

An exploration of gender stereotypes based on
leader idealisations in the New Zealand
hospitality industry

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A dissertation submitted to Auckland University of Technology
in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of International

Hospitality Management (MIHM)

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School of Hospitality and Tourism

2023

Abstract

Gender biases hinder women's careers and indicate that women are not ideal leaders. Despite the positive changes currently taking place, these biases are persistent. Gender studies of the New Zealand hospitality industry are few in number, especially studies about gender and leadership; some previous studies have limitations (e.g., studies based on one country's problems) that retain the gender norms instead of dealing with these norms. The research presented in this dissertation explored the factors influencing gender stereotypes in regard to leaders in the hospitality industry in New Zealand. Its aim was to obtain insights into these stereotypes and analyse the factors determining them.

A literature review research approach was employed as the methodology to analyse the results of previous research. Based on this methodology, a semi-systematic review was used to collect secondary data from previous journal articles and theses. The data covered three aspects of the topic – social, organisational and individual – and compared current gender stereotypes influencing leader idealisation in the hospitality industry. The findings showed that global gendered stereotypes were reflected in New Zealand's gender norms.

The findings suggest that three factors informed gender stereotypes about leader idealisation: the belief in gender differences, the glass ceiling, and hospitality employees' negative attitudes arising from gendered norms. These three factors interacted to influence the gender norms in New Zealand hospitality workplaces and global hospitality workplaces, and to inform the gender stereotypes that indicate women are not ideal leaders. These findings suggest that the glass ceiling's existence is based on social gender differences and impacts individuals' perceptions, including women's lack of confidence, and men's wish to retain their privileges. Current gendered leadership idealisations have developed from past gendered norms with some changes; currently, some show more benefits for women; however, gendered norms are persistent and some changes further inform the gendered stereotypes that hinder women's careers.

Acknowledgments

It has been a very difficult semester due to the extensive infection of COVID-19 in 2022, which delayed my journey of completing this dissertation. I could not have finished it without numerous individuals' support, suggestions and encouragement. Firstly, I would like to acknowledge my sincere appreciation of my supervisor, Associate Professor Shelagh Mooney. She patiently guided me to finish this research with a great deal of encouragement and suggestions. She reviewed my drafts and provided detailed comments with valuable examples. With her help, I acquired more confidence in this study, and learned how to become a rigorous researcher in analysing a topic I am interested in and contributing knowledge on this topic. I am also grateful for the help of my proofreader, David Parker, who provided useful advice on my academic writing.

I would additionally like to thank my parents and friends, who all believed that I was capable of finishing this study and generating valuable knowledge on this study's topic. They encouraged me and provided suggestions to effectively lead this dissertation.

Finally, I would like to express my gratitude to the School of Hospitality and Tourism at Auckland University of Technology, which provided the opportunity for me to conduct this study and complete the Master of International Hospitality Management degree.

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Attestation of Authorship

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgments), nor material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

Signed: _____

January 2023

Chapter 1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the scope, rationale and process followed in the dissertation.

Firstly, it presents the research background associated with the topic. Then, the research question and purpose are stated. Thirdly, the methodology of this study is explained.

Finally, the research structure and the summary of each chapter are presented.

1.1 Research background

Women employees are an essential group in the hospitality industry. Research from Santero-Sanchez et al. (2015) showed that, the number of female workers in service sectors is increasing and even outweighs the number of male workers globally.

However, this group is often regarded as ‘employees’ rather than ‘leaders’ by hospitality organisations. Kara et al. (2018) illustrated that, in most countries’ hospitality industries, executive manager positions are held by men, and women are often regarded as ‘the staff’. One of the reasons why women are not promoted to be leaders is gender stereotyping. According to Guillet et al. (2019), one of the typical biases is that the leadership position is not matched with the woman’s role in terms of the gender rules in the hospitality organisation. Women’s roles are perceived to centre on caregiving in the domestic area. Kara et al. (2018) found that women in hospitality often face many potential stereotypes that hinder their career development, such as stereotypes of concentrating more on family and children than work. Thus, normally, the hospitality management team deems that women will undertake more personal family responsibilities than work tasks. Under this evaluation, even though women’s abilities meet the accepted standards of being leaders, they are less likely to be appointed as leaders by senior management teams.

The hospitality industry is a crucial part of the economy of New Zealand (NZ).

However, women in this country also face a similar situation in the hospitality work environment to that discussed above. Fountain (2021) concluded that the economic development of NZ relies considerably on the prosperity of the hospitality industry, which was made more obvious with the coming of lockdowns caused by COVID-19.

Thus, the NZ hospitality industry could be developed rapidly due to its importance, but gender stereotypes also exist, which negatively impact the development of this industry. According to Kumara (2018), the problem of the shortage of women leaders remains in the hospitality industry of many western countries including NZ; this shortage indicates the gendered bias so that employees especially women employees might be dissatisfied

with their work environments and leave their employment. This tends to reduce the pool of available labour and creates an equitable work environment.

However, gender stereotypes of leadership are beginning to positively change. As Kara et al.'s (2018) findings showed, with changes in societal values, gender discrimination is also changing: more women are included in the workplace and becoming executive managers. The reason for this change is that countries such as NZ, and many companies, have realised this problem exists and have put forward strategies to deal with it. For example, Rhee et al. (2015) demonstrated that the boards of directors of many companies, including service companies, have discovered the importance of managing diversity, and the advantages of women leaders, such as participatory management styles; thus, these organisations attempt to involve more women in the board. Organisations' senior management teams realise that the single management style has disadvantages and that diverse management styles impact on future development. The NZ Government is also making efforts to alleviate gender stereotypes of leadership to enable more women to enter into management positions (Parker & Arrowsmith, 2012).

Nevertheless, the progress of changes is slow and the original situation of the gender stereotype has not drastically changed. Kara et al. (2018) suggested that even though it is believed that there is no gender division in leadership ability with the current change in societal values, women are often the group to be forced to confront stereotypes about their leading abilities. Currently, while many managers and employees tend to be unwilling to judge a leader by their gender; negative leadership gender stereotype also exists. A similar finding from Kumra et al. (2013) showed that while stereotypes decreased and women can acquire more equality in the workplace, men are still dominant in management teams. Traditional stereotypes are hard to change since they have impacted public values for a long time and it appears that men keep acquiring more benefits under the culture of organisations. Whitehead (2013) explained that, currently, men can integrate different management styles, including the style that is considered a female leadership style, since they often have more confidence in the workplace. Without stereotypes about male leaders, men can be confident in making any change to improve their management methods and enable more success in their organisation.

The hospitality industry also experiences slow change. According to Costa et al. (2017), women have more opportunities to be leaders and their leadership methods are beginning to be valued by hospitality organisations; however, stereotypes remain, which means that ideas about the management style of men and women are also divided in terms of gender. Thus, women's leadership is thought to remain different from men's and is also regarded as a feminine style. Furthermore, this stereotype can be more obviously seen when women attempt to access a higher level of management. At present, even though women can be promoted in many traditional industries, after reaching the middle level, women often remain there and find it hard to move into the top management team (Kumra et al., 2013). Thus, in a traditional work environment such as the service workplace, men are also dominant in the executive management team and women continue to face the gender stereotypes of leadership.

1.2 Problem statement

Even with the development of societal attitudes, gender stereotypes still impact the evaluation of leadership, and women still experience difficulties in moving into the management team, especially in reaching the executive level. Hence, this study aimed at searching for the factors behind the gendered stereotypes hindering women's promotional possibilities, which means that this research's aim is to find the reasons why men are regarded as ideal leaders and women are not. To meet this goal, the following research question was posed:

What factors inform the gender stereotypes about leader idealisations in the hospitality industry of NZ?

