6.3.2 Staff evaluations for female managers

Moreover, the author checked staff evaluations of female leaders' leadership styles of the MLQ as one group. At this point the author tested the relationship of the outcomes of leadership of all female leaders with the three leadership style behaviours. The results are shown in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5: <u>Staff evaluations of female leaders-regression analysis</u>

N = 291	Independent variables	Dependent variables		
		Satisfaction	**Effectiveness**	**Extra Effort**
		B	**B**	**B**
5Is Transformational	Constant	.150	2,29	-.714
	t	.323	5,94*	-1,39
	IB	.012	-.061	.365
	t	.159	-.941	4,217*
	IA	.063	.273	-.012
	t	.804	4,038*	-.128
	IM	.470	.323	.238
	t	6,5*	5,374*	2,968*
	IS	.076	-.200	-.066
	t	.921	-2,911*	-.716
	IC	.383	.160	.283
	t	5,39*	2,710*	3,589*
	R^2	.577	.289	.353
	Adjusted R^2	.570	.276	.342
	F	77,06	22,94	30,78
	R	.760	.538	.594
Transactional	Constant	3,18	4,06	2,21
	t	15,262*	27,156*	11,478*
	CR	.307	.097	.309
	t	5,744*	2,528*	6,248*
	MEA	.112	-.008	.073
	t	2,505*	-.241	1,77
	MEP	-.283	-.159	.015
	t	-5,581*	-4,391*	.314

	R^2	.262	.079	.214
	Adjusted R^2	.254	.070	.206
	F	33,97	8,26	26,12
	R	.512	.282	.463
Non transactional	Constant	4,82	4,5	3,75
	t	44,025*	63,496*	34,222*
	LF	-.511	-.318	-.096
	t	-8,563*	-8,245*	-1,61
	R^2	.204	.192	.009
	Adjusted R^2	.201	.189	.006
	F	73,32	67,97	2,59
	R	.452	.438	.095

Note: IB: Idealised behaviour; IA: Idealised attributes; IM: Inspirational motivation; IS: Intellectual stimulation; IC: Individualised consideration; CR: Contingent reward; MEA: Management by exception (active); MEP: Management by exception (passive); LF: Laissez-faire. The t-statistics are presented with * and indicate significance level 0.05

When simple linear regression was performed to check how all staff members view female leaders in the study, the results were different. The *dependent variable satisfaction* was related to all three leadership style behaviours. More specifically there was significant positive relation of staff satisfaction to Inspirational Motivation, Individualised Consideration among transformational leadership dimensions. The R^2 result of .577 indicated that 57,7 per cent of the observed variability in the dependent variable satisfaction was explained by the independent variables, the two components of transformational leadership model. Satisfaction also significantly correlated with all three dimensions of Transactional leadership. The R^2 result of .262 indicated that 26,2 per cent of the observed variability in the dependent variable satisfaction was explained by the independent variables Contingent Reward and Management be exception (active) of transactional leadership model. Management by exception (passive) and Laissez-faire significantly but negatively correlated with satisfaction, so when these dimensions increased, staff satisfaction decreased.

The *dependent variable effectiveness* was found to significantly fit with all three leadership styles. More specifically, effectiveness was positively and significantly related to Idealized Attributes, Inspirational Motivation, and Individualized

Consideration, whereas it is negatively associated with intellectual stimulation. The R^2 result of .289 indicated that 28,9 per cent of the observed variability in the dependent variable effectiveness was explained by the independent variables, the components of transformational leadership model. Except that when Intellectual Stimulation increased effectiveness decreased. Effectiveness also fitted well with transactional leadership behaviours, the dependent variable cor*related* positively and significantly with Contingent Reward, but it correlated negatively and significantly with Management by Exception (passive). Finally, there was significant negative relationship of efficiency with laissez faire leadership behaviour. The R^2 result of .353 indicated that 35,3 per cent of the observed variability in the dependent variable extra effort was explained by the independent variables of transformational leadership model. Extra effort was also found to positively significantly correlate with Contingent Reward.

Table 6.6 shows a summary of the regression analysis of female leaders and their staff.

Table 6.6: <u>Female managers regression analysis</u>

		IA	IB	IM	IS	IC	CR	MEA	MEP	LF
Female leaders Self-ratings	Satisfaction							√		
	Effectiveness								√ (-)	
	Extra Effort									
Staff for female leaders	Satisfaction			√		√	√	√	√ (-)	√(-)
	Effectiveness	√		√	√(-)	√	√		√(-)	√(-)
	Extra Effort		√	√		√	√			

√ when p<0.05   √(-) when p<0.05 but the correlation is negative

On the one hand, it is evident that female managers in the study believe that if they use the Management by exception (active) they will be satisfied, thus they believe they should fight fires when it is necessary. Additionally, they believe that if they exhibit management by exception (passive) they will not be effective. On the other hand, staff are satisfied, when female leaders in the study exhibit behaviours of inspirational motivation, individualised consideration, contingent reward,

management by exception (active), thus female leaders should be challenging but optimistic and envisage the future. They should grasp the attention of staff with inspiration. They should know staff capabilities and understand when further development is required, thus they will collaborate well and together will design appropriate strategies to satisfy and elevate their motivation. Finally, staff needs their female leaders to clarify the goals and the expectations they have, in a participative way though. However, they want female leaders to see the mistakes and take actions. If female leaders exhibit individualized attributes, then staff will trust them and then they will be considered more efficient. staff does not appreciate however, management by exception (passive), laissez faire, and individualized consideration, because with these staff neither will be satisfied nor will find leaders efficient. Thus, staff wants female leaders to take action whenever it is necessary and not search for mistakes but propose ways to solve problems in order to be considered efficient. staff will put extra effort when female leaders show behaviours of idealized behaviour, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration and contingent reward, mainly attributes of transformational leadership.

6.3.3 Male managers self evaluation

Following, the author similarly performed simple linear regression analysis firstly among male leaders, and then of all staff in the sample for male leaders only. The results are shown and discussed in the following. Male managers in their self-evaluation seem to follow similar patterns with female managers, this is shown in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7: Male managers self evaluations – regression analysis

N = 15	Independent variables	Dependent variables		
		Satisfaction	Effectiveness	Extra Effort
		B	B	B
5Is Transformational	Constant	3,41	-.887	2,58
	t	3,03	-.758	1,16
	IB	1292	.512	.049
	t	2,64*	1,72	.087

	IA	-1039	-.571	-.070
	t	-2,55*	-2,3*	-.148
	IM	-.732	.049	.185
	t	-1,65	.182	.360
	IS	1018	.646	.323
	t	2,41*	2,51*	.660
	IC	-.018	.205	-.191
	t	-.055	1,03	-.508
	R^2	.628	.799	.198
	Adjusted R^2	.421	.687	-.248
	F	3,03	7,15	.444
	R	.792	.894	.445
Transactional	Constant	2,97	2,77	1,85
	t	1,75	2,05	1,63
	CR	.131	.293	.194
	t	.433	1,21	.957
	MEA	-.62	.005	.308
	t	-.270	.029	1,99
	MEP	.243	-.016	.045
	t	.819	-.068	.225
	R^2	.074	.139	.330
	Adjusted R^2	-.179	-.095	.147
	F	.292	.594	1,81
	R	.271	.373	.574
Non transactional	Constant	4,16	3,93	3,48
	t	10,836*	11,962*	11,206*
	LF	-.201	-.107	.118
	t	-1,23	-.764	.891
	R^2	.104	-.043	.058
	Adjusted R^2	.035	-.031	-.015
	F	1,51	.584	.795
	R	.322	.207	.240

Note: IB: Idealised behaviour; IA: Idealised attributes; IM: Inspirational motivation; IS: Intellectual stimulation; IC: Individualised consideration; CR: Contingent reward; MEA: Management by exception (active); MEP: Management by exception (passive); LF: Laissez-faire. The t-statistics are presented with * and indicate significance level 0.05

The *dependent variable satisfaction* significantly positively related to Idealized Behaviours and Intellectual Stimulation. The R^2 result of .628 indicated that 62,8 per cent of the observed variability in the dependent variable satisfaction was explained by the independent variables of transformational leadership model. However, there was significant negative relation to Idealised Attributes, the more this dimension increased the more female leaders' satisfaction decreased.

The *dependent variable effectiveness* only related significantly positively with Intellectual Stimulation, but negatively with Idealised attributes. When Intellectual Stimulation increased by 1, effectiveness decreased by 7 per cent.

The *dependent variable extra effort* did not fit with any of the three leadership styles, and there were found no significant relations of this dependent variable to any of the independent variables of the MLQ.

6.3.4 Staff evaluations for male managers

Furthermore, the author checked staff views of male leaders' leadership styles as a group. At this point the author tested the correlations of the outcomes of leadership of all male leaders with the three leadership style behaviours. The results are shown in Table 6.8.

Table 6.8: <u>Staff evaluations of male leaders -regression analysis</u>

N= 330	Independent variables	Dependent variables		
		Satisfaction	Effectiveness	Extra Effort
		B	B	B
5Is Transformational	Constant	-2,26	.756	-1,05
	t	-4,75*	2,423*	-3,026*
	IB	.573	.285	.254
	t	6,256*	4,742*	3,805*
	IA	.374	-.045	.067
	t	4,861*	-.885	1,19
	IM	-.220	.203	.346

	t	-2,447*	3,448*	5,266*
	IS	.085	.206	.269
	t	1,03	3,838*	4,498*
	IC	.285	-.070	.107
	t	3,613*	-1,36	1,86
	R^2	.553	.442	.679
	Adjusted R^2	.546	.433	.674
	F	80,22	51,28	137,23
	R	.744	.665	.824
Transactional	Constant	2,45	2,9	.744
	t	8,628*	15,338*	3,842*
	CR	.632	.353	.540
	t	9,860*	8,266*	12,344*
	MEA	.020	.015	.367
	t	.400	.416	10,660*
	MEP	-.320	-.100	-.098
	t	-6,716*	-3,151*	-3,022*
	R^2	.485	.335	.677
	Adjusted R^2	.480	.329	.674
	F	102,06	54,55	226,98
	R	.696	.579	.823
Non transactional	Constant	4,91	4,39	4,23
	t	47,060*	67,164*	42,219*
	LF	-.538	-.247	-.271
	t	-11,031*	-8.088*	-5,784*
	R^2	.271	.167	.093
	Adjusted R^2	.269	.164	.090
	F	121,69	65,42	33,46
	R	.521	.408	.305

Note: IB: Idealised behaviour; IA: Idealised attributes; IM: Inspirational motivation; IS: Intellectual stimulation; IC: Individualised consideration; CR: Contingent reward; MEA: Management by exception (active); MEP: Management by exception (passive); LF: Laissez-faire. The t-statistics are presented with * and indicate significance level 0.05

The data above showed that staff had different views from male leaders themselves. The *dependent variable satisfaction* significantly positively related to transformational leadership style. Looking at the coefficients, the B values were statistically significant positively to Idealized Behaviours, Idealized Attributes and

Individualized Consideration. The R^2 result of .553 indicated that 55,3 per cent of the observed variability in the dependent variable satisfaction was explained by the independent variables of transformational leadership model. Nevertheless, there was negative significant relation to Inspirational Motivation. Similarly, satisfaction fitted well with transactional leadership (F value is significant). However, the coefficients showed that satisfaction was related positively and significantly with Contingent Reward, but in a negative and significant way with Management by Exception (passive). Finally, satisfaction fitted well with non transactional leadership, but it there was negative and significant relation to laissez faire leadership behaviour.

The *dependent variable effectiveness* fitted well with all three leadership styles. It was found to relate significantly and positively to Idealized Behaviours, Inspirational Motivation, and Intellectual Stimulation. The R^2 result of .442 indicated that 44,2 per cent of the observed variability in the dependent variable effectiveness was explained by the independent variables of transformational leadership model. Similarly, it fitted well with transactional leadership as the F values are significant. There was significant positive relation of effectiveness to Contingent Reward, but significant negative correlation to Management by exception (passive). Finally, effectiveness fitted with non transactional leadership, but there is significant negative relation to laissez faire.

The *dependent variable extra effort* significantly related to all three leadership style behaviours. There was significant relation to the transformational leadership variables. Extra effort related positively with significance to Inspirational Motivation and intellectual Stimulation. Extra effort was negatively significantly correlated to Idealised behaviours. The R^2 result of .679 indicated that 67,9 per cent of the observed variability in the dependent variable extra effort was explained by the independent variables of transformational leadership model. Similarly, it related significantly to transactional leadership. The B coefficients showed that it related significantly and positively with Contingent Reward, and Management by Exception (active), but there was significant negative relations to Management by Exception (passive) and Laissez-faire.

Table 6.9 shows a summary of the regression analysis of male leaders and their staff.

Table 6.9: <u>Male managers regression analysis</u>

		IA	IB	IM	IS	IC	CR	MEA	MEP	LF
Male leaders Self-ratings	Satisfaction	√(-)	√		√					
	Effectiveness	√(-)			√					
	Extra Effort									
Staff for male leaders	Satisfaction	√	√	√(-)		√	√		√(-)	√(-)
	Effectiveness		√	√	√		√		√(-)	√(-)
	Extra Effort		√(-)	√	√		√	√	√(-)	√(-)

Note: √ when p<0.05   √(-) when p<0.05 but the correlation is negative

Therefore, the table shows how differently male managers view their leadership style from their staff in relation to the outcomes of leadership. This confirms the results of the one sample t tests that have been performed. Thus, male managers believe that in order to be satisfied they should adopt mainly transformational leadership behaviour, such as intellectual stimulation. Therefore, they should approach problems, and encourage others to see the problem from different views. They also believe that they should enhance staff capabilities to solve these problems. They believe however, that sacrifices are not necessary in order to be satisfied. On the other hand staff require male managers to exhibit idealized attributes, idealized behaviours, individualized consideration and contingent reward to be satisfied. Thus, they want male managers to inspire them, to reward their efforts and performance, and further develop them when it is required to meet the goals. Nevertheless, they do not value inspirational motivation, management by exception (passive) and laissez faire in order to be satisfied, thus they do not appreciate it when leaders avoid clarifying expectations and address conflicts, neither when they do not see the problems themselves and expect staff to identify them and bring them to their attention. Furthermore, staff find male managers effective when they exhibit idealized behaviours, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and contingent reward. In addition to these they put extra effort when male leaders exhibit inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, contingent reward and management by exception (active). Thus, staff appreciates male leaders that allow them to work with standards using 'traditional

methods', when the goals are clearly identified, and they are given a sense of purpose and they show that the future is challenging, where mutual trust is created.

6.3.5 Effectiveness of leadership evaluated by staff

Finally, in order to test research questions 4 and 5, the author checked staff evaluations of all leaders' transformational, transactional and nontransactional leadership styles of the MLQ as one group. At this point the author tested the relationship of effectiveness with three leadership style behaviours of all leaders. The results are shown in Table 6.10.

Table 6.10: <u>Staff evaluations of all leaders effectiveness – regression analysis</u>

	Independent variables	Dependent variable	Staff for male n=330 Staff for female n=291	Independent variables	Dependent variable
		Effective-ness All staff for all leaders n= 621			Effectiveness
5Is Transforma-tional	Constant	1,52	Male Female	Constant	-.723 1,409
	t	10.018*	Male Female	t	-3,761* 5,153*
	Transformational	.549	Male Female	Transformational	.999 0,58
	t	16,174*	Male Female	t	23,268* 9,484*
	R^2	.316	Male Female	R^2	.623 .266
	Adjusted R^2	.315	Male Female	Adjusted R^2	.622 .263
	F	261,6	Male Female	F	541,405 89,95
	R	.562	Male Female	R	.790 .516

Transactional	Constant	3,68	Male Female	Constant	.456 3,960
	t	28,900*	Male Female	t	1,647 25,201*
	Transactional	.082	Male Female	Transactional	.995 .006
	t	2,127*	Male Female	t	11,851* .127
	R^2	.008	Male Female	R^2	.300 .000
	Adjusted R^2	.006	Male Female	Adjusted R^2	.298 -.003
	F	4,52	Male Female	F	140,439 .016
	R	.087	Male Female	R	.548 .008
	Constant	4,44	Male Female	Constant	4,234 4,498
	t	93,205*	Male Female	t	42,219* 63,496*
	Non transactional	-.276	Male Female	Non transactional	-.271 -.318
	t	-11.581*	Male Female	t	-5,784* -8,245*
	R^2	.179	Male Female	R^2	.192
	Adjusted R^2	.178	Male Female	Adjusted R^2	.189
	F	134,11	Male Female	F	67,972
	R	.423	Male Female	R	.438

The data above showed staff evaluations of effectiveness with dimensions of leadership. The *dependent variable effectiveness* significantly positively related to transformational and transactional leadership style. Looking at the coefficients, the B values were statistically significant positively to all dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership. The R^2 result of .316 indicated that 31,6 per cent of the observed variability in the dependent variable effectiveness was explained by the

independent variables of transformational leadership model. Nevertheless, there was negative significant relation of effectiveness to nontransactional. Therefore, the more this leadership style increased the less staff satisfaction.