1.3 Purpose of the research

The first aim of this research was to collect insights into gender stereotypes of leadership in the NZ hospitality work environment, and to acquire an understanding of the scope of the problem for women leaders. The second aim of this research was to analyse these insights to explore the factors informing the stereotypes about women. Moreover, this study also aimed to address the research gap (i.e., excluding men participants to enable the lack of practicality) identified in the discussion in Chapter Two. Through achieving these aims, potential reasons for gender stereotypes about leader idealisations may be found. Analysing these reasons may develop more insights into leadership gender stereotypes in hospitality organisations and present inspirations for the hospitality management teams to resolve these stereotypes; thus, more practical

and theoretical solutions can be put forward in terms of this analysis of factors, thereby building up an inclusive hospitality work environment.

1.4 Research methodology

This research is qualitative since the aim of this study is to analyse attitudes and insights from secondary data sources. Liamputtong (2020) illustrated that the methodology, literature review, can be used to collect viewpoints from completed studies for one study's topic, which is qualitative. This study used a literature review as the methodology to evaluate the previous analyses which were the data for this study. Within this methodology, the semi-systematic review and the secondary data collection method were employed to collect the data. The semi-systematic review is more commonly employed by researchers since it is easy and can confirm a literature scope for new researchers (Schmidt & Santamaria-Alvarez, 2022); secondary data is usually the common type of data based on the literature review (Johnson & Sylvia, 2018). The scope of the data collected included traditional and current analyses detail required. To analyse the data, qualitative content analysis was used to acquire the essential findings from the data and present these findings to answer the research question. According to Krippendorff (2004, as cited in Zakaria and Zakaria, 2016), qualitative content analysis is based on the data content, which is often used by researchers to concentrate on the data text to generate answers to a topic.

1.5 Research structure

There are five chapters in this study: introduction (the present chapter), literature review, methodology, findings and discussion, and conclusion.

Literature review. This chapter presents a review of previous literature about gender stereotypes of leadership in the hospitality industry of NZ. In this chapter, the concepts and the discussion of important elements are explored, including gender stereotypes, gender stereotypes of leadership, and gender stereotypes of leadership in the NZ hospitality industry. Through this discussion, gender stereotypes of leadership and the problems of the previous studies are set out, which provides links to the following chapters.

Methodology. This chapter explains the methodology of this research: the literature review research approach; utilising a semi-systematic review; the secondary data collection method; and the data analysis method: qualitative content analysis. The

chapter explains the concepts and procedures of these methods of analysis and how these methods are employed in this study.

Findings and Discussion. This chapter presents the findings and discussion in two phases: historical and current gendered expectations; each phase contains three dimensions: social, organisational and individual aspects. In this chapter, the change in gendered norms and the mutual impact of different dimensions on these gendered norms are explored; and the research question is answered by identifying the factors of gendered leadership in the NZ hospitality industry.

Conclusion. This chapter concludes the whole research and presents the implications of this research, along with the limitations of this study and future recommendations.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This literature review presents the background to gender stereotypes of leadership in the NZ hospitality workplace. It is divided into three parts. Firstly, gender stereotypes are shown related to gender demarcation from social, organisational, individual and contemporary perspectives. Secondly, corresponding with these stereotypes, gender stereotypes of leadership are explored to show the gender division of leaders and traditional and contemporary leader idealisations. Thirdly, the hospitality workplace of NZ is revealed, mainly showing the situation in regard to leadership gender stereotypes.

2.2 Gender stereotype: Gender demarcation and stereotypes

This section presents gender divisions and stereotypes from different perspectives, namely society, organisation, individual and contemporary gender demarcation, which shows current stereotypes in the development of social values. Calás et al. (2014) concluded that gender demarcation refers to the reality that in the social and cultural environment, individuals are categorised by the common societal value in terms of differences; these differences are often related to the individual's sex (i.e., male and female). Some previous studies also argued that current and future gender demarcation is not always based on sex differences and societal values; and a new gender definition emerges (Eagly & Sczesny, 2019; Risman & Davis, 2013). Thus, gender demarcation means the categorisation of gender based on differences between males and females, which are shown in social and cultural activities; however, gender demarcation is not always based on socialisation, and a new demarcation may emerge such as diverse genders. Gender demarcation is associated with gender stereotypes. According to Koenig and Eagly (2014), when gender demarcation categorises gender groups including the male group and the female group, different expectations can be seen for different groups based on this demarcation. Therefore, gender stereotyping refers to these expectations. In the following subsections, the gender demarcations are discussed first and then stereotypes can be presented more clearly, since these stereotypes are based on the demarcations.

2.2.1 Gender demarcation by biology and social activities

The first two ways to define gender are based on biological characteristics and social activities (Calás et al., 2014). According to Launius and Hassel (2018), gender is

theorised according to biological features and social norms. Firstly, according to Calás et al. (2014, as cited in Mooney, 2020), in biological demarcation, gender division is common sense. This means that this way is commonly known by individuals. A good example from Westbrook and Schilt's (2014) study showed that "genitalia", which is one typical biological characteristic, is used by most people to divide the sexes (p. 34). Thus, people identify boys and girls by distinct organs that are easily recognised when a newborn has arrived. Apart from these features, different adolescent development, body growth changes, and the difference in secondary sex characteristics are also physical and visible ways to divide genders (Launius & Hassel, 2018). Thus, people use biological characteristics to confirm gender, identifying men with male body features and women with female body features.

Secondly, gender demarcation is mainly formed by socialisation. Koenig and Eagly (2014) put forward the "social role theory", which means that people will be differentiated into specific groups by individuals' perception of daily activities (p. 371). One typical daily activity is the gender division activity. For example, in terms of the biological division of boys and girls, in childhood, clothes, names, and toys are often divided into two styles, the 'girls' style' and the 'boys' style' (Launius & Hassel, 2018). Hence, these division activities for children are based on individuals' perceptions of gender roles: boys should follow the male style and girls should follow the female style. Therefore, people are divided into the male group and female group by social roles based on gender. Moreover, the point of social gender roles is validated by authoritative sources and this enhancement enables social gender demarcation to be the norm for individuals. As Lampe et al. (2019) showed, the segregation of men and women by biological and social features is commonly introduced by formal organisations and influential authorities such as the global media, and informs social gender values for individuals' whole lives. Most people are willing to believe in this 'natural' gender segregation and follow their ascribed gender role in daily activities since it is ratified formally. Thus, people are divided, according to the social role theory, as being shown to be members of the male or the female group, which is the enhancement of the biological division.

2.2.2 Gender stereotypes formed by biological and social gender division

Social gender stereotypes are related to and based on biological and social gender divisions. According to Mooney (2020), according to the acceptance of biological and social divisions of binary genders, the gender role is assumed to be fixed. Thus, the

gendered groups are also identifying values: men and women. Koenig and Eagly (2014) found that a specific group's behaviours can be regarded as this group's feature, which results in the stereotypes of this group; for example, when women look after children more than men, women will be attached to the role of caregivers and be considered to be suitable for this task. Corresponding with the previous discussion of the definition of gender stereotypes, social gender stereotypes mean that when people are expected to follow their group's features, gender stereotypes are formed, such as associating men with being the family provider and women with being the caregiver.

There are some examples of gender stereotypes showing individuals are expected to follow the gendered features of the group they belong to. One of the typical stereotypes is people's characteristics. According to Nicolson (2015), in social activities, women are regarded as the emotional and nurturing group due to their daily caring tasks. By contrast, men are believed to be more rational, strong and independent (Williams et al., 2012). Thus, the stereotype is presented that men and women are regarded as gendered groups with different characteristics. Meanwhile, if individuals try to defeat this stereotype to show different features, they may experience disagreement and negative evaluations from society. For example, Cottingham (2014) explained that women who show different characteristics, such as ambition, could be regarded as breaking social regulations and objected to because of social expectations. Thus, under gender stereotypes, men cannot show female characteristics and women cannot show male characteristics according to the social expectations based on the stereotype.

2.2.3 Gender demarcation in organisations

Gender is also demarcated in organisational life. According to Eagly and Sczesny (2019), the social gender division is reflected in the work environment and enables the organisational gender division to be consistent with the social division. The organisational gender division refers to the situation in which workers are assigned to work positions based on the social division. For example, Yavorsky (2016) found that women are associated with being caregivers in the domestic area in terms of social expectations so that they are often assigned to the positions of caregiving and cleaning tasks. Men are associated with being family providers outside the domestic area in terms of social expectations; thus, men's area is the workplace so that they can be assigned to many positions involving operational and complicated tasks, and management tasks. According to this organisational division, women's positions are often as servers for guests, nurses, and human resources officers (Carvalho et al., 2019;

Nicolson, 2015); men's positions are repairers, chefs with complex tasks, and leaders in many industries, especially financially profitable industries (Cottingham, 2014; Williams et al., 2012).

2.2.4 Organisational gender stereotypes

When employees are assigned to gendered positions according to the organisational gender demarcation, organisational gender stereotypes are formed under this demarcation. According to Correll (2017), organisational gender stereotypes mean that through the organisational gender demarcation, men are considered to be skilled in work tasks exhibiting masculine characteristics; women are considered to be suitable for work requiring what are understood to be feminine characteristics. It means that when women and men are assigned to gendered positions, they should be suitable for these positions and demonstrate the gendered characteristics under the stereotypes. For example, Carvalho et al. (2019) showed that, in the hospitality organisation, since women are often assigned into work positions such as servers and housekeepers, these positions are regarded as the work that belongs to women; likewise, because men often work as leaders, they are considered having the masculine characteristics based on the social expectations and suitable for leadership positions.

2.2.5 Gender demarcation by individuals

Gender demarcation in the organisation and in socialisation impacts individuals' judgment of self-gender; thus individuals often offer a performance rather than following the real values they have. As Mooney (2014) explained, the social gender division is one of the crucial elements, which is influential in the individual orientation to follow and receive a reward for particular careers. As the discussion of social and organisational aspects above shows, the organisational gendered division is based on social division; thus, individual gender demarcation is the individual's attitudes to gender according to the organisational and social gender divisions. According to Launius and Hassel (2018), under the social gender rules, people's behaviours are "performative" (p. 33). It means that individuals behave according to social expectations rather than the style they prefer to show intuitively. Carvalho et al. (2019) also demonstrated that employees' perceptions of their own abilities are impacted by organisational gender values; these values can influence employees' choices and orientations for future careers. Thus, individuals often deem that they need to fulfil social and organisational expectations, and follow the gender demarcation to be accepted by society and the organisation. For example, Nicolson (2015) demonstrated

that women who break femininity rules and show male characteristics based on the social gender division are considered to be upsetting the regulations. Thus, due to their concerns about social and organisational divisions, individuals often follow their assigned group's characteristics to avoid receiving negative judgment from society and the organisation.

2.2.6 Individual gender stereotypes

When consistently following the gender division, individuals tend to confirm this division to be part of their values, for themselves and others. For instance, employment such as nursing is not always attractive to many men and this work tends to ruin their masculine image (Cottingham, 2014). The majority of men deem that they should follow the social gender division to choose employment with masculine features. As Nunkoo and Gursoy (2012) explained, when a man or a woman performs work opposite to his or her gender role as regulated by society and workplaces, there could be a contradictory feeling emerging within themselves. Hence, under the social and organisational gender division, individual gender stereotypes mean that individuals believe that they should follow their own group's mandated role, and their counterparts also need to follow their corresponding role. Heilman (2012) obtained a similar finding, showing that individuals often subconsciously and immediately use gender stereotypes to judge others during social and organisational activities.

2.2.7 New gender demarcation

In addition, apart from the forms of demarcation noted above, there is another evolving form of demarcation, which is disrupting the general biological and societal division. According to Souza et al. (2016), people with a new gender division are willing to break the common ascribed values of men and women, which presents more self-awareness of gender. The new gender means that men can follow the female role and women can follow the male role without consideration of the common societal value. Moreover, further research by Westbrook and Saperstein (2015) found that outside the binary gender system, people can show different forms of gender beyond male and female in social activities. Therefore, the new gender demarcation also refers to the division beyond the traditional binary gender system; it means individuals can show diverse characteristics beyond male or female roles. However, Souza et al. (2016) also showed that currently, the new gender demarcation remains at the transgender level, which means that scholars have not reached conclusions on the specific forms and definitions of diverse genders. That is to say, the new gender demarcation mainly means

transgender, showing that individuals can follow their counterparts' gender roles; and individuals may also show diverse genders beyond transgender, but these genders can only be named "the diverse gender" without specific parameters. The new gender division is beginning to be acknowledged in the social structures in some countries. For instance, as Launius and Hassel's (2018) findings showed, many countries such as NZ acknowledge the new gender; others such as Germany allow the new gender legal status, enabling Germans to enter an "X" on their identity certificate (p. 34). Gender identities are often formally shown by F (female) and M (male); the emergence of X means respect for the new gender.

2.2.8 Gender stereotypes after the emergence of the new division

Even though the new division is emerging, it is still at an early stage and traditional gender stereotypes still exist. According to Grau and Zotos (2016), currently, gender stereotypes are widespread in most countries although many countries are beginning to acknowledge the new division and change the commonly held binary views. Moreover, research from Westbrook and Saperstein (2015) showed that many scholars have kept using the traditional classifications to analyse gender, which may enhance stereotype retention. Thus, the binary division still commonly exists in many studies. Based on this understanding, gender stereotypes, especially for women, are also dominant in society and in the organisation. According to Baldner and Pierro (2019), in contemporary social activities, women are also defined as emotional and caring; Bagilhole (2013) illustrated that even though many women have already accessed masculine-typed industries such as the construction industry, they are still considered to be lacking the commitment for their work positions since they still need to meet the social gender division such as committing more to family than a career. Thus, even though the new gender division is emerging and beginning to be accepted, gender stereotypes are more influential in society and in the organisation.

2.2.9 Summary of gender stereotypes

In the discussion above, gender stereotypes were presented according to assumptions about the gender division across three different dimensions, namely society, organisation and individuals. The widely held social assumptions are shown to still exist after the new division emerged. The social and organisational gender demarcation generates gendered groups and different expectations for these groups in social activities, giving rise to embedded stereotypes that men should follow the male group's features and women should follow the female group's features; individuals' attitudes are

impacted by social and organisational expectations to support the idea that people should follow the gender roles of the group they belong to. Currently, although the new gender demarcation is emerging and beginning to be acknowledged in many countries; it is beyond the social and organisational demarcation and associated with self-aware genders such as transgender people. However, the original common stereotypes are still dominant in society and in the organisation, and impact individual attitudes.

Moreover, universal recognition of the new gender demarcation cannot automatically take place with the emergence of this demarcation. With regards to gender diversity, there is no specific definition from scholars. Previous studies also have enhanced historic gender stereotypes and the recognition of the new gender in these studies is at an early stage. Many scholars still generate the results of their analyses by older theories about gender differences, which reinforces long-standing gender stereotypes.

2.3 Leadership gender stereotypes

As the previous section showed, gender stereotypes developed from the original social, organisational and individual divisions to become current stereotypes under the new gender division. Thus, in this section, the gender divisions about leaders are discussed. Then, gender stereotypes of leadership are presented based on the shift in the division from the original to the contemporary. This section also examines the problems with previous study designs, which have led to the stereotypes remaining unquestioned.