Similarly, effectiveness was not correlated positively with nontransactional for either male or female managers. However, staff positively significantly related effectiveness with transformational leadership for female and male leaders. The R^2 result of .266 indicated that 26,6 per cent of the observed variability in the dependent variable effectiveness was explained by the independent variables of transformational leadership model for female managers, and the R^2 result of .623 indicated that 62,3 per cent of the observed variability in the dependent variable effectiveness was explained by the independent variables of transformational leadership model for male managers. Effectiveness related positively significantly with transactional leadership only with male managers. The R^2 result of .300 indicated that 30 per cent of the observed variability in the dependent variable effectiveness was explained by the independent variables of transactional leadership model for male managers. Evidently, when staff evaluated male and female leaders found that both leaders are effective when they exhibited transformational leadership, whereas they positively found male managers effective when they exhibited transactional leadership. In the whole sample, effectiveness correlated with both transformational and transactional leadership.

6.4 LEADERSHIP STYLE OF MALE AND FEMALE MANAGERS

Considering this thesis research questions, the researcher tested with independent sample t test, whether female or male managers exhibit more transformational or transactional leadership. The results are shown in Table 6.11.

Table 6.11: <u>Staff evaluation of Female and male managers independent samples t tests</u>

Leadership Dimensions	Staff for Male n=330 Staff for	SD	Mean difference	F	t	df	Sig.

	Female n=291							
Transformational	Male	4,4328	.652	.0122	.009	.215	521	.830
	Female	4,4205	.624					
Transactional	Male	3,226	.455	.0455	52,918*	.828	555	.408
	Female	3,2209	.817					
Effectiveness	Male	3,9123	.848	-.066	.897	-.671	287	.344
	Female	3,979	.837					

Note: SD: Standard deviation, *: indicates significance level 0.05

The means showed that staff evaluated significantly the differences in the means of male (mean=3,226) with standard deviation (.455) and female (mean=3,2209) with standard deviation (.817) leaders when they exhibited transactional leadership. No significant differences were found when the leaders exhibited transformational leadership, or in their effectiveness.

Finally the author with the use of descriptive statistics explored the means of leaders and their followers in order to see in which of the 3 different leadership styles they significantly scored higher or lower. These means and standard deviations have been analysed in details in paragraph 6.3. The researcher has adapted the means of the sample in the three leadership styles to the model of leadership developed by Bass and Avolio (1990) and it is illustrated in Graph 6.1.

Graph 6.1: MLQ REPORT
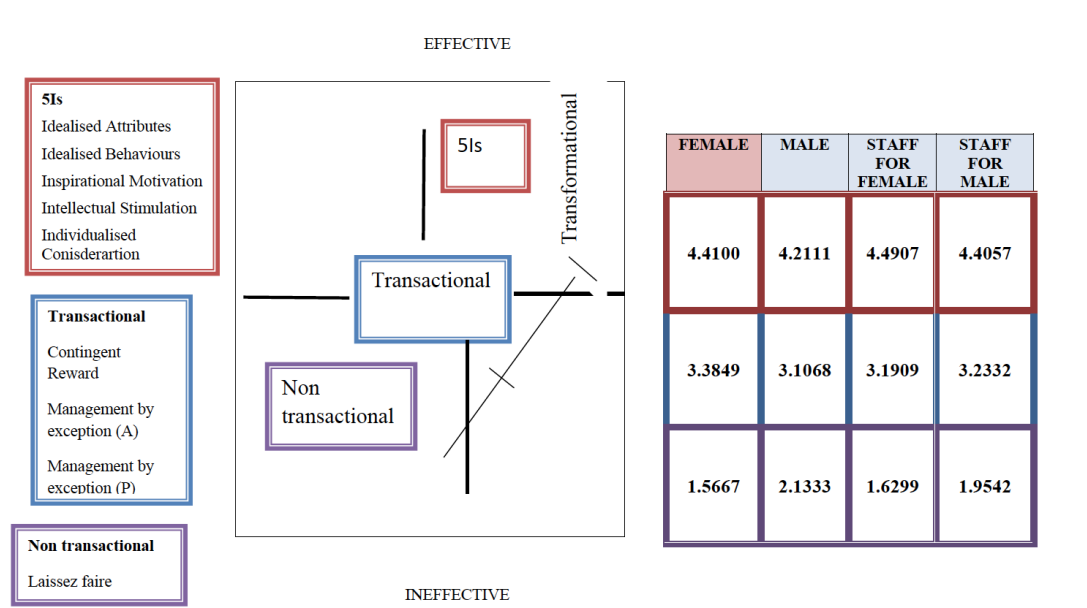
Evidently both female and male managers in the study seem to exhibit similar patterns in their leadership behaviour in all three leadership styles. Nevertheless, female managers (mean=4.4100) scored higher in transformational leadership than male managers (mean=4.2111). Similarly, female managers (mean=3.3849) scored higher in transactional leadership than male managers (mean=3.1068). Finally in the non transactional leadership they scored lower (mean=1.5667) than male managers (mean=2.1333). These showed that female leaders scored higher in transformational and transactional leadership when they were self-evaluated. Whereas in laissez faire they scored lower than male leaders in the study. Nevertheless, the analysis of the data showed that they exhibited similar leadership behaviours as there were no significant differences found.

When staff evaluated leaders similar patterns existed. Female leaders had higher score (mean=4.4907) than male leaders (mean=4.4057) in transformational leadership. Nonetheless, in transactional leadership behaviours they were found to score lower (mean=3.1909) than male leaders (mean=3.2332). Finally, in the non transactional leadership behaviour they scored lower (mean=1.6299) than male leaders (mean=1.9542). Thus, staff differ on their evaluation of leaders in the sample. They find that female leaders exhibit more transformational leadership behaviours, whereas the male exhibit more transactional leadership behaviours, but there are no significant relations.

6.5 DEMOGRAPHICS AND THE GLASS CEILING IN MANAGEMENT

Some demographics data were related to the findings from the interviews as the glass ceiling issues were very often discussed mainly by female managers. The demographics of leaders in this study are presented in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12: <u>Leaders - Sample demographics</u>

n=651	Male n= 15	Female n = 15
<u>Marital status</u> Married Single	33.3% 66.6%	40% 53.3%
<u>Academic qualifications</u> None VET ASTE TEI Bachelor Master PhD	33.3% 46.6% 6.6% 13.3%	53.3% 26.6% 20%

Looking back in the literature on management the glass ceiling phenomenon is linked with the above two main characteristics. As Table 6.11 showed long working hours was a topic very often discussed by the interviewees. Table 6.13 illustrates how many of the participants discussed the topics which were very often brought up during the discussions.

Table 6.13: <u>Glass ceiling indicators</u>

GLASS CEILING	Female	Male	Male for female
Difficult to be one of the boys	9	1	
Try hard	5	1	
Men are easier promoted	8	8	
Women spend time to raise children	2	2	
Same expectations regardless sex	1	1	
Difficult to balance work with family	5	1	3
Long working hours	8	8	
Feels guilty towards the family	2	1	
Prove who you are	7	1	
Sometimes is underestimated	4	1	
Fear of getting pregnant - married	1	1	2
Difficult for women	1	5	

In reference to the academic qualifications it is evident from the data that the majority of the participant leaders are graduates of the Technological Educational Institutes in Management of Tourist Enterprises and next the Advanced School of Tourism Education (mainly the one in Rhodes). None of the participants has a PhD, and it seems that graduates from either public educational institutions or private colleges in Greece are equally represented. Many however, hold a masters degree and interestingly more female managers hold a postgraduate degree. They all, however, have a higher education qualification, which it is highly valued in hospitality management. The majority of female managers stressed the importance of their studies, and admitted that their typical qualifications have helped them to establish their knowledge and then prove that they know what they are doing with their job. FM3 said that "*my studies have helped my work as I already knew what is required to be done*". FGM2 admitted she would not have been offered the job unless she had studied hospitality management.

6.5.1 Work life balance

The author analysed leaders' marital status since it was important to this research as it links with the research questions and gender issues. The managers' marital status was linked with the barriers managers face in management and in this particular context in the hospitality industry, as well as the effort they place at work and the time they spent. The above table showed that among the 30 leaders, the majority of the male participants, 66.6 percent are single, whereas 33.3 percent are married. Similarly, among the 15 female leaders 53.3 percent are single and 40 percent are married. Thus, both male and female leaders tend to be single in the hotel sector, but more male than female leaders are single.

Personal time in return is what hotel managers have to give to become a successful member of the industry. Without personal and professional support, family concerns become a daunting barrier. Interestingly, male managers very often referred to work and family conflict especially for women in the industry. They wondered how they manage to balance work with family. Male managers admitted that they have their

spouses' support, those that are married; the others suggested that being single has helped them go higher. MGM2 said: "*be prepared to work overtime under pressure. Better management of time will give you time for both your family and work*". Female managers generally had concerns about this issue, although a female general manager (FGM14) noted that "*if you manage your time, then you can balance work with family*".

It was interesting that FGM30 realized to her surprise during our discussion that all female managers she knew were either not married or divorced. She also added that "*people call me the mother of the company, even though I do not have children of my own, they all call this company my child, or my staff come to me for advice or to discuss any personal issues they may have*". Women find it more difficult to combine and balance work with family needs, and this is an issue pinpointed by three male managers as well. The following as a view came from both male and female respondents, more specifically MM15 said: "*it is hard for women to raise a family and be in a senior level position. In the hotel, the hours are very long and varied, so it presents more of a challenge.*" Over half of the respondents said that work in the hospitality industry involves working long and varied hours and trying hard. It also involves occasionally geographic moves, which is a challenge for those who want to have a family. FGM10 more specifically said: "*I believe that one of the main problems that contributed to the end of my marriage was work. I spent too many hours at work as I was new and I wanted to prove that I can do the job. Even my daughter was actually raised by my mother. She is already 15 and...I... should have spent more time with her*".

All interviewees spoke about the 24/7 nature of the job and the fact that being a hotel manager requires late nights and weekend work. Therefore, personal sacrifices are required. One female respondent, front office manager FM27, said:

> *If you want to excel and advance, if you want your customers and the management to be happy you have to be there whenever it is required. I may come in the middle of the night because we have 300 guests checking in. I will help with everything, even the bellboy to carry the suitcases…*

Another male respondent, MM23 said: "*You have to be prepared to work as much as required and to put your life around the hotel, and not the other way round. It is a way of life and profession*". MM18 said: "*While the hotel is open I hardly ever see my family, I leave home at 6.30 in the morning and I go back after 11 in the evening...at least I have more time with them during the winter*". Managers in the industry are expected to work long hours and to be there whenever something happens. For example, MGM12 said: "*Even though I have worked more than 12 hours when I leave I feel I shouldn't be leaving, and I feel guilty about it*".

6.5.2 Old boys network and career advancement

The data showed that there were no significant differences of opinion among the respondents, however, male respondents did not discuss to a great extent the glass ceiling issue, or the barriers that exist in the hospitality industry that may prevent women or even men from developing and progressing in the industry. Male respondents were significantly more likely to claim that they had experienced no barriers to their career, in contrast to the female respondents who claim that they have found it difficult to become one of the boys. MGM4 who was a general manager in a large hotel said: "*It hasn't been so difficult to become a GM, I am still young and I have managed to reach this position. My wife has contributed to that as she has been responsible for raising our children....*". Nonetheless, a male respondent (MM15) believed that it is difficult for women to work in the hospitality industry. He actually admitted that he had promoted a male employee over a female who seemed to be more qualified mainly because "*she recently got married...she will get pregnant and then who's gonna do the job?*". He also stated that:

> when women are 25 they try very hard, when they get to 35 they compromise and choose family over work, I am afraid this will happen if I choose to promote the female employee, she will get pregnant, have a baby and give priority to her family. She will not be able or willing to work long hours and be there…

They all agreed that women have to combine work with family, which makes it harder for them to pursue a career in the industry. FM29 said that she has to go back home and take care of the children and "*...be a housewife, a wife, a mother among others...*". Other career-related issues were about life/work choices. A female respondent (FM13) said that she chose not to accept a general management position because she did not want to spend so much time at work; she prefers to be with her family. She admitted that:

> my own desire to spend more time with my children will probably ensure that I stay where I am for convenience. I guess many capable women will not make it into the positions of influence for these reasons. Unfortunately, the women making it are usually childless and are therefore less aware of the work conditions that need to change.

All of the managers suggested that there are many challenges in the hospitality industry that are similar for women and men, nevertheless, a few drew some distinctions between female and male managers. Female managers specifically said that it is difficult to be one of the boys; they have to try very hard to prove their skills, "*to prove who you are*" as FGM10 said. Interestingly, only one female manager (FM8), who happens to be a food and beverage manager, said that her experience so far shows that "*there are same expectations regardless of the sex*". She further explained that all managers regardless their sex are expected to produce work, to be effective and to meet the organisational goals. Equally, both female and male managers agreed that men are promoted easier than women in the industry. FGM14 said that it is the culture of the industry that "*...is male-dominated to prevent women from becoming general managers, that explains why few women exist in this position*". She was however convinced that "*if you try hard then you can always have a share in management*". The old boys network was commented frequently by most of the interviewees. They described it as a common attitude among many of male managers, it was also referred a "*shared history*" (for example FM29, FM9, FM5 and others). Female managers were more specific and said that women should try to enter this network, for example " *I participate at night drinking sessions as there is a lot of information sharing*" (FM11).

Although female managers said that it is difficult to penetrate the boys' network, they suggested that the culture has started changing in the industry. "*Women are now given more opportunities*" one (FM5) said, "*I would recommend all areas of the industry, since I do feel that men and women are equally qualified to succeed in*". Around a third of the female respondents repeatedly reported the fact that they were given the opportunity to be promoted and they grabbed it, without hesitation. MGM28 said that in his hotel "*women are given power, they hold managerial positions and are equally treated when a new job opens*". FGM30 pinpointed that the food and beverage manager and rooms division manager in her hotel are women.

The desire to succeed was a motivator to endure the challenging environment in the hospitality industry. Male managers seemed to have more defined career plans with clear strategy on how to progress. MM23 said: "*I have planned by way and my career so far. I am working now here, but this is mainly done to enter the company and get next year a transfer to Thessaloniki, my home town, where my family is*". On the contrary, most of female managers admitted that they had not planned their career, it just happened and FM20 stated "*it has been a matter of luck I think*". The majority of female managers did not want a general management position, however they said that one should benefit from the opportunities that exist or are offered, to persist and to manage to meet the personal goals, if they exist, or the organisational goals in order to be accepted well and be given the career opportunities.

6.5.3 Male-dominated environment and stereotypes

At the same time they admitted that bias and stereotyping is still evident, but it is not as evident as it was in the past. There was almost common agreement that females have distinct advantages in certain difficult and tricky customer situations, because of the "connotation of the sexual side". Seven of female managers and six of male managers agree that the hospitality industry is a male-dominated industry, even though only two male respondents mentioned that stereotypes still exist. MGM26 in fact said: "*aesthetics are still important in this industry. When I recruit I am*

interested in good looking people, mainly women. Especially when the position deals with the customer. I would not hire a bad looking woman to be my guest relations...". Male respondents claimed that sex discrimination exists, and that appearance matters. In another case, MGM24 described a case when he recommended a male candidate for a Customer Relations position, but the company preferred a female candidate instead because they thought she would be more appropriate for the job due to her physical appearance. However, this male manager suggested that the tourism industry seems to be a particularly good environment for engaging women and contributing to the efforts towards the advancement of women. In addition, and considering the old-boy-network that still exists one female manager suggested that they maintain the prejudice against women in kitchens, where she works. She holds a traditionally male position (food and beverage manager, FM5) and she said that it has been difficult for her to lead the people in the kitchen, until "*When he (the headchef) realised I did know what I was talking about he let me back in the kitchen and everything was fine*". Evidently, female managers were identified as more appropriate for certain positions such as sales, public relations, housekeeping and front office, due to their caring characteristic. This, however, perpetuates the gender stereotyping and positioning of women "*my position does not allow me to be caring with staff all the time, sometimes I have to fire employees and this makes me look hard and not caring...*" (FM20). FGM10 claimed that "*women have to be better than their male counterparts just to keep up*". On the other hand, some female managers (FM21, FM25, FM6) admitted that this situation sometimes helps them enter the industry at managerial levels and acquire managerial roles and bring change to the existing culture of a male-dominated industry.