2.3.1 Gender divisions of leaders

The discussion of gender stereotypes in the previous section indicated that gender demarcations arise from different contexts including socialisation, organisations and individuals. Thus, gender division can also be seen in leadership; most people believe leaders act differently according to their gender. For example, the female leader is regarded as concentrating on the achievement of personal values and public approval; however, male leaders are believed to care more about financial benefits, social status and business expansion (Ettis, 2021). Thus, gender divisions of leaders support the idea that leaders from different genders present gender-distinct leadership styles.

2.3.2 Original gender stereotypes of leaders

In terms of the division of leadership, female and male leaders are expected to show different management styles in terms of social expectations. According to Fritz and Knippenberg (2017), under the generally accepted societal values, male leaders should

show more ambition, lead the competition and control the work team; unlike men, female leaders are expected to show more understanding, compassion and caring for the staff. This can be explained in terms of the traditional gender roles, in which women are family carers and men are family financial providers. Thus, male and female leaders are expected to present different styles.

Traditionally, male leaders are believed more suitable for organisations in terms of customary values of leadership (Williams et al., 2012). According to Dzubinski et al. (2019), female leaders were often considered to be less suitable since the perception of effective leadership were based on male norms. Thus, masculine styles such as ambitious and competitive management styles were characteristic of traditional organisations. That is to say, the original stereotype of leadership determined that leaders should be men rather than women, according to perceptions that male leaders were competitive and more revenue driven, and not concerned with employees' well-being. Moreover, this stereotype was commonly supported by employees. Powell (2013) concluded that, generally, most of the staff in organisations preferred male leaders rather than female leaders. Hence, employees also supported the norms of masculine leadership and male leaders. A similar point from Rhee and Sigler (2015) argued that many employees were willing to work with male leaders since they agreed with the traditional leading styles such as control and authority. These attitudes from employees were also the embodiment of traditional gender stereotypes of leadership, which enhanced male dominance in management teams.

2.3.3 Contemporary gender stereotypes of leaders

With the development and changing of common social values, some changes have been brought about in regard to gender leadership stereotypes. The idealisation of leaders tends no longer to only see them as men. According to Carli and Eagly (2016), the number of female leaders is increasing, and this group is expanding; the leading styles which are considered to be related to femininity have begun to be acknowledged in the workplace. Women and feminine ideals of leadership based on social divisions have become more visible than before, which has brought more possibilities for women in leadership. Berns and Williams (2021) also found that some top management teams, such as boards of directors, often include woman directors to include different management methods and acquire more benefits for the company. Diverse management experiences and ideas are required by the core management team; thus, this team brings

in diverse styles instead of only one style (i.e., the concentration on financial benefits and business expansion).

However, the traditional stereotypes of leadership are still more influential for current social values. According to Baldner and Pierro (2019), currently, the past dominant social norms, such as masculine norms for management in the workplace, are more accepted by individuals. They argue that women leaders experience discrimination; as these norms are commonly believed to be natural and more beneficial norms. Men are considered more suitable for leadership, according to contemporary social attitudes, since the traditional stereotypes are persistent as commonly accepted norms. A similar point from Johnson and Williams (2020) indicated that traditional social gender stereotypes can be emphasised when a crisis coming, such as the COVID pandemic lockdown; during this pandemic, women leaders' abilities to meet the crisis were suspected by their employers. This can be explained by the view that, under the traditional division, women's supposed focus on family duties is highlighted and it is believed they cannot concentrate on work roles. Thus, this example also presents the influence of traditional stereotypes on contemporary attitudes, especially in crisis situations.

2.3.3.1 Gender stereotypes of leaders in hospitality workplaces

Hospitality workplaces retain many leadership gender stereotypes brought from the past into the present. Historically, these stereotypes could be seen in occupational segregation, which means employees were divided into different positions according to gender biases. For example, Tran and Walter (2014) found that in many different hospitality industries globally, women were hired for low-level positions with low wages, such as housekeepers and guest servers; by contrast, men were hired for high-wage positions with the high status, such as senior tour guides and team leaders. According to Remington and Kitterlin-Lynch (2018), women are still commonly considered as lacking the characteristics for leadership and the commitment for such positions in the hospitality industry; for example, women do not have an aggressive character and concentrate on family duties under the social division. Thus, the gender stereotypes of leadership in hospitality workplaces are widely seen and have developed from the past into the contemporary industry to enhance men's privilege of leadership and hinder women's careers.

Resembling the changing situation of many workplaces, these stereotypes also have seen some changes in the hospitality industry, although the stereotypes still dominate. Costa et al. (2017) discussed the current hospitality organisational gender stereotypes of leadership. They illustrated how the masculine norm for leadership still exists in the workplace to limit women's opportunities for promotion. On the other hand, feminine characteristics according to the gender division have become popular concepts for management teams and are believed to bring more benefits for the organisation in the future; a gender-neutral management style may be the future norm. Hence, women have begun to be acknowledged as being suitable for leadership and the absence of a gender division may be popular in the future; this possibly means more changes in the gender stereotypes associated with leadership. However, the absence of gender division is only a future ideal; at present, masculine norms are still dominant in the hospitality industry.

2.3.4 Research gaps in relation to contemporary leadership gender stereotypes

Currently, some hospitality studies present explore the gender stereotypes associated with leadership, and potential solutions. For example, research from Guillet et al. (2019) put forward the importance of diverse leadership for workplaces, including communication and caring for employees. Similarly, Ryan and Mooney (2020) provided empirical evidence on the negative impact of gender stereotypes on women's careers; they emphasised the importance of professional networks for women and suggested networking programmes to build up gender-equal work environments.

Even though more gender problems and solutions are being raised, there are still limitations in previous studies. For example, gender researchers found that their analysis of results on leadership stereotypes cannot be generalised into the global context since their studies focus on one country's workplace (Gartzia & Baniandrés, 2019; Ryan & Mooney, 2020). Thus, gender studies' results may not be effective and cannot be used to deal with the gender stereotypes of leadership in many different countries. Another similar example of limitations is shown by Guillet et al.'s (2019) study; they suggest that their study results about gendered leadership may need more verification since they did not involve male leaders as interviewees. It may be also difficult to employ these results in resolving the gender discrimination of leadership in the work environment since men might disagree with these results. Due to many studies' limitations, possibly, few effective solutions for gender stereotypes of leadership can be employed by an organisation's management team and these stereotypes tend to remain.

2.3.5 Summary of leadership gender stereotypes

To sum up, gender stereotypes of leadership have evolved historically based on the gender demarcation. The gender demarcation of leadership generated assumptions of different management styles according to individual's gender, including male leaders concentrating on financial benefits and female leaders on the achievement of employment values. In terms of the original stereotypes, male leaders' styles were considered more suitable under organisational masculine norms and employees' general support for these norms. Currently, there are some changes to these stereotypes occurring and female leaders are beginning to be acknowledged; however, the values of the past are still dominant and these stereotypes are continuing to be reflected in contemporary social and organisational attitudes. Men are considered to be more suitable leaders in organisations. Similar to the general workplace, the hospitality workplace shows the gender stereotypes of leadership retained from the past into the present; meanwhile, evolving stereotypes tend to show some positive changes.

Moreover, although many scholars have analysed gender stereotypes of leadership and raised solutions to resolve these gender problems, these analyses' limitations tend to interfere with the ability to deal with these problems. This is one important reason to continue to study the original gender stereotypes associated with leadership.

2.4 Gender stereotypes of leadership in the NZ hospitality industry

Williamson and Harris (2021) found that NZ depends economically on its hospitality industry's prosperity, which brings substantial benefits. Despite the importance of this industry, its work environment cannot satisfy employees due to inequalities. Women are one of the main groups that are dissatisfied with their work environment. According to O'Brien et al. (2015) and Zhang (2019), the hospitality industry in NZ as a traditional service industry, is highly gendered with gender discrimination that hinders women's careers. Therefore, this section discusses the gender stereotypes that have hindered women's careers in NZ with the time change. The hospitality gender stereotypes of leadership found in NZ are also shown. Moreover, the research gap in the previous analyses of these stereotypes is presented.

2.4.1 Traditional gender stereotypes of leadership in NZ

In the same way as the international gender stereotypes of leadership, in the past, men and masculine features were considered ideal for leadership in NZ. O'Brien et al. (2015) found that, traditionally, women could not be leaders under the societal gender values of

NZ; rather than becoming leaders, they were assigned to low-level positions with female characteristics according to gender demarcations. According to Zhang (2019), in terms of traditional societal values, many industries, especially the service sector in NZ, present typical organisational gender norms; one norm is the gender wage gap of the past which persists today and benefits men's careers. Hence, in NZ society, industries and workplaces, women were considered not to be ideal leaders.

Nevertheless, these stereotypes began to show a positive change. O'Brien (2015) illustrated that NZ, as a small country enabling women to take the chief roles of the state in the last century¹, showed more positive social attitudes toward women leaders, although these leaders were still treated as a different group. It means that traditional values in NZ allowed more women to access management teams; however, gender stereotypes were still the mainstream view, and more changes were needed.

2.4.2 Contemporary gender stereotypes of leadership in NZ

The traditional gender biases associated with leadership were not resolved and are still visible in current studies of NZ work environments. For instance, Lewis (2015) found the existence of stereotypes in a study of NZ women leaders, showing that previous social attitudes are implied in the gender division of leadership in current workplaces. It means that leaders in NZ are expected to show different features in management according to their gender. Moreover, Chen et al. (2020) also found that occupational gender segregation in many countries, including NZ, showed that women are segregated in lower-level and simple positions; skilled employment opportunities of higher-level positions are mainly occupied by men. For example, women leaders' styles were generally believed to be those of caring mothers based on the traditional gender stereotype during the COVID pandemic lockdown in NZ; but caring was deemed as a women leaders' principal ability and they are not believed to be able to deal effectively with this crisis (Johnson & Williams, 2020). It means the traditional gender demarcation is present in contemporary NZ society; it informs the general contemporary gender stereotype: male leaders are ideal leaders; most female leaders are deemed as having less capability to be a leader.

¹ Labour's Helen Clark became New Zealand's first elected female prime minister following the general election in November 1999; Dame Silvia Cartwright, who became the first female Chief District Court Judge in 1989, was the first woman appointed to the High Court in 1993.

In addition, NZ gender stereotypes of leadership have been indicated in previous studies. For example, Archard (2013) discussed complex reasons for these stereotypes. He found that some scholars illustrated that women's self-attitudes are the main reason, since they often desire to be perfect and set higher standards for themselves; other scholars presented different arguments and highlighted the societal values' impact on women's attitudes instead of women's self-imposed barriers. Thus, the discussions found in previous studies suggest the reasons for leadership gender stereotypes in NZ are various, which therefore means they require more exploration and explanation.

2.4.3 Traditional gender stereotypes of leadership in NZ hospitality workplaces

Traditional social gender stereotypes of leadership were demonstrated in the NZ hospitality work environment (Zhang, 2019). For instance, Mooney et al. (2017) illustrated that the gender stereotypes negatively impacted the career development of women in hospitality, which led to women being stuck in the lowest-level positions. Similarly, according to Zhang (2019), traditional gender stereotypes associated with leadership have existed in the NZ hospitality industry for many years; these stereotypes were revealed in organisational norms such as the gender wage gap and occupational segregation. Thus, the traditional gender discrimination implied that women were not ideal leaders.

2.4.4 Current gender stereotypes of leadership in NZ hospitality workplaces

According to Foley and Cooper (2021), the leadership gender stereotypes of NZ society are found more often in the contemporary service sector. Research by Mooney (2014) showed the traditional gender values in the contemporary NZ service sector. She found that the right to access top management teams belonged to men, and the traditional notions of duties related to family and childcare were also an obstacle to women becoming leaders. According to Williamson and Harris (2021), women have only been considered beneficial by unions for a short time in the history of NZ; after this time, unions were controlled by men only. Thus, male workers acquired more benefits and rights from hospitality workplaces and became the rule-makers for employment conditions. More rules beneficial for men were implemented and men were more likely to access management teams. For instance, a study of the NZ hospitality industry by Wang et al. (2017) showed that male managers are dominant in organisations and women lacked successful role models of female leaders in the management team. Without role models, women often lack the confidence to reach the executive team.

Hence, women are not equally treated or protected by the hospitality industry, which hinders them from progressing their careers to access management teams.

On the other hand, The NZ government has devoted itself to dealing with gender stereotypes and implementing policies to protect women and increase the number of women leaders. Parker and Arrowsmith (2012) illustrated that, albeit very slowly, the trend was for more women to enter executive management teams. Another change is that the government has concentrated on enabling women to access core management positions in many industries (Pringle & Ryan, 2015). As Launius and Hassel's (2018) findings show, NZ is among the few countries to acknowledge the new gender demarcation. However, both Parker and Arrowsmith (2012) and Launius and Hassel (2018) illustrated that the speed of resolving the stereotypes of leadership is slow. Scholars also mentioned that the effectiveness of their suggested practice in the workplace may not be ideal, which means there is a gap between theory and practice (Edgar et al., 2020; Foley & Cooper, 2021). Thus, similar to the global hospitality situation, even though some changes have been seen, stereotypes about leadership characterise NZ hospitality workplaces.

2.4.5 Current analyses of gender in the NZ hospitality industry

Analyses associated with gender in the NZ hospitality industry are scarce, especially analyses of how gender impacts women's advancement (Mooney et al., 2017). The research for the present study also found that it is difficult to acquire enough empirical data about gender stereotypes in the NZ hospitality industry. This inadequacy is also a reason why it is important to learn more viewpoints about gender stereotypes in NZ.

2.4.6 Summary of stereotypes in the NZ hospitality industry

To sum up, gender stereotypes of leadership in the NZ hospitality industry are similar to the stereotypes in the international hospitality industry. The stereotype prevailing in both the past and in contemporary times sees men as ideal leaders in NZ generally, and its hospitality workplaces. Even though, currently, there are some positive changes taking place, the stereotype is still dominant and these changes are slow.

Moreover, in previous studies, there is inadequate data on gender stereotypes in the NZ hospitality work environment; meanwhile, the reason for these stereotypes needs more explanation. This research gap forms the present study's focus.

2.5 Conclusion

There are three main sections in this chapter that present the key definitions related to the research topic: gender stereotypes, gender stereotypes of leadership, and gender stereotypes of leadership in the NZ hospitality industry. Original stereotypes are informed by social and organisational gender demarcation to show that women and men are expected to follow gendered norms; and despite positive changes in contemporary societal values, the traditional stereotypes are still dominant. These gender stereotypes are reflected in general stereotypes associated with leadership in the NZ hospitality industry; this means that women in the contemporary hospitality industry in NZ face gender discrimination that hinders their careers and their ability to access senior management roles.

Moreover, previous studies' limitations also contribute to the existence of current gender stereotypes of leadership. Many studies' results about gender and leadership cannot be employed in dealing with the problem in practice due to these studies' limitations; for example, some studies only concentrate on one country's gendered norms and some studies did not involve men as the research object, which means the studies lack universality and practicality. Studies of gendered leadership in NZ service sectors are few and the reasons behind gender stereotypes need more explanation. This research aimed to develop a gender study of the NZ hospitality industry and deal with these limitations to find the factors informing the gender stereotypes of leadership.