Although change occurs regarding stereotypes, some still believe that men are better managers, men are trusted more to hold a managerial position and to be effective. MGM1 said that "*my staff recognises my power and seem to be willing to do what I ask them to do*". MM18 said that "*my people have faith in me as I have proven what I can do and what I know. They have seen that when we all work together we are effective and the work is done*". Nevertheless, all the participants agreed that regardless of the existing stereotyping and the challenges faced in the hospitality

industry, women could do whatever they wanted provided they are given the opportunities or the organisational culture allows it. Those interviewees who raised the issue of having a family mentioned that their organisations follow the legal framework concerning marriage, children and leave time for pregnancy. Although a company may adopt an official policy, the employees and their behaviour towards women can undermine this. Therefore, organisations should act to reduce these beliefs and attitudes. The culture and structure of the industry have an impact on leadership style adopted by female and male managers. Those who worked in large hotels with hierarchical structures admitted that in most cases the organisational culture allows women to enter managerial positions. The problem is *"with staff members that are older and are used to male managers. It is hard for them to accept orders from a woman, so even though the company supports women, they choose to place them to positions that more female staff exist"* (MM3). Interestingly, all male managers interviewed stressed that they are not sexist *"no, no I would not consider myself biased against women"* (MGM22, MM23, MM16, MM17) and that they do not see their female colleagues differently. The majority of the participants also agreed that their hotel is organized in a "feminine way", where emotions rule and they are more people oriented. *"The customers are the focus of all our actions; we should behave in a more gentle, polite and hospitable way in order to keep them happy and satisfied"* (MM18). MGM12 said: *"this is a services industry we have to keep our customers happy, and we must behave accordingly. We often choose to behave in a more feminine way, to be smiling, to be polite, to show our customers we care in any way...".*

Female managers in the study, however, feel optimistic about where the industry is going in terms of gender equality. They remain convinced that, in the words of one interviewee (FM21), *"the industry is four to five years away from placing more women in top jobs across the industry"*. Another female manager (FM11) also suggested that:

> In Greece there are a lot of stereotypes. For example a woman would be a housekeeper or an employee in the department or in the front office department or would be a hostess. Unfortunately, this is the reality. Abroad things are different.

In general, female managers in this study are more optimistic about the current situation and the position that women hold in the hospitality industry. For example, FM27 noted that:

> It is true that women work very hard and they are more in the hospitality industry, not at managerial positions you do not find may but the numbers are growing very fast. You find many female managers in big hotel chains mainly. I strongly believe that women are more effective, they have very good communication skills that are required in the industry, they make very careful steps and they create very good reputation.

Whilst, on the contrary a male manager (MM18) suggested that

> both men and women are equal, they have the same way of thinking, they set similar goals when it comes to professional issues, but when they get married their priorities change and it is difficult to progress considering the patriarchic culture in Greece and the difficulties they may face in regards to their responsibilities towards family and work.

Interestingly a female manager (FM8) said:

> Within the industry, I have never felt my being a woman hindered my growth or the respect that I have received for my experience and knowledge. It is individuals outside the industry who will, for example, seek the acceptance of the male during a meeting instead of the woman, even though the woman is the decision-maker. That always makes for an interesting scenario!

Male managers also find that their female colleagues are as good as they are. They claim that even though some stereotypes still exist not only in the industry but also in the Greek culture, women have a bright future ahead, as long as they continue the hard work. MGM24 admitted that there are a lot of stereotypes in Greece, which agrees with some of female managers' view. MGM12 stated that "*it is easy for women to have a career in our industry*", while MM23 stated: "*make a woman's kind of work and it will be work that will blossom*".

Evidently, aspects that facilitate progression include aspects such as hard work, interpersonal and communication skills, personality, job knowledge and good written communications.

Last but not least, it is important to discuss at this stage the managers' view on whether their gender has influenced their leadership style. Their responses are illustrated in Table 6.14.

Table 6.14: <u>Gender influences leadership style</u>

Male managers		Female managers	
YES	NO	YES	NO
7	8	9	6

Evidently, the majority of female managers believed that their gender influences their leadership style, on the contrary the majority of male managers believed that it does not. During the interviews male managers said that gender influences more the way their female colleagues implement their leadership roles, and they identified communication and good relationships to be their advantage against male managers. On the one hand, female managers believed that their gender matters depending on the situation, sometimes it is an advantage and in other times it is a disadvantage for example when they have to do with old members of staff and the way they view them as managers. FM5 said: "*If I were man I would have been more respected by the kitchen staff*". Male managers, on the other hand, said that gender does not make any difference; both men and women lead the same since they have adopted many characteristics, traits and behaviours of the opposite sex. For example, MGM22 said: "*I try to imitate my wife's behaviour. She seems to be closer to our staff. My maleness makes me look harsh, so I soften my behaviour sometimes... it is necessary*". So men have adopted feminine behaviours and women masculine in order to be able to face any situation at work. They all admitted that their gender influences their leadership style as they have been taught to perform specific gender roles. "As a woman my staff expects me to be nurturing, to care, to be less assertive" said FM29. "Usually, they do not like it when I am assertive, when I am controlling them" said FM13. Male managers expressed similar feelings. "*If I am less assertive they think I am weak. When will they understand that caring is not a weakness, but rather a positive*

attitude? And if I care it does not mean that they can do whatever they want"
(MGM24).

6.6 LEADERSHIP, EFFECTIVE AND POOR LEADERSHIP

Leadership was the main topic of the interviews as the researcher aimed at looking at the most effective leadership style and behaviours exhibited by male and female managers. The participants discussed their own views on leadership and what constitutes effective leadership in their working environment and in the industry, as they are illustrated and discussed in Table 6.15.

Table 6.15: <u>Effective leadership indicators</u>

EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP	Female	Male
Respect	4	4
Knowledge	6	1
Education	2	4
Experience	4	5
Strict	4	4
Not autocratic	2	1
Politeness	4	1
Decency	1	1
To be discrete	2	1
To delegate	4	2
To follow the hierarchy	3	1
To adapt to change	4	1
To support staff	4	7
To train staff	7	4
To communicate well	9	9
Set goals	8	4
To discuss problems	4	2
To discipline	7	4
To be responsible	2	2
Patience	6	1
To guide and motivate people	7	2
To be diplomatic	4	2
To give initiatives	6	2

To inspire	2	2
To share ideas	1	2
To control	3	4
To mentor	1	2
When customers are satisfied	1	4

In their discussion female managers stressed the fact that they should communicate well, and male managers said that they should communicate in a better way than they already do. Male managers (MGM7, MM15, MM18, MM19) actually said that they have started imitating their female colleagues who seem to be very good at this. MM19 said: *"I have may women colleagues and they seem to be very good with people, they communicate well and sometimes when customers complain I ask her to deal with the situation. She is polite, smiling and almost always turns the situation around"*. FGM30 admitted that she closes better contracts with tour operators mainly due to her communication skills, *"I smile at them, and I become very sweet when I want to impose my own rules. I have signed the best contracts in the company...better and at better prices and terms than my male colleagues"*. Male managers actually admitted that female leaders may prove more effective in their leadership role, due to their gender. They said that female managers can be more polite, gentle and communicate better with staff and customers. It is easier for them to be nurturing and to undertake multiple tasks.

Politeness is an issue to female managers, 26.6 percent of them behave in a polite way, when they lead. They have been convinced that when they follow this behaviour they will succeed in what they do. For example, a female general manager (FGM30) described how she uses this skill, along with humour, to persuade the tour operators to accept her terms in their contracts, *"I think people trust men more and think that men are more capable than women, but when I am polite, patient, decent in my relations with others and I smile I manage to convince people to trust me as much"*. During one interview female manager FM25 received a phone call, where she discussed with a colleague the potential of hiring someone (it was not clear whether it was about a manager or an employee) who she recommended. At the end

she told me "*I do not care very much about the candidate's studies. I focus on their personality and character. You can teach them how to do the job right but you cannot teach them manners…*".

Patience, perseverance and "*never losing sight of what you believe in*" (FM25) were the keys to success for managers wanting to rise through the ranks. "To be yourself" FM25 said and added "*to acknowledge your mistakes, to apologise or show with your behaviour that you admit you are wrong*". Female managers said that they will definitely show with their attitudes that they admit their mistakes, and few said they would even apologize to their staff, but they will prefer to do it in private (FGM30, FM11, FM13). On the contrary, male managers said that they rarely apologize either with their behaviour or in private, because they believe that they very rarely make mistakes. MM19 said: "*I am usually right, but even when I am wrong I will not tell, I will not admit, after all I am the manager and I should step up on the situation... I must not show that I a weak in any way*". MM23 on the contrary said: "s*ometimes if I am wrong I will apologize in front of everybody, to show that we can all make mistakes...*".

Both male and female managers value respect, a theme that emerged many times in the discussions. Both respect their staff and they expect to be respected in return, not only because of their position in the hierarchy, but also because of what they do for the team, and the support they provide. Male and female managers combined respect with experience, and they believe that experience has helped them develop their leadership skills, has made them more responsible, which their staff, and their superiors expect. MM18 and MM23 said that "*respect comes from good work, and results*". On the one hand female managers tended to stress the importance of respect, and they related this with experience and knowledge. FGM2 said: "*I expect my staff to respect me. My experience has taught me how to deal with people and staff especially at difficult situations*". FM11 described her experience when she first took the job. "*The team did not show any respect. The were talking behind my back, as they did not approve of me as their manager. This changed but I had to work very hard to gain their respect and show them my experience and knowledge were very*

much relevant to the position". On the other hand, some male managers stressed that respect comes from the position they hold, with MGM26 noting that *"Regardless my sex or my age my staff shows respect because I am their manager"*.

Another theme that frequently emerged in the discussions with female managers was the goal-setting issue. All female managers stressed the importance of setting goals for themselves, referring specifically to those that would influence their performance, effectiveness or their career, these are set to meet the company's objectives. FGM2 said *"I have to set goals for myself, if I want to be successful, but at the same time I have to communicate these goals to my staff and together we can make it"*. Thus, they related their personal and organisational goals with guidelines on how to manage their team, on how to lead them effectively. In addition, both male and female managers equally referred to inspiration. It was important to them to inspire their staff, to be their role model, or to be the one who will take the risk and do what is best for the team. For example, MM17 said: *"I am the first to come and the last to go. I have to inspire my team with my behaviour and make them believe in me, my goals..."*. FM29 said: *"I help my team, I will not hesitate to step in and help at any time"*.

Female managers demonstrated warmth and collaboration in their leadership style and 46.6 percent of male managers valued staff support. Male managers expressed their positive feelings towards supporting staff and were less likely than female managers to discipline staff. It seemed that female and male managers wanted to be democratic, but female managers suggested that sometimes they had to be stricter and discipline their staff; therefore, they had to allow less space for making the decisions themselves. FGM30 described what happens when they have events at the hotel. She admitted that *"I do not trust my staff, I have the impression that they will not be successful if I am not there. Once I left do it without me and they made many mistakes that led to customer' complaints. I have to be there all the time... I don't like it you know... It is stressing to feel like this all the time"*. Evidently, female managers were in a difficult position, because they had to behave in a way that is not according to their nature or their social role. They may have had an agentic behaviour that their

team did not evaluate negatively, as they said. On the other hand, male managers used a more communal behaviour when they pursued leadership roles. Male managers seemed to believe that they were strict and they should soften their behaviour towards their staff, therefore they chose to be more democratic, and give more freedom to them. MGM22 said: "*Sometimes I overdo it... I yell at my staff and I become impatient which is not good at all...*". Furthermore, a male manager (MM23) said that when he follows that route and he orders people to do things, people are not satisfied and they are not committed. Alternatively, when he is polite and inspires them they perform much better and the end result is better than expected. On the contrary, a female manager (FM5) said "*When I order my male staff to do something I see the denial in their face*" and continued, "*I show them that I am the boss*". This shows that female managers in this study may be polite, but occasionally they have to be strict, impose rules and regulations in order to effectively manage their staff. The majority of female managers agreed with this view and presented similar examples.

Training and motivating staff has also been an issue. The majority of the female respondents felt comfortable with transferring their knowledge to their team, their staff or to others who see them as mentors. Male managers who seemed to have the need to play this role also mentioned mentoring. They all believe in motivation, in support and in giving initiatives to staff to perform better. Since the hospitality industry is a service industry, managers should take care of their employees. That way they will keep them happy and satisfied, and they will perform better and in a more effective way. "*The more fulfilled they feel, the more effective they will be*" MM18 said. Employees are valuable assets and they should be developed as a resource. FM27 said "*I do not mind training and transferring my knowledge to my employees, this makes my life easier*". FGM2 added, "*it is part of my role as a manager, isn't it?*".

Effective leadership according to the interviewees also involves control, strictness and discipline. Mainly female managers seem to be open to discussions with staff, to

listen to their views, but they believe in controlling their performance, and in discipline, "*after all we have to report back to the owners…*" FGM30 said. "*I do not want to be very autocratic, but discipline is important in our industry, after all we deal with people and customers have to be happy*" she continued. However, female managers are not afraid to delegate, even though sometimes they want to go back and check what the team has done. FM8 said: "*although I give staff space to make decisions and do the job, I will always make sure I check what they have done. I even return at work when I am not supposed to surprise them and check them when they do not expect it*". Interestingly, more male than female managers referred to the control issue, they need to go back and check their staff, in order to ensure the procedures are followed and the tasks are completed with success. MGM12 said: "*I have a reservations manager but I check daily what he has done...I want to make sure he has given the correct prices and offers*".

All the above showed that male managers tended to use a more participative leadership style; probably because they felt confident and comfortable with their managerial position or their leadership role. Female managers, had to use a combination of participative and autocratic leadership style ("strict more than autocratic" as FM9 said) due to stereotypes and the culture within the hospitality industry. Therefore, male and female managers had many common traits and characteristics in their leadership style, however, female managers were considered more effective due to their nurturing nature. The female respondents pinpointed that they behave in this way in their effort to combine their gender role and their leader role, which makes their leadership style very similar to those of their male colleagues.

6.6.1 Poor leadership

Both skills and styles of leadership define leadership through the actions of leaders and relate those actions directly to organisational outcomes. There lies the question whether the organisational outcomes are achieved. In the discussions about poor leadership the following themes emerged. It is important to note at this stage that the

frequency is low because the majority of the managers defined poor leadership as the opposite of effective leadership. Therefore, the issues that were specifically mentioned are shown in Table 6.16.

Table 6.16: Poor leadership indicators

POOR LEADERSHIP	Female	Male
Keep distances from staff	1	1
To be absolute	2	2
Make / order people do things	1	1
Bad behaviour	1	4
Not to share information	1	1
Fear of loosing the job	1	1
Not to delegate	1	1
Not to have a team that participates	1	4
No team training	1	4
Bad communication	1	7
Subjective in appraising staff	1	2

Evidently, among others male managers were those who referred specifically to poor leadership. Bad communication is a big issue mainly for male managers. As it has been previously discussed male managers, 46.6 percent, expressed the view that they should communicate better with people. They believe that bad communication is poor leadership and therefore, they may have problems with the teams they lead. In addition, only two managers (MM18, MM23) believe that poor leadership is evident when the manager keeps a distance from staff. *"I strongly believe that we should talk to our team. I have established weekly meetings with all the people in department to talk about their problems, their ideas anything..."* (MM23). *"I am open to discussions, if I do not communicate with my team then I will not have any idea of what happens with them. What happens with the team... who is happy, who has problems with whom... "* (MM18). More male managers suggested that poor leadership is evident when they have a team that does not participate in the discussions, in the decision-making. Furthermore, when the managers do not delegate is poor leadership, because as MGM28 said: *"it shows that the managers do not trust their staff and therefore, do not consider them as members of the team"*.

Additionally, when they do not share the information they have and they do not train their team.

Interestingly, they raised another issue, which is the subjective nature of their staff appraisal. Sometimes, they behave or make decisions in an absolute way. Male managers, who think that it is important to forget their ego when they appraise their staff, discussed this point. They find it difficult to be objective and evaluate their staff performance and not their relations. MGM1 said: "*sometimes I am influenced by their looks, when I recruit... it is difficult to forget that I am a man when I see a beautiful woman in front of me*". MGM22 said: "*it is difficult to let someone go. Most people have been working in our hotel since it opened and.... I simply cannot let them go...*". FM6 said: "*We come close with our staff, this makes it difficult to be objective in our appraisals*".

All these indicators of effective leadership or poor leadership do not automatically show that they lead to better business performance. This may be concluded in combination with the quantitative data that will be analysed in the following chapter. The hospitality industry is labour intensive and this suggests that leadership skills presented above may help organisations to utilize the available human resources more effectively and may help to increase performance.