Chapter 3 Methodology

3.1 Introduction

Chapter Two revealed the background to gender stereotypes of leadership and the aim of this study, which is to analyse the gender stereotypes of leadership in the hospitality industry of NZ and explain the factors informing these stereotypes; This chapter also addresses the research limitations identified in the discussion in the previous chapter. A methodology is required to lead this study and reach this aim. Thus, this chapter defines the research aim and question, presents the choice of paradigm, provides a qualitative methodology in terms of the paradigm, and describes the data collection method and the analysis method.

3.2 Research aim and question

An exploratory study was conducted based on this study's aim. To explore possible insights, an open question was proposed to search for answers to the research question; the answers were collected and analysed to generate insights and theories to respond to the study's aim. The question was as follows:

What factors inform the gender stereotypes about leader idealisations in the hospitality industry of NZ?

This study aimed to assess the existing literature, which consisted of completed studies with analyses relevant to this question. Studies based on these three aspects (society, organisation, and individual) and past and current gender stereotypes of leader idealisation in the hospitality industry were searched for as the data. It meant that this study's aim does not concern all the literature available for answering this question and that the search strategy was selected to selectively collect and analyse data.

3.3 Research methodology

3.3.1 Research paradigm

To confirm the effectiveness of the methodology of any study, the paradigm should be selected first. The term 'paradigm' refers to a set of values for researchers conducting a study (Antwi & Hamza, 2015) and Khaldi (2017) found that a clear paradigm for research is necessary since it can provide guidance for researchers. The interpretive paradigm is employed in this research. Rahi (2017) put forward the definition of this paradigm: the interpretive paradigm concentrates on the exploration of people's

profound understanding of the problem. This study's aim is the exploration of insights about leadership gender stereotype factors in the hospitality industry of NZ, which aligns with the parameters of the interpretive paradigm. Thus, this study's paradigm was selected as the interpretive paradigm.

3.3.2 Qualitative methodology and literature review methodology

This study used a qualitative methodology since it was regarded as more suitable than a quantitative methodology for the study's aims. A qualitative study methodology is useful for the exploration of a phenomenon (Ormston et al., 2014). Merriam and Tisdell (2016) explain that qualitative methodologies are based on an open question and involve a search for individuals' understandings of this question. This study is exploratory; an open question was put forward and appropriate literature was selected in order to find understandings based on scholars' analyses. Hence, the use of a qualitative methodology accorded with this study's aim. Moreover, according to Merriam and Tisdell (2016), scholars in many different fields consider that qualitative studies are interpretive in nature. Therefore, a qualitative methodology fitted the study's interpretive paradigm. A quantitative methodology would have been less suitable. McLeod (2017) explained that, in a quantitative study, participants often answer "yes" or "no" so that researchers can acquire the number of individuals who support the statement or not and generate a result from the measurement of this number (p. 1). That is to say, quantitative studies concentrate on questions with limited options, and statistical and numerical analysis of results. This study's question is open, and this study aimed to collect and analyse individual points rather than conduct a statistical and numerical analysis. Hence, a quantitative methodology was not as suitable.

The literature review methodology used, followed qualitative methodological principles and fitted with this study's aim. Snyder (2019) defined the literature review methodology as aiming at the collection and synthesis of completed studies for a specific topic. Liamputtong (2020) supported the perspective that the literature review methodology is based on the literature as a data resource. Therefore, this methodology was suitable since the study's aim concerned the assessment of published and completed academic studies. Furthermore, the literature review methodology can be based on qualitative methodological principles. Liamputtong (2020, p. 5a) made the point that researchers are allowed to choose different types of methodologies such as literature reviews that are based on "nonliving forms" of data in their qualitative studies, instead of conducting interviews with participants. Thus, for a qualitative study, a

specific body of literature can form the data resource used to acquire individual insights from scholars' analyses, which could be used in the current study.

3.4 The process of the literature review methodology

The process used in this study was based on Snyder's (2019) phases of the literature review methodology. Three phases were employed: 1) Preparation, 2) Conduct, and 3) Analysis. The first two phases, preparation and conduct, were used for data collection; the analysis phase was for data analysis.

Table 1. The literature review process of Snyder (2019)

1. Preparation	Confirm the study aim based on the topic
	Confirm the specific method
	Find the search strategy (keywords, database, selecting criteria)
2. Conduct	Check the search strategy effectiveness
	Make a plan to confirm the final selected literature
	Confirm the quality of the selected literature
3. Analysis	Extract and analyse suitable information
	Record the analysis process and show it in the report

3.5 Phase One: Preparation for data collection

3.5.1 The study aim based on the topic

The study aim has been discussed in the previous section of this chapter. The aim was to search for factors of leadership gender stereotypes in the NZ hospitality industry. This study aims to select and assess studies that are associated with leadership gender stereotypes in hospitality in three different dimensions, and with traditional and contemporary analyses of these stereotypes, then collect and analyse these selected studies.

3.5.2 The specific method for data collection

The 'semi-systematic review was the literature review method employed to collect the data. Snyder (2019) defined three types of study approaches for the literature review methodology: "the systematic review, the semi-systematic review, and the integrative" (p. 334); the systematic review requires researchers to collect and analyse all the literature for the question, and the integrative is a difficult and less common approach. Compared to the other two approaches, the semi-systematic review is easier and can be

based on a search strategy to selectively obtain literature so that researchers can confirm the search scope in selecting literature (Schmidt & Santamaria-Alvarez, 2022). In terms of the aim of this study, it required a strategy for the selection of suitable literature, and it was also based on the scope: three different aspects of gender stereotyping (based on Chapter 2) and the past situation and current situation analyses. Thus, the semi-systematic review was considered suitable for confirming the scope of this dissertation study.

The data collected was secondary data from previous studies. Secondary data collection allows the collection of completed studies and researchers can obtain insights from these studies as data to analyse a topic (Johnson & Sylvia, 2018). Martins et al. (2018) concluded that the resources of secondary data collection contain “governmental sources, private entities and agencies, private international projects, journals, and online databases” (pp. 1-2). This study’s literature was selected from this range of resources, which is shown in the following step of the search strategy.

3.5.3 The search strategy

1. The time period scope was 2000-2022 to compare the traditional and contemporary results
2. Databases: Databases were selected based on AUT library availability. In consultation with library academics, it was decided that three databases were most suitable for acquiring useful resources and meeting the study aim: Scopus, Hospitality & Tourism Complete (EBSCO), and nzresearch.org.nz.
3. Keywords: the original keywords were “gender stereotypes”, “NZ”, “leadership”, and “hospitality” to represent different key concepts based on the study question. By searching these keywords on these three databases, more keywords with similar meanings of the original key concepts were generated (see Table 2).

Table 2. The keywords used based on key concepts

Key concepts One		Key concepts Two		Key concepts Three		Key concepts Four
Gender stereotypes	AND	leadership	AND	NZ	AND	hospitality
Keywords “gender stereotypes”		Keywords “leadership”		Keywords “NZ”		Keywords hospitality
OR gender		OR “leadership skills”		OR aotearoa		OR hotel
OR “gender roles”		OR leader		OR nz		OR restaurant
OR “gender identity”		OR “leadership styles”				OR “food service”
OR “gender norms”						OR beverage
OR “women leaders”						OR lodging

With the aim of obtaining the three dimensions’ factors, these keywords above were combined and searched for on the selected databases (see Table 3).