6.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Female and male leaders in the study did not differ in their self-ratings of the dimensions of transformational, transactional and non-leadership. They had some differences which were not found to be statistically significant. However, they were found to perceive their leadership style differently from their subordinates, as staff in their evaluations of leaders found that both male and female leaders were mainly transformational, but they also exhibit contingent reward behaviours, whereas they did not value positively management by exception (passive) and Laissez-faire

behaviours in leadership by either male or female leaders. In fact, the data showed that staff valued highly transformational leadership behaviours, as they showed that when leaders in the study exhibit these behaviours staff was more satisfied, they put extra effort at work and they believed that leaders were effective.

The most effective leadership style in the sample was found to be transformational leadership. Although, female leaders in their self-evaluations believed they should be more transactional in their leadership, male managers valued more idealized behaviours and intellectual stimulation. Nevertheless, staff preferred leaders who exhibited transformational leadership behaviours. More specifically, when staff evaluated their female managers valued all transformational attributes, except for intellectual stimulation, and contingent reward. Similarly they preferred male managers who exhibit all transformational leadership behaviours. In both cases, staff significantly rejected the behaviours of management by exception (passive), management by exception (active) and laissez faire. Thus, the more leaders exhibit these three behaviours, regardless if they are male or female leaders, the less staff was satisfied, or exhibited extra effort.

Finally, the data suggested that transformational leadership is more effective and more exhibited by managers in the sample. Female managers scored higher than male managers in transformational leadership, and less than male in transactional leadership that showed that this is the style more exhibited by women. However, male managers' scores were very similar to those of female managers that showed that there are not significant differences.

In addition, in summarizing the above it seems that two main themes / issues concern the managers in the interviews. Their main concerns were related to the glass ceiling, and effective and poor leadership dimensions. Regarding the glass ceiling issue, it seemed that although little research has been conducted in the hospitality industry, the glass ceiling issues concerned the managers in the sample. Male managers did not stress these issues as much as female managers. They believed that they did not face a lot of obstacles in their advancement, at least not many related with their

gender. They have been promoted easier than their women colleagues. Eventhough they claimed that stereotypes did not exist, they identified a gender gap in the hospitality industry, where women did not hold the same positions and they were not promoted equally.

Female managers on the other hand, believed that gender matters mainly when they deal with older staff members, and it has influenced their advancement in the hospitality industry. They had to prove that they were as good as their male colleagues, that they were equally efficient. They valued experience and good knowledge of the industry and they considered these two as tools to overcome the barriers. Balancing work with family was identified as an obstacle mainly for female managers, whilst hard work and long hours were a problem for both. The culture has started changing providing more and better opportunities to female managers, nevertheless the main obstacles were still evident and they included stereotypes, the "old boy's network", and the diverse women role models.

Effective leadership traits varied among managers. In response to research questions 4 and 5, as to whether male and female leaders differ in their behaviour, styles and effectiveness, male managers thought they lead similarly to female managers. They valued support to staff and they preferred to be able to communicate better with people. They did not express the desire to be stricter perhaps because they thought they already discipline their staff. Occasionally, they adopted a communal behaviour, which was well accepted by others. They found, however, that their female colleagues are more effective than they are as they have skills and competencies that are valued by staff and others.

Female managers were better at communicating with people, they stressed the importance of having good relationships with staff and motivating and supporting their team members. They showed respect to people and employees' personal life. They set both personal and organisational goals and they translated those to guidelines to staff. They inspired people to do things, to work longer hours and thus to be more efficient and productive. When they were not they became stricter and controlling of the ending result. They were people-oriented and so that customers are

satisfied whereas staff was an important asset. They were stricter than their male colleagues, but they allowed people to express their opinions and views or to take initiatives in some cases.

All the above leadership traits and behaviours were also related with success factors in the hospitality industry. Patience, humour and smiling were found to be important; interpersonal communication, experience and good knowledge were an asset to progress and lead effectively. Interestingly, female managers in the sample did not aspire to have a managerial position; all they wanted was to be successful in what they do. On the contrary, male managers had planned their career carefully.

Finally, it seems that gender does not matter to leadership style in response to research question 1, irrespective of whether gender influences leadership style (transformational / transactional). Lastly, concerning the research question 4, depending on the context and the situation the managers have identified their gender roles as an important element as they did not ascribe to their traditional gender roles. Feminine characteristics or behaviour may be an advantage in communication for example, or in dealing with difficult customers, whereas masculine ones can be advantageous when managing the team or in operations. It appeared that the hotel industry demands the same skills of women and men, and that both female and male employees can succeed in the industry if they have the necessary qualities and work hard. However, studies have shown that women and men do not enjoy equal employment and promotion opportunities.

This research in the hospitality industry has not identified the importance of leadership in terms of gender influences, providing limited findings on understanding leadership in this context or even to help identify ways to improve managers' leadership styles and use the most effective in this services industry. It is clear that female leaders face challenges and barriers in moving up within a male-dominated world, barriers that they have found ways to overcome. The above data showed that there were more similarities than differences in transformational leadership style implemented by female and male managers in the hospitality industry in Greece, though this style was found to be significantly effective.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The researcher in this chapter discusses the findings from both the quantitative and the qualitative research. The aim of this thesis is to investigate any gender influences on transformational leadership styles in the Greek hospitality industry and more specifically in the 5* hotel sectors. The objective is to explore whether male and female managers differ in their leadership styles, and to identify the most effective leadership style exhibited by male and female managers. The research has been based on Bass and Avolio's (1990) model of leadership, and more specifically transformational, transactional leadership and the outcomes of these leadership styles. The findings suggest that there are many similarities in the leadership styles exhibited by male and female managers in the study, even though female managers are found to score higher in transformational leadership dimensions, no significant differences were found. This style has also been found to be more effective in the context of the study. There are however, some differences found in the dimensions of leadership between the two genders, as they are discussed in the following sections. Finally, the context of the study is discussed in section 7.5 as it is found to influence the leadership style and behaviours male and female managers exhibit.

7.2 LEADERS' AND STAFF PERCEPTIONS OF LEADERSHIP STYLE

Research questions 1 and 2 refer to any differences between male and female leaders' perception of leadership, as well as to any differences between leaders and their staff. The data suggests that there are differences, which will be discussed in the following.(? chapter section?)

Firstly, the researcher tested the leadership style exhibited by managers in their self-ratings and whether there were differences between male and female managers. The

findings suggest that there are no significant differences between male and female managers' self-ratings of their leadership style. There are only significant differences on Individualised Consideration, and Laissez-faire dimensions, where male managers scored higher. Alimo-Metcalfe (1998) proposes that a manager's perception of leadership behaviour may be different from the actual as they tend to rate themselves more competent. Olsson (2000) also suggests that people's own perception of leadership is influenced by many factors that create differences with other's perceptions of leadership. Therefore, male managers value this leadership dimension higher than female managers, thus, they value their understanding of their staff, and they showed empathy to their desires. They treat each member individually and have greater readiness for cooperation (Bass and Avolio, 1990).

Then the researcher conducted several tests (one sample) in order to investigate any differences between the leaders' perception of own leadership with their staff. The data showed that there are significant differences in agreement to Bass (1990), who acknowledged that subordinates may evaluate their leaders differently, mainly due to their own biases and stereotypical expectations. Staff differ from female managers perceptions significantly on specific leadership dimensions, on Idealised Behaviour, Idealised Attributes, Contingent Reward and Management by exception (passive). Staff found female leaders to be more effective than their own evaluations, they are satisfied and put extra effort when these leadership behaviours were exhibited. Additionally, staff evaluations differ with male managers on their evaluation of leadership, on Idealised Behaviour, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, Individualised Consideration, Contingent Reward, and Management by exception (passive). Additionally, they differ on effectiveness and satisfaction, as staff finds male leaders more effective than male leaders find themselves.

The findings suggest that staff value highly Idealised Behaviours (mean= 7,29/7,23) and Idealised Attributes (mean=3,75/3,92) exhibited by both male and female leaders. The means showed that Idealised Behaviour is the most important leadership dimension for staff. They want leaders who exhibit behaviours that encourage them to share common goals and visions, and to develop high levels of trust; they are

willing to work hard, to meet the most difficult objectives in order to ensure the success of the group (Bass and Avolio, 1990). Leaders in the interviews expressed similar views. Both male and female leaders reported that they should include the members of the team in decision-making, share ideas with them, however, female leaders pinpointed that they should be more assertive, whereas male managers believe they should be less assertive than they already are. All these statements fit the idealized behaviours in transformational leadership (Bass and Avolio, 1990). As it was discussed in the interviews, the demanding and challenging environment in the hotels in the study require female managers to be more controlling, but both genders should delegate. They should also avoid giving commands as staff has been found to disregard this behaviour. Staff also values their participation in the management and problem solving. Thus, they prefer leaders who share their vision and allow participation in management, another behaviour that complies with idealized behaviours (Bass and Avolio, 1990).

The dimension less valued by staff is Management by exception (passive) (mean= 2,6/2,41 respectively for male and female managers). Therefore, staff wants leaders who take action and do not wait until something goes wrong, or until someone brings what has happened to their attention (Bass and Avolio, 1990). In fact, leaders in the discussions expressed similar feelings. More specifically, female leaders stated that they want to be in control, to take actions on time. Moreover, all leaders in their discussions linked poor leadership with keeping distance with staff, and thus not knowing what happens within the group. Additionally, they found that poor leadership is exhibited when the leader is objective in his/her effort to evaluate staff performance and not their relationship. This behaviour resembles the management by exception (passive) and laissez faire leadership style, which are similarly not valued by staff in their use of the MLQ.

It is evident from the above, that staff differ significantly with leaders in the evaluations of the dimensions of leadership and prefer both female and male leaders who exhibit mainly behaviours of transformational leadership style. Similarly, Carless (1998) in her study found no difference in the leaders' evaluations of

transformational leadership, whereas in the same study female leaders reported in their self-evaluations that they exhibit more interpersonal related behaviour as it is also suggested by the interviews in this study. Staff in the present study evaluate supportive leaders positively, thus prefer "behaviour directed toward the satisfaction of subordinates' needs and preferences, such as displaying concern for the subordinates' welfare and creating a friendly and psychological supportive work environment" (House, 1996:327).

7.3 LEADERSHIP STYLE EFFECTIVENESS

Another objective of this thesis is to identify the most effective leadership style in hospitality management and more specifically whether transformational or transactional leadership is more effective. Additionally, it aims to investigate any gender differences on effectiveness of transformational or transactional leadership in the Greek hospitality industry. The findings suggest that transformational leadership is evaluated as the most effective leadership style in the Greek hospitality industry. Leadership has been viewed as the interaction between the leader and the followers, and it is influenced by the personality, the character even the psychology of the members, thus the most effective leadership style is not easily identifiable. Nevertheless, effectiveness is measured by staff satisfaction and "in terms of the leader's facilitation of a group or organisation's ability to meet its goals" (Eagly *et al.*, 1995:125). In addition, Thompson (2000) proposes that leadership effectiveness is measured in terms of how well the individual can balance all four leadership roles.

The findings suggest that female managers in their self-evaluations believe they are satisfied when they exhibit behaviours of Management by Exception (active). Therefore, female managers believe that they should focus on any mistakes their staff make, to monitor their performance and they need to know when things go wrong in order to be able to take corrective actions. Thus, they seem to believe that they should adopt more masculine characteristics in their leadership behaviour, which agrees with Eagly and Johnson (1990) and Oakley (2000) who suggest that in male-dominated environments women managers exhibit more stereotypically masculine

leadership styles. This agrees with the findings from the interviews where female managers repeatedly expressed the view that they should be more assertive in order to be more respected by their staff. They claimed that they are controlling their staff as they did not show much trust on their efficiency. Evidently, they believe they should check for mistakes, but at the same time they should be aware of what happens in their hotel or their department. Additionally, female managers in the study believe they are not effective when they exhibit Management by Exception (passive). Research showed that this behaviour is transactional and it is considered also to be ineffective (Vinnicombe and Singh, 2002:121). In fact, female managers described situations in which they were controlling and they were giving orders and they stated that this was not well received by their staff. These findings coincide with Eagly *et al.* (1992) and Gardiner and Tiggemann (1999) who propose that the devaluation of women in leadership roles was stronger when leaders occupied male-dominated roles and when their evaluators were men.

In evaluating female leaders their staff believe that female managers should exhibit more Inspirational Motivation, Individualized Consideration, and Contingent Reward, in order to be satisfied, to put extra effort into work and to find them effective. Indeed, Yammarino *et al.* (1993) suggest that individualised consideration is essential to followers' success, as it is a crucial element in followers' achievement of their full potential via close considerations of their development needs. Additionally, they believe female managers should show Idealized Attributes and less Intellectual Stimulation to be effective and Idealised Behaviours to inspire staff to put extra effort. They also seem to value Management by exception (active) for more satisfaction, but they would prefer female managers to exhibit less Management by exception (passive) behaviours. This view agrees with female managers' self-evaluations, as they consider this leadership dimension non-effective. They also do not want them to exhibit Laissez faire. Thus, they believe that female leaders bring about significant change. Oshagbemi and Gill (2003:295) claim that inspirational motivation is about change and is done "through articulating exciting possibilities, that are articulated clearly". Thus, staff found that female leaders are optimistic and envisage the future, therefore staff are encouraged to achieve extraordinary levels of

accomplishment. Female managers showed that there is a challenging future that staff strive to attain because they are personally interested. At the same time, staff valued when female leaders showed empathy to their needs and desires, thus each member of staff appreciated being seeing as an individual, and they were ready in this way to cooperate showing less evidence of competition among the members of the team. Similarly, they appreciated when female leaders allowed participation in the decision making, and when they received reward based on their accomplishments, regardless of the external and internal factors that also impact on their performance. Female managers in the study reported that they should understand people, their desires and needs. These characteristics resemble the inspirational motivation and individualized consideration attributes of transformational leadership style (Bass and Avolio, 1990). Moreover, humour and smile have been considered success factors by the participants in the study; confirming Brownell's (1994) study that interpersonal skills are success factors in hospitality management.

Similarly, male managers differ significantly in their perceptions of their leadership styles with their staff in the outcomes of their leadership style. The findings suggest that male managers relate their satisfaction with Idealized Behaviours and Intellectual Stimulation. They also believe that if they use Intellectual Stimulation, they will be more effective. Therefore, they believe they should show high level of trust, and encourage staff to share their vision (Sarros and Santora, 2001). In the interviews male managers confirmed this point as they proposed they include their staff in setting the goals of the team i.e. in weekly meetings. In addition, they are looking for different ways of solving problems (Bass, 1985) and getting others to this direction, thus they help their staff to become smarter and more creative; Rafferty and Griffin (2004) claim that this is considered as an essential component of leadership. This way, and in accordance to Bass and Avolio (1990) their staff will be able to find solutions and analyse problems with improved quality in the solutions they provide. They believe that they should not exhibit Idealised Attributes to be effective. Perhaps, they already believe that their staff trust them and believe in them. Further, staff evaluations of male managers showed that there was positive

correlation of satisfaction, efficiency and extra effort with the majority of transformational leadership style behaviours, as well as some transactional. Staff is satisfied, puts extra effort and finds them effective, when male leaders exhibit mainly behaviours of Idealized Behaviours and Contingent Reward. Additionally, they valued Intellectual Stimulation to put extra effort, as well as Inspirational Motivation for effective leadership and Idealised Attributes and Individualised consideration for their satisfaction. As staff prefer male leaders who exhibit intellectual stimulation, male managers increase their interest in finding other ways to solve problems, and they make them aware of any problems that may arise (Avolio and Bass, 2002; Lowe *et al*., 1996), whereas the findings suggest that the more female leaders exhibit this behaviour the less satisfied staff is.

In all outcomes of leadership staff did not value Management by exception (passive) and Laissez-faire behaviours, thus they expect male leaders to make decisions and be there when needed (Bass and Avolio, 1990). Therefore, staff expected male managers to encourage staff towards meeting the goals of the company, and showed strong sense of purpose and perseverance. In fact, the findings agreed with Kabacoff (1998) and suggested that male managers tended to be higher in aspects of vision creation, while females reported more vision implementation, as well as employee and team development. At the same time they want male leaders to show understanding of staff needs and desires and treat them as individuals. They need them to be supportive, in agreement to Avolio and Bass (1995:202) who claim that "the leader displays more frequent individualized consideration by showing general support to the efforts of followers". The findings coincide with Powell *et al.* (1984) who claim that women managers tend to show more concern for others than men do. Staff valued these behaviours, and showed that these behaviours will satisfy staff and they will in return trust male leaders. Furthermore, goal setting emerged as another element of leadership effectiveness. Not only should the leaders have goals for themselves, but also goals should reflect the organisational vision and manage staff towards meeting these goals. They should also provide guidelines to staff to meet the standards and the company goals. This description is similar to idealized behaviour as it is also discussed by Rafferty and Griffin (2004). In addition, they rate as

effective those male leaders who also showed inspirational motivation, thus they expect male leaders to be enthusiastic, and envisage the future in an optimistic manner (Bass and Avolio, 1990). These qualities according to Bass and Avolio (1990) move staff to achieve extraordinary levels of accomplishment, both in terms of performance as well as in own development. In this way and in agreement to Rafferty and Griffin (2004) and Bass (1999) male leaders articulate how the goals can be reached.

Moreover, both female and male leaders value good communication skills as they have repeatedly discussed this issue. They all believe that their staff should show respect to their managers not because of their position and the power they have, but due to their effectiveness and efficiency.

Finally, staff correlate Contingent Reward with all three outcomes of leadership for both male and female managers, therefore, they expect leaders not only to envisage the future to create trust, but also to do this in a clear and participative manner. Leaders use this leadership dimension to employ goal setting to help clarify what is expected of their staff and what they will receive for accomplishing the goals (Bass and Avolio, 1990). In fact, Bass (1990) suggests that with contingent reward leaders praise staff for their good work, and make recommendations for increase and promotion. Although Rosener (1990) and Eagly and Johannessen-Schmidt (1991) found that female managers scored higher in contingent reward leadership behaviours, this thesis proposes that male and female managers equally exhibit this leadership behaviours. At the same time of all the managers interviewed the female managers related effective leadership with control, discipline, performance control and reward more than male leaders. All these behaviours are linked with contingent reward attributes (Bass and Avolio, 1990). Leaders reported that rules, regulations and standards positively influence staff satisfaction. These leaders' assertions comply with contingent reward leaders who according to Burke and Collins (2001:245) are considered to establish work standards, and communicate these to their subordinates so that they know what rewards to expect for the good performance. In fact, interviewees agreed with staff evaluations of contingent reward. Staff values

participation in the decision-making, and leaders in the study reported that they facilitate this. However, they feel they should control procedures and processes, to ensure group effectiveness and success, a leadership style that Bass (1990) related to contingent reward. In fact, contemporary views on leadership effectiveness, encourage leaders who support teamwork and collaboration and emphasise empowerment and followers engagement (Hogg, 2001).

The above statements are in line with the study by Lowe *et al*. (1996) who have found that transformational leadership results to follower satisfaction, extra effort and ratings of leader effectiveness. They also confirm the view that transformational leadership also influences staff motivation and commitment and loyalty to the organisation (Shamir *et al*., 1993). Staff is motivated by leaders who transform followers' attitudes towards the achievement of the organisational goals (Yukl, 1999; Bass, 1990). Staff in the study significantly and positively correlated effectiveness with transformational leadership style, which has however, being found to be consistent with both genders. Manning (2002) affirms this and states that women and men in management have equal claim to transformational leadership. Helgesen (1995) and Rosener (1990) have related effective leadership with the ways women lead, but the findings suggested that it is related with the style and not the gender of the leader. More specifically, in response to research questions 6 and 7 it is evident that transformational leadership is found to be the most effective leadership style in the Greek hospitality industry. Thus, the model of transformational leadership can be applied across different national cultures, as it can be implemented in the context of this study. Although, the national culture (Mihail, 2006) and the sector (Erkutlu, 2008) are characterized as male-dominated transformational leadership may be used to address the challenges hospitality organisations are facing today. Similarly, Tracey and Hinkin (1996) and Erkutlu (2008) in their study found that transformational leadership is most effective for dynamic, changing environment. Additionally, as Papalexandris (1999) mentions Greeks are individualistic and usually fight against limitations, are inclined to question authority and show mistrust to superiors. Nevertheless, male and female managers in this study have managed with their use of transformational leadership to address these cultural issues and be considered

effective and efficient by their staff. This is a view that has also been supported by Chiang and Jang (2008) who claim that transformational leadership leads to trust. Male and female managers in the study have managed to adapt their leadership style to the national culture that tempers employees' characteristics and attitudes and they have managed to produce better performance outcomes in agreement to other studies (i.e. Kessapidou and Varsakelis, 2002). This view is also supported by Shane who claims that individualism encourages innovation and initiative (Shane, 1992). The findings suggest that male and female managers encourage initiative, which is valuable to the service sector (Erkutlu, 2008). Moreover, according to Kessapidou and Varsakelis (2002:273) "Greek people believe that the organisation they belong to has a great influence on their well-being and expect the organisation to look after them as a family". Thus, the managers in the study have managed to create such an environment with transformational leadership. 'Filotimo' reflects the working culture in Greek organisations. It is based on a sense of honour, dignity, loyalty and sense of duty (Mihail, 2006; Kessapidou and Varsakelis, 2002). Thus, managers in this study are considered effective by their staff when exhibiting transformational leadership, which is found to initiate the 'filotimo' of the hotel staff.

Overall, the findings suggest that staff correlated effectiveness more (mean=3,98) with female leaders behaviours of leadership than male leaders (mean=3,91), but these were not statistically significant. Therefore, it is suggested that female managers are considered to be equally effective with male managers in the study. This agrees mainly with male interviewees who believe that female leaders are more effective in their leadership role due to their gender, since they can be more polite, may be better at communication and better listeners, they are nurturing and undertake multiple tasks. Thus, effectiveness is linked with qualities and behaviours that the social role and gender role theory ascribes to women, but in this thesis both men and women are found to be effective when they exhibit these behaviours as their differences on the correlations with outcomes of leadership were not significant.

7.4 GENDER INFLUENCES ON TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Although many companies have opened their doors to women, very few women are still represented in decision-making positions, especially in the hotel sector. For example, Iverson (2000) claims that women have made progress in equality in the hospitality industry, however they are still under represented. Mihail (2006) suggests that in Greece, the corporate doors have not opened to women, and only a small number of women have managed to pass through them and advance to the upper levels of the managerial ladder. As Knutson and Schmidgall (1999) propose, women are important to the hospitality labour market and there has been an interest in the position of women in management and their position in male-dominated professions such as hospitality and tourism. Women in Greece are mainly found in high positions when they own the company (Mihail, 2006), thus it has been interesting to study the context of Greece, as well as the hotel sector that is male-dominated. In fact, the sample characteristics propose that there are very few women general managers in the hotel sector, and they are fewer than men in other managerial positions. There are however, many reasons given for or against gender differences in the leadership styles and behaviours of managers, as they will be subsequently analysed further. As women have started gaining leadership roles in organisations, it is important to understand the nature of their management and leadership style, and identify any similarities or differences of their leadership style, if any, between male and female leaders. Many have studied gender and gender and leadership, and some support the existence of differences between men and women and their leadership style, whereas others are against this view. Those who claim that differences exist, relate them with leaders' qualities, traits and behaviours. Therefore, they claim that "women leaders frequently exhibit a cooperative, empowering style that includes nurturing team members...and men are inclined toward a command-and-control, militaristic leadership style" (Oshagbemi and Gill, 2003:288). Additionally, they suggest that socialization develops different qualities in men and women and thus they have different leadership styles (Bass *et al*., 1996; Rosener, 1990; Helgesen, 1990). On the other hand, other studies support the non-existence of differences (Powell, 1993; Eagly and Karau, 1991; Eagly and Johnson, 1990), and claim that the potential

differences are not necessarily straightforward (Antonakis *et al*., 2003). Finally, there are those who suggest that male and female managers exhibit many similarities in their leadership styles, and more specifically in their transformational leadership (Galanaki *et al*., 2009).

The dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership indicate that in their self-ratings, male managers scored higher than female managers only in Idealised Attributes, Management by exception (passive) and Laissez-faire, whereas female managers scored higher than male managers in all other dimensions. At the same time, in staff evaluations male managers scored higher than female on Idealised Behaviours, Intellectual Stimulation, and Management be exception (passive), whereas female managers scored higher than male managers in the rest dimensions. Overall, female managers exhibited more transformational leadership, more than transactional, similarly male managers exhibited transformational leadership, who however scored slightly lower in these dimensions of leadership than female managers. In more details, male managers are found to exhibit more Idealised Behaviours (mean=7,29), then Idealised Attributes (mean=3,75), Management by exception (active) (mean=3,71), Inspirational Motivation and Intellectual Stimulation (mean=3,68), Individualised Consideration (mean=3,64) and then Contingent Reward (mean=3,44) and Management by exception (passive) (mean=2,6). Female managers scored higher in Idealised Behaviour (mean=7,23), Idealised Attributes (mean=3,92), Individualised Consideration (mean=3,44), Management be exception (active) (mean=3,84), Intellectual Stimulation (mean=3,77), Inspirational Motivation (mean=3,74), Contingent Reward (mean=3,44) and Management be exception (passive) (mean=2,41). These findings agree with male and female managers' views on their leadership at the interviews. In fact, as it has already been discussed male and female managers share common vision and goals with staff members, and they proposed they develop high levels of trust. In addition, they are appealing as they use simple words and symbols to make staff enthusiastic and to achieve extraordinary levels of accomplishment. However, male managers would prefer to communicate better with others. Whereas, female managers sometimes choose to be more assertive in order to be able to deal with some evidence of existing stereotypes. Olsson and

Walker (2003) found that male managers characterize female managers in their study through gendered lens. However, male interviewees did not propose that they expect their female counterparts to behave in gender related ways. In fact, male managers in the study value certain qualities women have and try to imitate them in order to face the challenges of the services industry.

Female managers in this study believed that sometimes they had to behave in a more masculine way, to be more assertive and controlling in order to gain the respect of their staff. Nevertheless, this behaviour is adapted to circumstances and situations and the challenges they face. Similarly, Oakley (2000) found a similar behavioural style among women leaders who downplay their own femininity in favour of more masculine behaviours that could be associated with leadership success. Female leaders in the hotels expressed the view that sometimes they have to adopt masculine behaviours because they are expected to do so not due to their gender, but due to their position in leadership and management. This means that women did not recognize a gendered lens, as they were perceived to behave in a certain way due to the position they hold in the company, since they have to make decisions and take control as managers. This leaders' view, however, was not linked with the under-representation of women in hotel management in any of the discussions; therefore, they did not accompany this with the limited number of women in the industry. Rather, they related this with the culture and the demanding nature of the hotel sector. Pettraki-Kottis (1996) in her study also found that there are less women than men in management in Greece, mainly to the glass ceiling issues such as family responsibilities, or other reasons related to their nature and upbringing. In fact, male managers for example, proposed that similarly, depending on the situation, they choose to adopt more feminine behaviours, and thus to be better listeners, to care about their staff interest and desires or choose to be nurturing. These are qualities ascribed mainly to women, but they choose this behaviour when appropriate. Many have argued that women strive to display behaviour that is businesslike and professional in order to be accredited as managers, but at the same time to be sufficiently feminine, so that they are not challenged about their gender (i.e. Eagly and Johnson, 1990). But, this study proposes that both men and women choose their

behaviour not based on how others expect them to behave, but on the way it is more appropriate in order to be effective and efficient.

Evidently, although there might be some expectations on how male and female managers should behave according to social role theory, and this may put pressure on how they will choose to behave, male and female managers in the study did not align their behaviour with these social roles in their leadership. This thesis proposes that adopting a more nurturing, participative and democratic style, that indeed according to Eagly *et al.* (1995) complies with the female gender role, does not necessarily mean that they will be evaluated significantly differently than male managers by others. However, as gender role stereotypes may persist, the leaders in the study are assuming context influences in their leadership behaviour (Hogg, 2001), and they adapt this in order to meet prototypical expectations of leaders in the context of the hospitality industry. This point affirms many studies on gender that establish similarities of styles and competencies between male and female managers (Olsson and Walker, 2003). Similarly, Eagly and Johnson (1990) concluded that female and male managers do not differ in their leadership style, they only tend to be more democratic. It also affirms Manning (2002:208) who claims that "transformational leadership is a style that may provide a way that women (and men) can integrate gender role and structural role demands". Moreover, Powell (1993:175) in her study noted that "women and men do not differ in their effectiveness as leaders, although some situations favour women and others favour men". The managers, both male and female, in this study blend the strong characteristics of masculinity and femininity (traits traditionally attributed to each gender) in order to be effective and efficient leaders.

Although, Rosener (1990) and Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) found that women showed greater contingent reward than men, this study suggests that they both exhibit similarly (mean=3,44) this behaviour according to their staff evaluations. Interestingly, Rafferty and Griffin (2004:334) indicate that in research studies "contingent reward is highly positively correlated with transformational leadership", when the reward is for their performance. Similarly, Goodwin *et al.*

(2001) found that contingent reward highly positively correlates with transformational leadership style. Hence this may be considered as another transformational leadership style attribute and not transactional.

The findings suggest that female managers exhibit more (mean=4.4490) than male managers (mean=4.405) transformational leadership behaviours, however, it seems that male managers adopt many of the characteristics and behaviours of women as there were no significant differences between the two. Transformational leadership was found to be effective, in agreement with other studies, for example Bass (1998) who suggests that these behaviours in managers have been widely linked to positive individual and organisational consequences. It also correlates with higher job, leader and organisational satisfaction of their employees (e.g. Manning, 2002). Therefore, the most exhibited leadership style is transformational, which is adopted by female managers and it has been imitated by male managers, as they have reported that when they exhibit feminine behaviours they seem to be more effective. However, female managers scored higher than male managers in their self-rating on transactional leadership, but lower when evaluated by their staff (See Graph 6.1). These findings agree with the interviews where female leaders exhibit mainly transformational leadership behaviours, with some evidence of contingent reward, while male managers are more transformational than transactional.

The above provide an argument to the debate of gender differences in leadership. Although, women are under represented in high managerial positions in Greece, and hotel management in Greece, they do not exhibit different styles from men in hotel management. Even though Greece and Greek hotel management are male-dominated, there are more similarities between male and female managers in 5* hotels in Greece. They are both found to be equally effective in leader roles. Male leaders have been found to use both punishment and rewards to influence performance, but at the same time they have seen that women's leadership behaviours also contribute to success so they imitate their style. Thus, male managers built upon interpersonal relationships and the sharing of power and information, a behaviour, which is typically related with transformational leadership. This lack of differences in

leadership is attributed as the findings suggest to the effort of female managers in Greek hotels to combine their gender role and leader role traits, and adapt it to the needs and challenges of the hospitality industry. Evidently, the leadership style adopted by female managers does not stop them from progressing in hotel management in Greece. Women's under-representation could be explained by other factors such the glass ceiling, and the challenges and demands of hotel management, as it is further discussed.

7.5 THE GLASS CEILING IN MANAGEMENT AND HOTEL MANAGEMENT IN GREECE

In order to gain insight into and knowledge of managers' own experiences and views about their leadership, the discussions were geared towards employment in the sector, and the elements of success. Due Billing and Alvesson (2000) suggest that masculinity and femininity are not fixed once, but may vary from changes in culture and context and meaning people ascribe to them. Therefore, one of the themes that emerged from the interviews was the glass ceiling. Both male and female managers discussed this topic and always seemed to be concerned about the challenges they face especially with employment in the hotel sector. In fact, the hospitality industry is still characterized by sex segregation in employment (Purcell, 1996). Jordan (1997) in her study confirms this and continues that gender stereotyping indicates what is identified as appropriate work for women or men. Tharenou (1998), Knutson and Schmidgall (1999), and Stelter (2002) provide a thorough analysis of the glass ceiling phenomenon, and of why women do not reach the senior management levels, they have identified the glass ceiling as an invisible barrier that prevents women from moving into senior management. For example, ILO (2009) reports that over 200 million of people are employed in the hospitality and tourism industry, but women represent only the 6.4 percent of employed people. Similarly, women in employment in tourism in Greece have the lowest participation rate and few are found in high positions (Eurostat, 2009). Many factors contribute to the phenomenon of the glass ceiling that reinforce and influence one another, such as gender stereotyping, gender roles and identity, the organisational culture and structure. The

factors that were identified by the managers in the study were clearly presented in Table 6.11.

Interestingly male managers in the study were not so much concerned about the phenomenon; they mainly focused on the reasons or factors they believe make women's advancement in hotel management more difficult than it is for them. Male participants did not suggest to have experienced any gender related barriers in their careers; nevertheless, they specifically discussed the problems that their female colleagues have. All male and female leaders suggested that there are many challenges in hotel management, which are mainly related to the nature and culture of the industry, where customers come first.

Gender stereotypes and gender roles were clearly recognised. In fact the demographics of the study showed that the majority of female managers are not married, or they are single, whereas more male managers are married. This point was discussed because the marital status has been linked with the convenience of people to pursue their careers (Marcos and Bahr, 2001). Clearly, the male more so than the female managers in the study pursued both marriage and general management positions. Although some stated that they were either divorced or remarried, the researcher did not keep such record, but the findings support the view that managers in the hospitality are either single or divorced (Maxwell, 1997:233).