Table 3. The search results generated by the search strategy

Year scope	Searching aim	Keywords	Database	The number of results
2000-2022	Acquire the materials on NZ social and individual factors	“gender stereotypes” OR gender OR “gender roles” OR “gender identity” OR “gender norms” AND “NZ” OR nz	nzresearch.org.nz.	163
			Scopus (the country: NZ was selected)	20716
			Hospitality & Tourism Complete (EBSCO)	91
	Acquire the materials on hospitality organisational and individual factors	“gender stereotypes” OR “women leaders” OR “gender roles” OR “gender identity” OR “gender norms” AND hospitality OR hotel OR restaurant AND leadership OR “leadership skills” OR leader OR “leadership styles”	nzresearch.org.nz.	
			Scopus	2011
			Hospitality & Tourism Complete (EBSCO)	106

3.6 Phase Two: Conducting data collection

3.6.1 The search strategy’s effectiveness

As Table 2 showed, for the search with the aim of obtaining organisational and individual factors, the keywords did not generate results on nzresearch.org.nz. Thus, keywords were changed and reduced when searching on this database, to “gender AND hospitality AND leadership”. However, only three results were obtained. Hence, the keywords based on the concept of leadership were deleted. This meant that the keywords “gender stereotypes” OR “women leaders” OR “gender roles” OR “gender identity” OR “gender norms” AND hospitality OR hotel OR restaurant” were searched on the nzresearch.org.nz. Here, there were 231 results generated.

Moreover, the number of resources obtained on Scopus was too large. Thus, to reduce the quantity of reading and meanwhile include all relevant materials based on this

study's aim, more strategies were used. With the aim of obtaining resources on NZ social and individual factors, keywords based on the leadership key concept were added. This meant keywords "gender stereotypes" OR gender OR "gender roles" OR "gender identity" OR "gender norms" AND "NZ" OR "nz" AND leadership OR "leadership skills" OR leader OR "leadership styles" were searched on Scopus and the country was located in NZ. In total, there were 1747 results generated by this strategy. With the aim of obtaining resources on hospitality organisational and individual factors, resources were located in journals publishing hospitality and tourism analyses and gender analyses. This meant other industry journals such as education, medicine and psychological journals were excluded. With this strategy, 288 results were acquired on Scopus.

3.6.2 Confirming the final selection of literature

To confirm the final set of data, the following criteria were used:

1. Empirical and conceptual articles were used. Thus, other materials such as book chapters and videos were excluded. Both McColl-Kennedy et al. (2017) and Schmidt and Santamaria-Alvarez (2022) used articles including journal articles and empirical and conceptual articles as their analysis object. Thus, this study also followed that approach.
2. Articles' titles, abstracts, and keywords or topics were checked. As Table 3 has shown, articles were obtained for two different search aims. With the aim of locating articles on NZ social and individual factors, if the article's title, abstract, and keyword or topic includes all the words for the key concepts: gender stereotypes, leadership and NZ (see Table 2), this article was selected; otherwise, it was removed. Similarly, articles obtained with the aim of accessing hospitality organisational and individual factors were also checked. If the articles' titles, abstracts, and keywords or topics contained all the words for the key concepts: gender stereotypes, leadership and hospitality (see Table 2), these articles were selected; otherwise, they were deleted. This process followed Schmidt and Santamaria-Alvarez's (2022) method of analysis for a semi-systematic review approach. Those authors screened articles by checking if their keywords and words with similar meanings were shown in the articles' "Title, Abstract, Keyword or Topic" (p. 2).
3. To meet the study aim, analyses associated with the NZ social and hospitality leadership gender stereotypes were selected. Thus, articles concentrating on other

specific industries' leadership gender stereotypes were removed since these analyses cannot comprehensively show the same social situations; articles related to other countries and areas were also deleted.

4. This study also aimed at exploring the factors of leadership gender stereotypes. Thus, articles without a focus on factors of leadership were excluded, such as those on the display of differences between women and men employees or those only providing a description of stereotypes without a discussion of factors.

5. The journal articles with a citation number of less than 10 were removed. In McColl-Kennedy et al.'s (2017) study, when they acquired a large number of articles from databases, citation numbers were one of the criteria used to select high-quality literature so that they reserved articles with high citation numbers. The present study's search strategy generated many journal articles. Thus, articles with low citation numbers were excluded.

3.6.3 The quality of the selected literature

The final selection of 13 articles was checked against the study's aim. These articles were read again to ensure that they showed sufficient analyses of leadership gender stereotypes in the three dimensions: NZ society, hospitality organisations, and hospitality employees; these articles also needed to show the traditional and contemporary results. Thus, these articles were divided into three dimensions, as shown in Table 4. The articles that show the past analyses are underlined in Table 4 according to these articles' titles and descriptions; the article in bold in Table 4 presents both the past and contemporary analyses.

These articles were high-quality studies since they avoided the limitations discussed in Chapter Two. After reading these articles, it was found that they contain both men's and women's attitudes and viewpoints, which can resolve previous gender studies' limitations in concentrating only on women's perceptions. Moreover, these analyses include not only NZ findings but also global findings, showing the reflection of international gendered norms in NZ hospitality workplaces, and thereby avoiding focusing on only one country. It means the results obtained in this study could suggest greater universality and comprehensiveness, and could be employed in different countries.

Table 4. The summary of the selected data sources

Dimension	Data resources	Authors and Year	Description
Social aspect	<u>Through a gendered lens? Male and female executives' representations of one another</u>	Olsson & Walker (2003)	(Scopus) <i>Leadership & Organization Development Journal</i> Presents the traditional social values' enhancement of males' privilege of being executive leaders.
Social aspect	Gendered and diversified? Leadership in global hospitality and tourism academia	Gewinner (2020)	EBSCO: <i>International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management</i> Presents the analysis of the lack of women researchers in academia in NZ including hospitality and tourism academia.
	<u>A woman's place in hotel management: Upstairs or downstairs?</u>	Mooney & Ryan (2009)	Scopus: <i>Gender in Management: An International Journal</i> Shows the past barriers (i.e. motherhood penalty) women met to their promotions.
Social & individual aspects	<u>Women's leader identity journeys: The influence of past student experiences on the formation of leader identity in women leaders (thesis)</u>	Dunlop (2018)	(nzresearch.org.nz) Analyse how past education informs the gender stereotypes of leadership for participants' current careers.
Social, organisational & individual aspects	Barriers to women's career advancement in the NZ hospitality industry (thesis)	Macpherson (2021)	(nzresearch.org.nz) Illustrates the gender barriers to women leading in their careers in the NZ hospitality industry based on the whole

Dimension	Data resources	Authors and Year	Description
			NZ industry's background.
Social, organisational & individual aspects	Incorporating a gender approach in the hospitality industry: Female executives' perceptions	Segovia-Pérez et al. (2019)	Scopus: <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i> Presents the social, organisational, and individual gender rules women executive managers meet in the hospitality workplace.
Social & organisational aspects	Gender matters in hospitality (invited paper for 'luminaries' special issue of <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i>)	Morgan & Pritchard (2019)	Scopus: <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i> Demonstrates gender awareness in hospitality research and education and gendered hospitality regulation.
Social & organisational aspects	The double bind phenomenon of hospitality female leaders	Pizam (2017)	Scopus: <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i> Analyses the double bind in values hindering women's career development from social to hospitality dimensions.
Social, organisational & individual aspects	Gender research in hospitality and tourism management: Time to change the guard	Mooney (2020)	EBSCO: <i>International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management</i> In social, hospitality academy, and individual aspects, presents the barriers hindering women's future careers in

Dimension	Data resources	Authors and Year	Description
			hospitality workplaces.
Organisation aspects	<u>Gender and salaries in hotel financial management: It's still a man's world</u>	Burgess (2003)	Scopus: <i>Women in Management Review</i> Explains organisational wage rules that enhance male leadership privilege.
Organisation aspect	<u>Gender diversity in hospitality and tourism top management teams: A systematic review of the last 10 years</u>	Russen et al. (2021)	Scopus: <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i> Through the analysis of the past organisational gender rules, shows the future plan for gender management.
Organisation & individual aspects	Mentoring for gender equality: Supporting female leaders in the hospitality industry	Dashper (2020)	Scopus: <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management</i> Through the analysis of hospitality women leaders' descriptions, presents the hospitality-gendered cultures and puts forward solutions to address these cultures.
Organisation & individual aspects	Still pounding on the glass ceiling: A study of female leaders in hospitality, travel, and tourism management	Remington & Kitterlin-Lynch (2018)	Scopus: <i>Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality and Tourism</i> Presents the challenges women leaders meet in the hospitality and tourism industry.