Similarly, female participants suggested that they are challenged to balance family with work, due to long working hours and the demands of the sector with relocations and the personal sacrifices that are required. Male participants wondered how their female colleagues deal with this issue. They stated that they have their spouses' support, and they are those who take care of the family, whereas female managers in the study admitted that work may have caused problems to their marriage, while others have chosen not to have a family or other domestic related obligations. Powell and Graves (2003) propose that the hospitality industry is challenging women to carefully consider starting a family, making this stereotyping detrimental for their advancement. Further, Petraki-Kottis (1996:34) in her study claims that "despite the

continuously increasing number of women who are employed full-time and have successful careers in many professions in Greece, a relatively large number of the respondents felt that family responsibilities constitute an unsurpassable obstacle to women's participation in management".

Additionally, in agreement with the findings of this study, Altman *et al*. (2005) found that younger women are more likely to move in order to gain advancement, though this may have some negative effects on their personal life (Brownell, 1994). In addition, the career in hotel management requires career mobility (Ladkin, 2002), while the sector is prone to vocational mobility, with employees seeking job change in order to progress (Baum, 2007). The main problem as many female managers stated, was that many choose not to accept the challenges or make the required sacrifices for career progression, which also confirms Ely and Rhode's (2010) study. However, as this study also confirms, women in management in Greece select lifestyles that suit them and are prepared to balance family with work responsibilities (Petraki-Kottis, 1996), as few female managers proposed that good management and time management skills can be used to address the challenge of balancing work with family.

Furthermore, men were found to be promoted easier than women in managerial positions in hotels. The main hindering factor included family obligations and gender stereotypes. Some female managers have opted for stability rather than promotion, and in other cases it has been the manager's choice not to promote an employee due to her gender and assuming her gender related roles and obligations such as giving birth. This agrees with Mann's (2003:38) claim that success in the industry involves long hours and frequent geographical moves, as women in the study were reluctant to travel a lot, mainly due to their family obligations.

Trust was more often discussed by male managers, and it was proposed by all participants. Schein (2001) and Heilman (2001) claim that male managers perceive that effective managerial characteristics are more masculine and are likely to be held by men more than by women. Mihail (2006) claims that men are thought to be better

managers in the Greek hotel sector as well, though male managers in the study suggested that women may be better and more effective managers due to their feminine behaviours that seem to be more appropriate for the sector. Many have similarly documented that there is a preference for men in managerial roles (Eagly *et al.*, 1995), and Vecchio (2002) suggests that a good manager is the one who exhibits masculine characteristics, such as assertiveness, independence and willingness to take risks, whereas feminine characteristics include sensitivity, compassion and understanding. Eagly and Johnson (1990) suggest that men were more autocratic or directive than women, and women were more democratic or participative than men, which coincides with the findings of the interviews of this study. However, the findings suggest that both male and female manages in the study exhibit both types of behaviours. Men would like to become more sensitive or compassionate, and women to become more assertive. It seems that they adopted the opposite gender-related behaviours in order to be effective at work.

Additionally, research on culture characterizes Greece as a country with the highest 'uncertainty avoidance' index, and a masculine culture (Bourantas and Papadakis, 1997:14), but there is no clear evidence that showed specific patterns of behaviours to be considered as effective management characteristics. Van Vianen and Fischer (2002:318) claim that "women who achieve senior management positions usually resemble men in their personality and behaviour characteristics". Although managers, male or female, tend to exhibit masculine characteristics (Gregory, 1990), male-dominated environments may be difficult for women, but they are equally difficult for men, as they both have to learn to behave in masculine and feminine ways, so that they are positively evaluated. In fact, this coincides with Fondas (1997) who suggests that when something is labelled masculine or feminine it does not necessarily relate to the intrinsic characteristics of actual men or women, thus regardless of their gender, managers in the study choose behaviours that will lead to effective management and leadership. Further, Greek culture has been widely accepted as a masculine culture (Hofstede, 2001) where men are expected to be assertive, while women to be modest and tender affirming Olsson and Walker's (2003) study. The findings agree with Helgesen (1990) and Rosener (1995) who

claim that gender resistance perspectives led to work emphasizing that 'women's ways of leading' and their relational skills and intuitive mode of thinking were not deficiencies to be overcome, but advantages for corporate effectiveness. In view of this the findings suggested that male managers proposed that women are equally competent and effective and they treat them as equals. The participants confirmed Fondas' (1997) work since they adopt leadership behaviours that are found more appropriate.

Female managers suggested that it is difficult to 'be one of the boys', and according to Maxwell (2000) and Knutson and Schmidgall (1999) this is evident in hospitality as well, thus they have to prove their skills, to be effective and productive. Although, effectiveness and productivity concern both male and female managers, female managers in the study implied that they have to work harder to gain respect and advance in the hierarchy mainly due to some people who still value the masculine managerial style in hospitality. This agrees with Olsson and Walker (2003:395) who found in their study that "women had to work harder than men to achieve the same recognition". In addition, Ng and Pine (2003) claim that hard work is a contributor to success in hospitality management.

Moreover, respect is related to experience and knowledge of the industry, mainly by female managers. Goal-setting has also been identified by female managers in the study, and at the same time they value knowledge management and transmission of knowledge to their staff. Furthermore, in relating these findings with the demographics of the participant leaders, it is evident that more women than men have a four year degrees (bachelor), and a postgraduate degree (master). Thus, women put more emphasis on typical qualifications gained with studies, because, as it has been stated, they believe that their staff respect them more and trust them more if they showed knowledge of the industry. The findings coincide with Eagly and Carli (2007) who state that women not only attain more education than a couple of decades ago, they also seem to attain more education than their male counterparts.

Furthermore, more factors were identified that relate to the nature and culture of the hospitality industry. More specifically, they characterized their hotels as customer and people oriented, thus their behaviour should be gentle, polite and hospitable confirming other studies (i.e. Erkutlu, 2008; Pittaway *et al.,* 1998). Good communication skills were considered important and male managers interestingly admitted that their female colleagues communicate better when dealing with the customers and the suppliers and other stakeholders in the industry.

Moreover, staff motivation and training were considered an important factor of effective hotel management, mainly by female managers who help them face the challenge of the glass ceiling. It is assumed that male participants were not concerned so much with staff training. Eagly and Johnson (1990) similarly suggest that women in management tend to have a more relationship-oriented style of leadership that emphasizes supporting and developing staff. Nevertheless, both male and female managers value mentoring opportunities. In fact, research shows that women have few role models since few senior women are found in male-dominated companies (Vinnicombe and Singh, 2002). These views agree with Klenke (1996) who suggests that mentoring has benefits such as greater work success and more job satisfaction for those who are mentored. He also adds that mentoring is especially important for women, because it allows them to be more visible to organisational decision makers and therefore, may be given the opportunity to advance. All leaders in this study wanted their staff to be satisfied and meet their needs and desires and in this way they believed their staff will put more effort at work and will be able to face the industry related challenges such long hours, demanding customers and other.

Many proposed that the culture has started changing with more opportunities being available for women. They all agreed that the hotel sector is still male-dominated, and stereotypes still exist, but women are given more opportunities to progress, mainly however, in traditionally female dominated departments such as Guest Relations, Front Office and Housekeeping. Powell and Graves (2003) confirm this point and add that organisations have started creating such an environment, structures and culture where women may progress. Hence, as Berta (2006) found in a study in
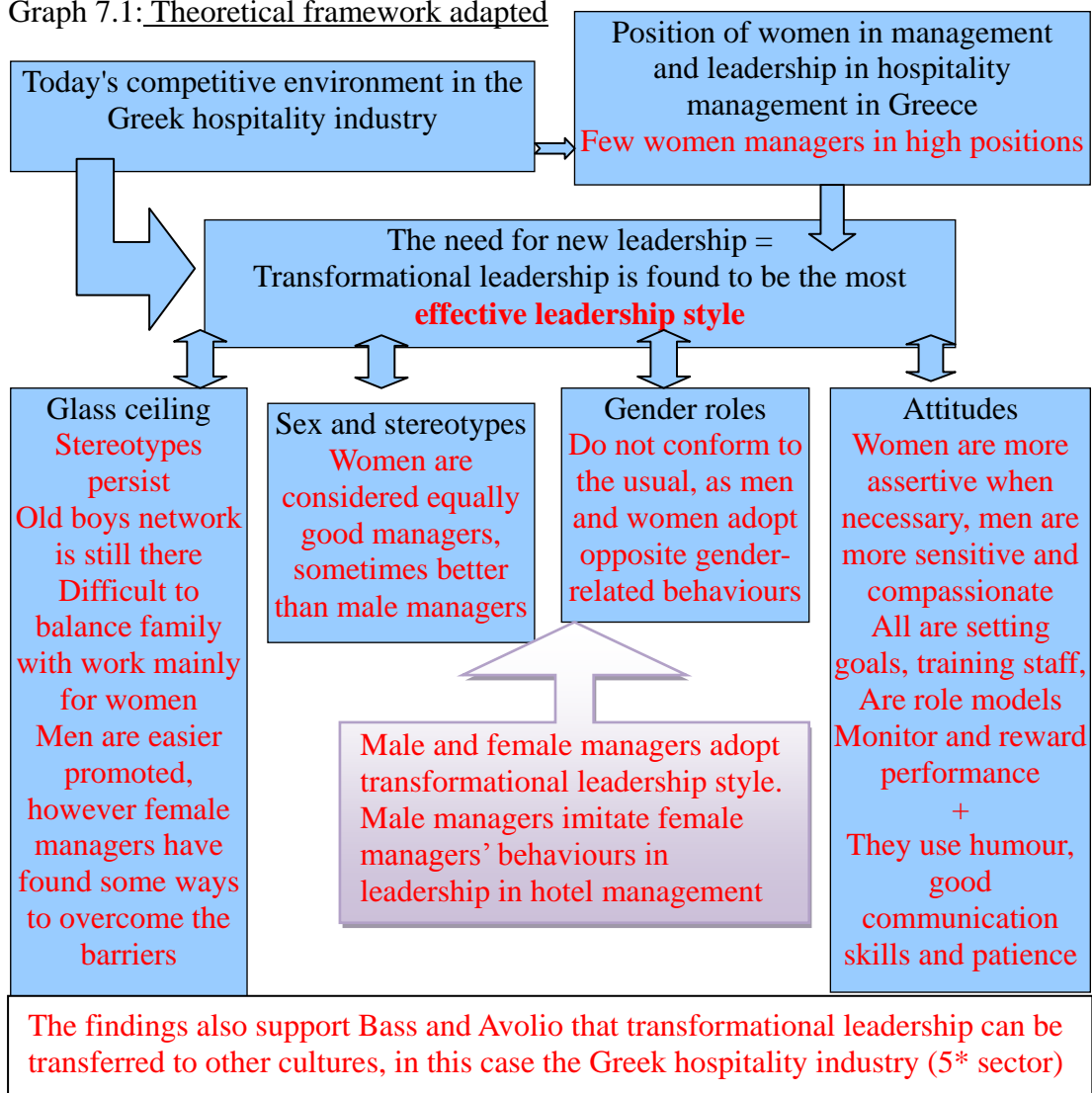
the food sector, when women are elevated in leadership positions, the industry improves its performance, the hotel sector as well may benefit from the talent and skills of female managers. More specifically, male participants believed that women will have a bright future in the industry, as long as they and the companies realize how much they will benefit from this. In agreement, Vinnicombe and Singh (2002) found that male participants valued women, and they think that they are as successful as men in the organisation. In fact, women are found to be 'twice as good as a man' (Eagly *et al*., 1995:127), thus they may be more competent and qualified. Nevertheless, hotel managers regardless of their gender have to develop competencies across a variety of departments, offering more career opportunities and higher salary levels (Carbery *et al.,* 2003). Moreover, bias and sex stereotypes are still evident, since the industry is male-dominated, in support of Cobb and Dunlop's (1999) suggestion that a gender gap still exists in promoting women, even though most of the promotions are based on performance. Nevertheless, women in the study have started aiming at higher positions and passing by the anticipated glass ceiling barriers. They are willing to risk, except for a few cases, and apply for leadership positions, in contrast to other studies such as the one from Powell and Butterfield (1994) who claim that women do not apply for these positions due to the glass ceiling barriers.

Finally, the findings suggest that the glass ceiling in the Greek 5* hotel sector refers to the barriers that women and men face, such as the long working hours and in general the demands of the sector rather than the stereotypical discrimination and the ascribed gender roles and bias. Women in management choose such career strategies, so as to overcome the 'old boys network' and participate more in management. They also adapt their behaviours in order to be considered effective and efficient by their staff. And finally, barriers are common to both female and male managers and these are related to the context and culture of the hospitality industry; for example the long working hours, the customer demands, the relocation for promotion and others.

7.6 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK REVIEWED AND CHAPTER CONCLUSION

Summarising the above, it is proposed that managers in the study are a group that do not conform to gender stereotypes of either having no differences or having differences in exhibiting leadership in hotel management. In contrast to Fondas (1997:258) suggestion that "women are less likely to blow their own horn", both female and male managers in this study have stamped their companies with their attitudes, practices and leadership behaviour. Managers in the study are more concerned about leading effectively, rather than representing gender differentiated leadership roles. Although there is the stereotypical view that favours men in management, the attitudes towards women who hold managerial and leadership positions in the Greek 5* hotel sector are positive, and people believe that they can be equally successful and effective. The theoretical framework presented in chapter 4 is now adapted (in red) to the research findings as it is illustrated in Graph 7.1.

Graph 7.1: Theoretical framework adapted

Today's competitive environment in the Greek hospitality industry

Position of women in management and leadership in hospitality management in Greece
Few women managers in high positions

The need for new leadership =
Transformational leadership is found to be the most **effective leadership style**

Glass ceiling
Stereotypes persist
Old boys network is still there
Difficult to balance family with work mainly for women
Men are easier promoted, however female managers have found some ways to overcome the barriers

Sex and stereotypes
Women are considered equally good managers, sometimes better than male managers

Male and female managers adopt transformational leadership style. Male managers imitate female managers' behaviours in leadership in hotel management

Gender roles
Do not conform to the usual, as men and women adopt opposite gender-related behaviours

Attitudes
Women are more assertive when necessary, men are more sensitive and compassionate
All are setting goals, training staff, Are role models Monitor and reward performance
+
They use humour, good communication skills and patience

The findings also support Bass and Avolio that transformational leadership can be transferred to other cultures, in this case the Greek hospitality industry (5* sector)

Women have made great strides toward progressing in management and in hospitality management, yet they continue to be under-represented in high managerial positions in Greek 5* hotels. At the same time hospitality organisations have to improve their performance, to anticipate change, and face the fierce competition. In this environment, effective leadership may be essential to ensure that they will be effective and efficient. As it has been discussed, the hospitality industry is labour intensive and has demands and challenges, thus leadership may help organisations to utilise human resources more effectively. Hotel managers use different leadership behaviours and attitudes in the work setting. As the hospitality industry is a services industry, it requires managers to communicate with staff and guests, to be ready to face changes, to provide initiative and create loyal employees. Adequate and effective leadership may result to higher employee satisfaction, commitment and productivity.

The Greek hospitality industry is male-dominated, as the majority of employees are men. In this masculine society the leadership style that is more valued is transformational leadership complemented by contingent reward behaviours. People in the study prefer leaders who have a vision that is clearly communicated. Managers who involve them in the decision-making, who delegate, who reward performance and consider the individual's needs and desires, and act as the role model, encompassing trust and enthusiasm, thus making staff exited about the future of the company. Staff expectations thus are not influenced by the general gender related expectations about behaviour of leaders. They find transformational leadership more effective leadership style, and women leaders more effective in their transformational leadership behaviour than male leaders, but the difference is not statistically significant.

Furthermore, it is suggested that the main difference is that female managers in the study adopt a more democratic leadership style flavoured with some assertiveness and this style is influenced by their personality and ability differences such as social skills, but male managers in the study have found these female skills more effective in (hotel) management and they have started adopting them as well. These have also

been found to be highly valued by staff. Thus, the view that is supported by other studies i.e. Eagly *et al.* (1995) that male leaders adopt respectively masculine leadership style and that female leaders feminine leadership style, has been rejected in this thesis. The findings suggest a combination of qualities and attributes adopted by each individual leader and that the leaders should be 'out of role' in gender defined terms to be perceived effectively. Although the culture is mainly masculine, there are more similarities between male and female managers in the 5* hotel sector in Greece. Both male and female managers adapt their leadership style depending on the circumstances. They both exhibit transformational leadership style, which is found to lead to effectiveness and efficiency and to staff satisfaction. Interestingly, this study proposes that male managers imitate female behaviours in leadership, as they have found that their female counterparts' leadership style is more effective for hospitality management. This has mainly been based on the particular features of hospitality management and the context in which managers operate. Additionally, this thesis proposes that both male and female behaviours and leadership are valued in hospitality in Greece, thus this may open the doors for women to progress further and go higher in the hierarchy.

Moreover, the context of the Greek hospitality industry has been found to be stopping women to progress in Greece. The leadership style is not considered in this study to explain women's under-representation in the industry. Other features that characterise hotel management prevent women from progressing, such as long hours, conflict between work and family, the need to relocate to be promoted, discriminatory practices, shift work, stereotypes and other, which however, female managers in the study have identified and try to overcome. The findings provide some evidence that the Greek hospitality industry provides some opportunities for women managers. Finally, in this context transformational leadership, as it has been presented by Bass and Avolio, is a model that can be applied to the Greek culture successfully.

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSIONS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Having discussed the findings, the analysis and the literature review in previous sections, this chapter presents the thesis implications to the context of the Greek hospitality industry on gender and transformational leadership issues. Additionally, it identifies the contribution to knowledge and the research gap that it addresses. Then the research limitations are discussed in order to highlight the potential for future research on aspects and issues that were not the aim or the purpose of this thesis. In conclusion this thesis confirms the studies on gender and transformational leadership that support the non- existence of differences. It is worth noting that there are more similarities than differences found in this study in the leadership styles and behaviours of hospitality managers in Greece unlike the findings in other studies.

8.2 CONTRIBUTIONS TO KNOWLEDGE AND IMPLICATIONS FOR HOSPITALITY AND WOMEN MANAGERS

The theoretical contributions are based on the findings and pinpoint the most important conclusions of the thesis. They are organized in such a way so as to respond to the thesis research questions. In fact, findings suggest that the survey and interview data complement one another. This thesis contributes to the knowledge of gender and transformational leadership in the context of the hospitality industry in Greece. The researcher identified a gap in knowledge and research, as most relevant research has not been recently conducted in the field of gender and transformational leadership and in particular in hospitality in Greece. In fact, there is paucity of research on gender and transformational leadership in hospitality, in view to leaders' perceptions of leadership as well as their followers' and to the context as it emerged from the findings. Leadership and the position of women in management (and hotel management) have not been researched in the Greek context (Mihail, 2006) at all and this created an interesting starting point in the study. Additionally, there are a few

studies that have focused on leadership, however very few exist on leadership and gender issues in the hotel sector, and the behaviours, attitudes, attributes of hotel managers as well as the organisational culture that influences managerial behaviours (Erkutlu, 2008; Pittaway *et al*., 1998; Brownell, 1994).

In the beginning the author was concerned with whether and how gender influences transformational leadership style exhibited by managers in the Greek hospitality industry. Calas and Smircich (1996:223) propose that research on transformational leadership and gender has been found to be limited, while, other studies propose that gender has been conceptualized in a simplistic way in relation to leadership and transformational leadership (Kark, 2004:164). Additionally, Bryman (1996) claims that most mainstream leadership has been positivist and quantitative, and grasps the empirical world, in support of the concerns of the business world by delivering objective findings. As Olsson and Walker (2003:388) suggest "there is an urgent need for practicing business researchers to scale the barricades of positivism's epistemological roadblocks and thereby develop a more pluralistic approach, and hence a better-informed understanding". As such, this thesis makes a methodological contribution with the use of survey questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The researcher conducted qualitative research, to complement the quantitative findings of the position of women in management and the leadership style exhibited in the hotel sector by male and female managers, by presenting their views on their leadership styles and their effectiveness as leaders in the context of the Greek hospitality industry. Youssef (1998) claims that there is paucity of empirical research to combine the organisational factors with the leadership style, thus this thesis covers this gap in research as it links gender and transformational leadership with the context of the study. Therefore, this thesis studied not only the most preferred and effective leadership style, but also the context of the industry and how it influenced the leaders' choices of behaviours.

This thesis proposes that transformational leadership is the most effective leadership style in hospitality management in Greece, however, depending on the situation, hotel managers in the study choose the most appropriate behaviours, in order to be

effective, hence managers in this study tend towards being participative, but may use an autocratic more controlling approach when the situation demands it. The findings confirm Gardiner and Tiggeman (1999) who claim that women adjust their behaviours to their male counterparts' leadership behaviours. Similarly, this study affirms the studies by Peters and Kabacoff (2002) and Connell (2009) that propose that managers lead similarly at the top. Therefore, hotel managers show similarities in their behaviours and leadership style. Furthermore, the effectiveness of leadership styles has been a topic for many studies (i.e. Avolio, 1999; Bass and Avolio, 1994; Howell and Avolio, 1993), but no studies are found in leadership effectiveness in hospitality. Hospitality research is unique and its focus is more on specific problems and concerns of the industry rather than a discipline (Erkutlu, 2008). The research in hospitality is diverse encompassing broad areas of interest, thus research is mainly conducted on tourism and tourist related issues, rather than human resources and social aspects.

The findings suggest that gender does not make significant difference in agreement (?)with many other studies. Male and female managers in this study exhibit similar leadership style, which is transformational leadership. The Greek hotel sector explored in the study is male-dominated, and gender relations are influenced by the patriarchal power, as in other western capitalist societies. This study is in agreement with Giddens (2001:119) who claims that in these societies "from the individual to the institutional level, various types of masculinity and femininity are arranged around a central premise: the dominance of men and women". Although, gender stereotypes and gender bias persist in management in the context of the study (Greece), as some view women differently than men, participants in the study seem to be more preoccupied with the leaders' behaviour rather than their gender. Merrick (2002) suggests that overcoming gender stereotypes is difficult but not impossible, and this thesis similarly shows that people who work in hotels in Greece have overcome gender stereotypes as they equally find male and female managers effective in their transformational leadership. It also confirms Marcos and Bahr (2001) who propose that Greek gender attitudes and behaviours have become more egalitarian, and women contribute to the family as well as to the family's income. It

also agrees with Papalexandris *et al*. (2006) claim that female managers are more accepted in their study. This study proposes that attitudes towards women as managers in the Greek hotel sector have changed and they may now undertake leadership roles, as their female traits are significantly valued in the industry. Similarly, in this study female hotel managers are accepted by both their male colleagues as well as their followers. Although Sinclair (1997:6) states that "access to occupation is determined by patriarchal relations which involve men's control over women's labour results in women's employment in low wage jobs, continued dependence upon men and greater unpaid work within the household", the findings suggest that few women are employed in high positions in hotels in the study. It is however, interesting that the researcher could not find enough general managers in 5* hotels in the areas she studied. As it has already been mentioned in the methodology, in the whole Crete, there are only 3 general managers in 5* hotels. In addition, those found in other areas were also the owners, who occupied the position due to the ownership status. This means, that women managers have still some way to go. Nevertheless, male managers and staff in the study believe on women's potential, and stereotypes, although they still exist in the masculine Greek hotel sector, do not prevent women managers from progressing. Opportunities are offered to women in hotel management in Greece, as attitudes towards women as managers in relation with their ability to assume leadership roles are no longer barriers to undertaking positions of responsibility.

The findings suggest that their male counterparts considered female managers more effective managers, however their differences were not statistically significant. But still transformational leadership is the more preferred exhibited style and the one found to be more effective for both male and female managers in the context of Greek hospitality management. Thus, although many studies suggest that transformational leadership is a feminine leadership style adopted mainly by women (i.e. Carless, 1998; Helgesen, 1990), male managers in this study adopt this leadership style as well, in agreement to Olsson (2002) who proposes that male leaders are transformed to transformational leaders. Leadership is seen as a social

process that involves the leaders, their followers and social situations and organisational culture is found to filter how leadership will influence the organisation's performance (Xenikou and Simosi, 2006). In the Greek hospitality management context, followers in the study find their managers' leadership style effective, as long as it ascribes to transformational leadership behaviours flavoured with contingent reward attributes. This style is appropriate in the hotel sector that is characterized by team working, is adaptive, dynamic, creative and flexible. Bass (1998) also claims that transformational leadership includes intellectual stimulation that stimulates followers to be creative and innovative, and these leaders inspire their staff to reach the company goals in different ways. The hotel sector is people oriented and requires organisations to be flexible, to have information sharing, partnerships, teamwork spirit and trust. The best managers in this case are those who listen, motivate and provide support to people, they inspire and influence rather than control. Although, women's leadership style is considered to be better, male and female leaders in the study are equally effective, and exhibit transformational leadership. The findings affirm Day (2001) that leadership effectiveness depends upon an individual fit, with demands of a particular situation in which the leader operates. As it has been argued, Bass and Avolio's model of transformational leadership can be applied successfully across different cultures, as transformational leadership is found to be relevant in the Greek context.

Leader roles are changing in management and hospitality management, in order to meet the demands of the changes in the environment, the challenges in employment such as the increased workforce diversity and the intensive competition pressures to organisations and their staff. The hospitality and tourism industry is characterized by uncertainty and unpredictability (Erkutlu, 2008; Pittaway *et al*., 1998). Change is continuous in this context, and leaders have to be able to change accordingly and adapt their behaviours. Change occurs due to growing global competition, demographic changes of employees and rapid development of technology (Erkutlu, 2008). These changes create challenges to hospitality managers as they face changes of organisational structure and culture, and they also provide emotional assistance to their employees during the times of change. At the same time, as Barker (2001)

proposes, the social systems adapt to these changes and do not stay stable for long periods of time. All these have implications on how work is done and organisations are asked to practice collaborations and interact better with the society (Martin and Ernst, 2005) and so are their leaders, who are now required to have a new set of competencies and leadership style. In the context of Greek hotel management, managers regardless of their gender should adapt their leadership style to the new requirements, thus in some conditions they have to use a more democratic style, and in others a more autocratic style in order to accomplish the organisational goals. This thesis also proposes that these leaders are required to be able to examine and have knowledge of their organisations, use vision to recognize the changes and create trust with the staff, enthusiasm and commitment and to be able to manage all these in order to be effective. The leadership style proposed in this study addresses the concerns of the past, where the leader manager was required mainly to deal with daily routine and operations. Now, the leader has to adapt to change and this style will help towards meeting organisational goals, to deal with the pressure of change, to survive, to improve financial performance and deal successfully with the new environment. Interestingly, the leaders' perception of their leadership style in their self-evaluations differs from their subordinates' perception of the leaders' style, however, leaders should know how their employees feel about them and develop skills that would make them efficient and provide staff satisfaction.

Evidently, the most effective leadership style is transformational leadership behaviour that is exhibited by both male and female leaders in the study, and coincides with other studies such as Erkutlu (2008), Kark (2004), Manning (2002), Bass and Avolio (1993), Hollander (1992) and Powell (1990, 1993). Men and women are found to be equally effective in leading and managing hotel employees coinciding with other claims that men and women who occupy the same leadership role would behave similarly. Moreover, female managers in the study are more people-oriented than men, but just as task-oriented. Women are more likely to be involved in what others are doing in order to reward their performance rather than being controlling. The female leaders in the study propose they should adopt more

often masculine characteristics and behaviours not only to gain and maintain their staff respect and royalty, but also to effectively manage and lead. At the same time, the male leaders indicate that they should be more feminine in their behaviour and less assertive, thus they should learn to communicate better and be more interested in their subordinates' interests, needs and desires. Thus, this thesis claims that male managers in the Greek hospitality industry imitate their female colleagues' behaviours in order to be effective and efficient. The control and demand style of managing others, a style generally associated with men (Rosener, 1990), is not the way to success in hotel management in Greece. The more appropriate style is one that could be considered androgynous, where, however, the two sexes do not lose any of their gender attributes. This androgynous style is flexible to responds to a variety of contexts. Hence, the managers in this industry should be directive, task-oriented but their approach should be softened by caring, supportive behaviours. Thus, they should exhibit transformational leadership style enriched with contingent reward.

As it has already been discussed, the leaders vary in their perceptions of leadership with their subordinates. It is assumed that they considered they had already exhibited gender related behaviours and they had expressed their views on how they should be. Female managers find themselves in their self-ratings more effective than their staff evaluations. Perhaps because it is suggested that opportunities for women in employment in hospitality management in Greece have improved, and this creates the impression of being more effective. The findings suggest that attitudes towards women as managers have changed and they may now undertake leadership roles, as their female traits are significantly valued in management. In addition, it is evident that nowadays hospitality organisations are having more and more women in managerial positions and as more people experience women in leadership roles women leaders may elicit less negative reactions (Powell and Graves, 2003:142). Although the glass ceiling exists in the study, in agreement to Mihail's (2006) proposal that gender stereotyping is still prevalent with Greek workplace, and gender still influences attitudes towards women as managers, this thesis proposes that in the luxury hotel sector in Greece some stereotypes still exist, but women have found ways to shatter the glass ceiling and advance in management, mainly via their

transformational leadership behaviours. Although, Ntermanakis (2003:33) supports in his study that 36.6 percent of male and 35 percent of female employees in tourism leave the tourism industry due to personal or family reasons, the managers in this study propose that they try to combine work with family obligations, at least those who have a family. The thesis findings agree with Bennis and Thomas (2002:39) arguement that leadership "can be understood as deriving from a mixture of time, place, predisposition and potential".

Finally, as Storey (2004) proposes the industry sector and culture influence the type of leadership, the thesis proposes that the consultive (consultation?) and participative leadership style as expressed by transformational leadership are preferred in management in the context of the Greek upscale hotel sector. Bourantas and Papadakis (1997) claim that the need for self-esteem is very strong in Greeks and it stems from 'filotimo'. In support to this view, this thesis proposes that hotel leaders should enhance the subordinates' self-esteem and reward their performance rather than the completion of the task. These rewards should ensure the development of equitable treatment of all employees regardless their gender. The hotel staff in the study prefers leaders who are authentic, who encourage them to share the organisational vision, and who are excited over a challenging future. They are in favour of rational approaches to problem solving, but at the same time they prefer to participate in the decision-making, and to be allowed to make decisions themselves. They also value rewards based on their performance and they are satisfied when their managers identify their mistakes and together find innovative ways to solve them. Female leaders expressed the view that sometimes they have to adopt masculine behaviours because they are expected to do so, due to their position in leadership. They recognized a gendered lens, where they are perceived to behave in a certain way due to the position they hold in the company, since they have to make decisions and take control and not their gender. This leaders' view, however, has not been linked with the under-representation of women in hotel management; therefore, they did not accompany this with the limited number of women in the industry, as the leadership style is not a factor stopping women from progressing in Greek hotel management; on the contrary it has helped them go higher and gain managerial

positions. In fact, participants in the study related women's under-representation with the culture and the demanding nature of the hotel sector. In fact, they propose that similarly depending on the situation they choose to adopt more feminine behaviours, and thus be better listeners, care about their staff interest and desires or be nurturing. These are qualities ascribed mainly to women, but they choose this aspect when the circumstances demand it. At the same time they are more controlling and assertive depending the circumstances. Many have argued that women strive to display behaviour that is businesslike and professional in order to be accredited as managers, but at the same time to be sufficiently feminine, so that they are not challenged about their gender (i.e. Eagly and Johnson, 1990). Nevertheless, male and female hotel managers lead in similar ways in order to be effective and meet the organisational goals. Women's under-representation in hotel management in Greece could be explained by other features that mainly relate with the characteristics of work in the hotel sector and the glass ceiling. Nevertheless, this thesis proposes that women managers in the Greek hotel sector are empowered to break through the glass ceiling with proper training, as well as policies and practices in the workplace and at practicing transformational leadership.

8.3 RESEARCH LIMITATIONS

The main limitation of the thesis is the choice of the participants that may be considered biased. Due to the heavy workload of managers in the study, the researcher allowed them to distribute the questionnaires to their team members. Thus, participants may have been biased in their responses to the study questions.

The limitations of this thesis focus also on the subordinates, their culture, their demographics even their gender and how these may have influenced their preferred leadership style. The author has not included the years of experience the managers have in order to test how these may influence the subordinates' views. Yammarino and Bass (1990) suggest that the appropriate level of analysis for understanding subordinates' ratings of their leaders should be conducted within groups and as such, all followers' characteristics and in this context gender, should be explored.

Additionally, the researcher operated under the assumption that leaders influence employees' attitudes. However, it is possible that followers' attitudes influenced their ratings of their group leaders. It is worth noting that the sample is composed of research participants in the hotel sector, thus generalizability of the findings to other prominent types of similar business is not known.

Bass (1985) states that the environment and the organisational characteristics may influence transformational leadership and how it impacts on its effectiveness. However, this study has explored mainly the context of hotels in Greece, and not the specific organisational characteristics such as culture, types, ownership and other. Gender is often confounded with other variables such as status (Doherty, 1997), hierarchical level in the organisation (Denmark, 1993), organisational type (Gardinner and Tiggeman, 1999) and number and characteristics of subordinates (Druskat, 1994) that may explain the differences between men and women.

Furthermore, some may claim that relationships found between effectiveness and transformational leadership are bound to the extend to which the MLQ accurately captures the constructs. Another limitation according to Sarros and Santora (2001) concerning the MLQ is that the four transformational behaviours are so highly inter-correlated that their separate effects cannot be clearly identified. However, interviews were also conducted in an effort to reduce this limitation.

Finally, the fieldwork took place right before the financial crisis hit Greece and especially Greek tourism, therefore, the results may have been different when many problems and challenges exist for hotel managers. Kearsley (2005) suggests that leadership is important in times of economic downturn, thus leadership may be studied in crisis times.

8.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The study focuses on the theoretical basis of transformational leadership and differentiates more specific leadership dimensions. Analysis suggests that these dimensions have practical value for organisations and encourages further research into the nature and impact of transformational leadership. Pawar and Eastman (1997:82) argue that there is a "need to study the nature of contextual influences on the transformational leadership process". In fact, many (Antonakis and Atwater, 2002; Waldman and Yammarino, 1999; Bass, 1998; Lowe *et al.*, 1996) have identified three contextual factors that could theoretically affect the factor structure of the MLQ, environmental risk, leaders hierarchical level, and leader-follower gender. This research took place in the 5* hotel sector in Greece, thus another study could be conducted to other types of hotels, i.e. 3* or 4* to investigate how their structure or culture may influence the managers' leadership styles. Another distinction may be considered based on the ownership of the organisations as it may influence the results. Stelter (2004) suggests that the organisational size, the strategy, and the technology are likely to influence different demands on leadership.

Bass (1985), Lowe *et al.* (1996) and others suggest that results in the study of leadership vary not only on sample characteristics but also on organisational, such as organisational type or level of the leader. For example, Storey (2004:18) suggests that leadership may differ in different national cultures; therefore, in order to be able to generalize the findings of this thesis, research should be conducted in other countries as well, with similar or different culture, to see if transformational leadership is the most effective style in hospitality. Additionally, another study could be done to explore how the national culture influences the leadership styles that hotel managers exhibit, or the preferred style by hotel employees, as Brodbeck *et al.* (2002 cited in Storey, 2004:19) claim that there might be different expectations about leaders in different cultures. It would even be interesting to study the particular similarities and differences between genders within countries.

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Additionally, this study may be taken further to explore whether the followers' gender influences their evaluations of leaders and leaders effectiveness. In view of the sample characteristics another study may be conducted to explore in depth how their years of experience and education impact on their leadership style and effectiveness. Moreover, many argue that the behaviours demonstrated by high and low level leaders are often qualitatively different (i.e. Antonakis *et al.*, 2003). Therefore, future research may study how gender influences leadership style studied at different levels in the hierarchy of organisations with the use of more qualitative methods, i.e. observation or focus groups.

It would also be interesting to study whether these findings apply to other professions in the services industries, i.e. in banking.

Finally, the researcher proposes that future hospitality research on leadership should be undertaken based on clear justification and theoretical framework, as future researchers should further research existing findings and use previously applied theoretical approaches and methods where appropriate.

8.5 REFLECTIONS ON THE RESEARCH JOURNEY

This thesis is the result of a long process that one could say started when the researcher was at a very young age. In fact, ever since I was 10-11 years old I wanted to do a Phd. Although, when I completed my postgraduate studies I tried to apply for a scholarship to continue my studies, I was successful, but I have managed to study for this degree only recently. The journey has been very long, as the initial interest in searching for topics to study was around 2000. However, only until my supervisor at work seemed to have had some issues with women at work and management was the idea born and the topic developed. Thus, the interest was focused on women and how they manage, and especially whether they differ from men. The first proposal submitted to the university mainly focused on the barriers that women face in

management. Nevertheless, reading on the topic showed that there is nothing more to discover than what has already been done. Therefore, the researcher changed the focus to gender issues, and how they influence the leadership styles that male and female managers exhibit. As the researcher's background is in hospitality and tourism management, she decided to focus on this particular sector.

The most positive experience has been the participation in conferences with papers from the research conducted for this thesis. The feedback on the work, the comments as well as meeting so many interesting people has been a reward for all this time spent. Additionally, the interaction with so many people in hotels all over Greece, the experience of interviewing them has changed the way the researcher thought about her topic in the beginning. In the beginning, she was actually convinced the women lead differently, that they are better managers and that men are not so competent. This biased view of women in management influenced the way I designed the study. In the beginning I was planning to interview only female managers, however after discussion with the supervisor I realized I should also interview male managers in order to be able to compare and find out what happens in management and the position of women in hotel management in Greece. It was also interesting that female managers in the study were very much interested in the topic and the results of the study. Male managers were more relaxed which also contributed to the management of the study. Nevertheless, after having completed the fieldwork I changed my mind on the topic. I was very much pleased to find that male managers imitate female managers' leadership style in order to be more effective and efficient in hotel management.

I still however agree with Sharpe's (2000) statement "After years of analysis what makes leaders most effective and figuring out what who's got the right stuff management gurus now know how to boost the odds of getting a great executive... *HIRE A FEMALE*".

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APPENDIX A: COVER LETTER AND MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

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Dear Mr / Mrs…………,

In a rapidly changing world, there is the need to identify the most effective leadership style that would lead organisations to success. Especially, in the context of the hospitality industry this is more evident, due to the globalisation of the industry and the firm competition. This survey is a first attempt to identify the leadership styles that female managers develop in the Greek hospitality industry in an effort to identify whether this style is the most appropriate in this industry.

Please spare some of your precious time to help this really important effort to make this profession widely acknowledged and recognised.

With my best regards

Evangelia Marinakou

This survey is organised in two parts. The first part involves the collection of statistical data and demographics regarding the sample. The second part is employing the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) developed by Bass and Avolio (1990).

Please tick (√) where appropriate

A. Demographics and Hotel Background:

A1. What is the ownership/ status of the hotel?

Self- Family Proprietorship: □   Greek Chain: □   International Chain: □

A2. How many employees does the hotel employ?

Under 50: □   51 – 150: □   151 – 250: □   Over 250: □

A3. What is the main type of your customers:

Business: □   Leisure: □   Other □ (please specify)**:**

A4. Please indicate your sex: Male □   Female □

A5. Please indicate your age bracket:

18 – 25   □   26 - 30 □   31 – 40 □   Over 40 □

A6. Please indicate your marital status: Married □   Single □

A7. What are your academic qualifications?

None □	VET □	ASTE □	TEI □	Other please specify:
Bachelor □	Master □	PhD □		

A8. How many foreign languages do you speak?

English □   French   □   German   □   Italian   □
Other (please specify): ……………………………………………….

A9. What is your position in the hotel?

Manager □   Supervisor □   Departmental manager □   Departmental employee □

B. THE MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

The MLQ is an instrument to measure how you and others perceive the frequency and the different leadership behaviours you exhibit.

This questionnaire measures three categories of leadership factors:
- Transformational
- Transactional
- Non-transactional leadership

It also measures three outcomes of leadership styles:
- Extra effort
- Effectiveness
- Satisfaction

Please tick where appropriate.

The manager under evaluation is: Male ☐   Female   ☐

A. TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

IDEALISED ATTRIBUTES	Not at all	Once in awhile	Sometimes	Frequently	Fairly often
Instil pride in others for being associated with them	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Go beyond self-interest for the good of the group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Act in ways that build others' respect	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Display a sense of power and confidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Make personal sacrifices for others' benefit	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Reassure others that obstacles will be overcome	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

IDEALISED BEHAVIOURS	Not at all	Once in awhile	Sometimes	Frequently	Fairly often
Talk about their most important values and beliefs	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Champion exciting new possibilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Talk about the importance of trusting each other	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

INSPIRATIONAL MOTIVATION	Not at all	Once in awhile	Sometimes	Frequently	Fairly often
Talk optimistically about the future	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Articulate a compelling vision of the future	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Express confidence that goals will be achieved	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Provide an exciting image of what is essential to consider	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Take a stand on controversial issues	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

INTELLECTUAL STIMULATION	Not at all	Once in awhile	Sometimes	Frequently	Fairly often
Re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Seek differing perspectives when solving problems	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Get others to look at problems from many different angles	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Encourage non-traditional thinking to deal with traditional problems	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Encourage rethinking those ideas which have never been	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

questioned before					

INDIVIDUALISED CONSIDERATION	**Not at all**	**Once in awhile**	**Sometimes**	**Frequently**	**Fairly often**
Spend time teaching and coaching	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of the group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Help others to develop their strengths	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Listen attentively to others' concerns	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Promote self-development	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

B. TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP

CONTINGENT REWARD	**Not at all**	**Once in awhile**	**Sometimes**	**Frequently**	**Fairly often**
Provide others with assistance in exchange their efforts	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Express satisfaction when others meet expectations	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Clarify what outcomes are expected	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Deliver what is promised in exchange for support	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

MANAGEMENT-BY-EXCEPTION (ACTIVE)	**Not at all**	**Once in awhile**	**Sometimes**	**Frequently**	**Fairly often**
Focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Concentrate their full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Not at all	Once in awhile	Sometimes	Frequently	Fairly often
Keep track of all mistakes	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Direct their attention toward failures to meet standards	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Arrange to know if and when things go wrong	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Watch for any infractions of rules and regulations	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

MANAGEMENT-BY-EXCEPTION (PASSIVE)	**Not at all**	**Once in awhile**	**Sometimes**	**Frequently**	**Fairly often**
Fail to interfere until problems become serious	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Wait for things to go wrong before taking action	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Show a firm belief in "if it ain't broke, don't fix it"	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Demonstrate that problems must become chronic before taking action	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Take no action until complaints are received	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Have to be told what went wrong before taking any action	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

C. NON-TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP

LAISSEZ-FAIRE	**Not at all**	**Once in awhile**	**Sometimes**	**Frequently**	**Fairly often**
Avoid getting involved when important issues arise	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Absent when needed	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Avoid making decisions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Delay responding to urgent questions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Avoid dealing with chronic problems	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Fail to follow-up requests for assistance	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

OUTCOMES OF LEADERSHIP (Success of the group)

EXTRA EFFORT	**Not at all**	**Once in awhile**	**Sometimes**	**Frequently**	**Fairly often**
Get others to do more than they expected to do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Heighten others' desire to succeed	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Increase others' willingness to try harder	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
				☐	☐
				☐	☐
				☐	☐

EFFECTIVENESS	**Not at all**	**Once in awhile**	**Sometimes**	**Frequently**	**Fairly often**
Are effective in meeting others' job-related needs	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Are effective in representing their group to higher authority	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Are effective in meeting organisational requirements	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Leads a group that is effective	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
				☐	☐
				☐	☐

SATISFACTION	**Not at all**	**Once in awhile**	**Sometimes**	**Frequently**	**Fairly often**
Uses methods of leadership that are satisfying	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Work with others in a satisfactory way	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Thank you very much for your time!

APPENDIX B: INTERVIEW FORM

Department:	**Name:**	**Position: GENERAL MANAGER**
Date:	**Organisation:**	

Do you think that it is easy for a woman/man as yourself to penetrate the male clique? Do you ever become "one of the boys"?
Do you think it is easier for a man to be promoted than a woman in the hospitality industry?
What are your perceptions of others' expectations of a woman manager?
How would you describe your relationships with your employees?
Do you believe that your gender plays any role in your career? In your relationships with others? How?
How would you describe the way your hotel is organised? For example is it organised in feminine (emotional) or masculine way (goal oriented, rational)?
Would you recognise the subtle impact of stereotypes in your organisation?
How would you define effective leadership?
How would you define poor leadership?
Do you visualise yourself in a leadership role?
Do you think you exercise leadership with your associates and colleagues?

Were you ever attached to your father as a figure? If yes how?
Which are the characteristics that you believe contributed most significantly to your career advancement?
How would you assess the present situation for women in hospitality management in Greece and internationally? For the future?

Thank you very much for your help!

Lia Marinakou

APPENDIX C LIST OF HOTELS IN THE STUDY

No	HOTEL NAME	AREA	OWNERSHIP	TYPE
1	NJV Athens Plaza	Attica (A)	Greek National Chain	City
2	Athens Hilton	A	International Chain	City
3	Sofitel Athens Airport	A	International Chain	City (Airport)
4	St. George Lycabettus	A	Family owned	City
5	Athens Park Hotel	A	Family owned	City
6	Grecotel Cape Sounio	A	Greek International Chain	Resort
7	Zafolia	A	Family owned	City
8	Metropolitan Capsis	A	Greek National Chain	City
9	Santa Marina Palace	Crete (C)	Greek National Chain (local)	Resort
10	Palazzo Porto Platanias	C	Family owned	Resort
11	Geraniotis Beach	C	Family owned	Resort
12	Rodos Park	Rhodes (R)	Family owned	City
13	Rodos Palladium	R	Greek National Chain (local)	Resort
14	Europa hotel	R	Family owned	City – Resort
15	Mitsis Grand Hotel	R	Greek National Chain	City – Resort
16	Rhodian Amathus Beach	R	International Chain	Resort
17	Lindos Memories Resort	R	Greek National Chain (local)	Resort
18	Kresten Palace	R	Family owned	Resort
19	San Marco	Myconos (M)	Family owned	Resort
20	Myconian Imperial Thalasso Spa	M	Greek National Chain (local)	Resort
21	Zannis hotel	M	Family owned	Resort
22	Capsis Bristol hotel	Thessaloniki (T)	Greek National Chain	City
23	Macedonia Palace	T	Greek International Chain	City
24	Hyatt Regency	T	International Chain	City - Resort

APPENDIX D LIST OF MANAGERS IN THE STUDY

NO	Manager	Position	Hotel	Sex	Age	Degrees	Languages
30	MGM1	General Manager	Hyatt Regency	M	40-50	MSc in Tourism	4
20	FGM2	General Manager	Europa hotel	F	30-40	ASTER	3
26	MM3	Assistant GM	Myconian Imperial Thalasso Spa	M	25-30	IST College - UH	2
18	MGM4	General Manager	Rodos Palladium	M	40-50	ASTER	3
13	FM5	Food & Beverage Manager	Santa Marina Palace	F	25-30	TEI	2
	FM6	Rooms Division Manager	Capsis Bristol hotel	F	30-40	TEI	3
23	MGM7	General Manager	Lindos Memories Resort	M	30-40	ASTER	3
5	FM8	Food & Beverage Manager	Sofitel Athens Airport	F	25-30	TEI	2
10	FM9	Sales & Marketing Director	Athens Park Hotel	F	40-50	TEI	3
14	FGM10	General Manager	Palazzo Porto Platanias	F	30-40	ASTER	3
3	FM11	Sales & Marketing Director	Athens Hilton	F	30-40	MA in Marketing	3
8	MGM12	General Manager	Zafolia	M	30-40	ASTER	3
12	FM13	Assistant GM	Santa Marina Palace	F	30-40	ASTER	4
25	FGM14	General Manager	San Marco	F	40-50	ASTER	4
4	MM15	Food & Beverage Manager	Athens Hilton	M	25-30	ASTER	2
17	MM16	Rooms Division Manager	Rodos Park	M	30-40	ASTER	3

	MM17	Human Resources Manager	Rodos Palladium	M	30-40	ASTER	3
22	MM18	Food & Beverage Manager	Rhodian Amathus Beach	M	40-50	ASTER + MA	2
24	MM19	Rooms Division Manager	Kresten Palace	M	30-40	ASTER	3
6	FM20	Human Resources Manager	St. George Lycabettus	F	25-30	TEI	2
9	FM21	Sales & Marketing Manager	Metropolitan Capsis	F	25-30	Alpine College	4
16	MGM22	General Manager	Geraniotis Beach	M	30-40	ASTER	3
7	MM23	Food & Beverage Manager	Grecotel Cape Sounio	M	25-30	ASTER	3
27	MGM25	General Manager	Zannis hotel	M	25-30	IST College - UH	2
2	FM25	Rooms Division Manager	Athens Hilton	F	40-50	ASTER	3
21	MGM26	General Manager	Mitsis Grand Hotel	M	40-50	ASTER	3
1	FM27	Sales & Marketing Director	NJV Athens Plaza	F	40-50	ASTER	3
29	MGM28	Assistant General Manager	Macedonia Palace	M	30-40	Alpine College	2
15	FM29	Sales & Marketing Manager	Palazzo Porto Platanias	F	30-40	TEI	3
11	FGM30	General Manager	Santa Marina Palace	F	40-50	ASTER	3

APPENDIX D PUBLICATIONS

MARINAKOU, L., 2011. *The glass ceiling in hotel management in Greece.* Athens Tourism Symposium, Athens, Greece.

MARINAKOU, L., 2011. *Gender influences on leadership.* International Conference of Tourism, Rhodes, April.

MARINAKOU, E. 2010. Women in employment in the Greek hospitality industry. *Touristiki Agora*, issue 232. (in Greek)

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