3.7 Phase Three: Analysis of data

3.7.1 Information Extraction and analysis: Content analysis

According to Snyder (2019), the choice of a suitable analysis method to extract and analyse data is important. A qualitative content analysis method was used in this study. Krippendorff (2004, as cited in Zakaria & Zakaria, 2016) defines the method as follows: 'qualitative content analysis' concentrates on the materials' (data) content and researchers need to categorise, evaluate and tabulate the core content and themes of these materials (p. 1). Mayring (2019) emphasised that qualitative content analysis is directed at the research question to generate answers to the question. Thus, based on this method, the texts of the selected literature were read; the useful content elements of these texts were categorised, evaluated and tabulated; and the factors of leadership gender stereotypes in the NZ hospitality industry were found and discussed. New insights were generated from these findings and discussions. This means that this analysis method meets the research aim and generates answers to the research question.

3.7.1.1 Content analysis: Coding

The coding process for information extraction and analysis was mainly based on the approach of Roller (2019) and Drisko and Maschi (2016). It consisted of four steps: 1) absorb content, 2) determine the unit of analysis, 3) conduct coding, 4) develop key codes and generate the code content.

1) Absorb content

Roller (2019) noted the importance of understanding context during analysis. This needs the careful reading of data materials. Drisko and Maschi (2016) concluded that some useful content can be acquired via the context of the text, which requires repeated reading. Thus, to absorb content, each selected article in this study was repeatedly read.

2) Determine the unit of analysis

It is important to confirm the unit of the text (Zakaria & Zakaria, 2016). The unit refers to the sections of the text such as sentences and paragraphs that are needed for researchers to analyse. After repeated reading, the sentences and paragraphs associated with factors of leadership gender stereotypes were highlighted. These sections included the direct answers on factors and indirect answers that were found based on the context.

3) Conduct coding

After acquiring units, the next step is to code these units. Two types of content were coded in this study: direct and indirect content. According to Mayring (2014), the sentences and phrases which are related to the research question in the text are chosen as codes. These codes are directly based on original text content (Drisko & Maschi, 2016). Hence, the units highlighted in the last step were coded; the core content of the sentences and phrases in these units were used as codes. For example, in one unit, the content shows the factors such as social cultural values:

In pointing to the way cultural scripts, including subconscious archetypes of leadership, contribute to a gendered lens, a social constructionist approach explains the continuing association of men with leadership through a discursive history in which women lack an archetypal profile. (Olsson & Walker, 2003, p. 388)

The code for this sentence is: “gendered lens: subconscious archetypes of leadership – from history, men are associated with leadership instead of women”. The other type of content is indirect. According to the first two steps, some indirect content may be found in the text and this content should also be coded. For example, in one unit, sentences stated the factors of leadership gender stereotypes, but they could not be coded since they were not associated with NZ, until reading the last sentence of this unit it was found that the sentences referred to above related to NZ society. Thus, this unit was coded by using the sentences and phrases from this unit.

4) Develop key codes and generate the code content

When all units of all articles were coded, the unique codes were found. Mayring (2000, as cited in Drisko & Maschi, 2016) found that with the development of codes, researchers need to confirm the key themes’ codes and subordinate themes’ codes. For instance, one code was: “factor from social dimension is that individuals judge leaders by gendered lens and gendered differences”. This code is a key code since, in other units, similar content to this theme emerged such as male leaders’ demonstration of female leaders’ characteristics; this content is firstly coded by the key code (individuals judge leaders by gendered lens and gendered differences) and then by the sentences shown in this content (male leaders’ demonstration of female leaders’ characteristics). This content was coded by the key code followed by the subordinate code. Hence, the key code was frequently shown in the data. After coding, the code content was

generated (Roller, 2019). All the codes, including the key and subordinate codes, were copied and collected into one sheet to be the code content.

3.7.2 Record and report

3.7.2.1 Content analysis: Interpretation

1) Tabulation for categorisation

For showing the data in the report, this study used the final steps of qualitative content analysis, which were generated by Drisko and Maschi (2016). Firstly, these authors explain, researchers should develop a tabulation for categorising codes to concentrate on answering the research question. As previously discussed, the code content was acquired. Thus, the researcher categorised all the key codes and subordinate codes according to three dimensions and time; this categorisation was generated using an Excel spreadsheet. There are two key categories, traditional factors and current factors, under each category, and there are three subordinate categories, the social aspect, the organisational aspect, and the individual aspect. Every key code was firstly judged on whether it belonged to traditional or current factors and then which aspect it belonged to. After this judgement, this code was placed in the category in which it belonged. The subordinate codes were judged according to which key codes they belonged to and placed under the specific key code.

2) The presentation in the report

After the category sheet had been created, the findings emerged and the data could be presented in the study's report. For this part of the process, Drisko and Maschi (2016) explained that the narrative way is one of the most common ways for the data presentation in the study report; in the narrative, the key categories and key codes of the data are shown as headings in the report; these codes and categories should be interpreted and summarised, and also discussed by using the citations to generate the results based on the data. In the study's report, the key categories, traditional factors and current factors are shown as two main headings, thus dividing the report into two parts: "Part One: Traditional gender role expectations" and "Part Two: Current gender role expectations"; under each phase, there are three subordinate headings based on the category sheet: traditional societal, organisational, and individual aspects' findings and discussion, and current societal, organisational, and individual aspects' findings and

discussion. Finally, under each subordinate heading, key codes were shown as lower-level headings, interpreted and summarised, and then discussed via citations.

3.8 Conclusion

In this chapter, the qualitative literature review methodology used to fulfil the research aim by exploring the factors of gender stereotypes of leadership in NZ hospitality workplaces, was set out. Based on the literature review process, according to the semi-systematic review and secondary data collection method, an effective search strategy was employed to acquire the data (articles). These articles were found to answer the topic question and overcome some of the limitations seen in previous studies. For the data analysis, qualitative content analysis was used to code the data (article text) and present the findings and discussion based on the data in the final report. Thus, in the following chapter, the data is presented and summarised as findings and discussed in order to generate additional or new knowledge.

Chapter 4 Findings and Discussion

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings and discussion based on the data analysis process discussed in the previous chapter. There are three sections in this chapter. Part One covers the historical factors of gender stereotypes about leader idealisation and Part Two presents the contemporary factors of these stereotypes. Then, the final section is the summary of these first two sections. Both Parts One and Two cover three aspects of gender stereotyping: societal values, hospitality organisational gendered rules, and individual attitudes. In this way, factors underpinning the attitudes that indicate women are not suitable leaders are presented. Changes over the past 20 years are noted and these key findings are revealed by mutual effects among the different aspects of gender stereotyping. The first two sections present the data by explaining which articles are used at the beginning of each section; in the findings parts of these sections, articles are identified via an article number (Article 1, Article 2, etc.) based on the explanation given at the beginning of each section, and quotes from those sources are given in italics.

4.2 Part One: Traditional gender role expectations

Part One sets out the traditional gender role expectations, which indicate the historical factors of gender stereotypes of leadership. Findings were generated from the following articles presenting the past factors due to these articles being published year before 2010, which means their analyses are from the past:

Article 1: “Through a Gendered Lens? Male and Female Executives’ Representations of One Another” Olsson and Walker (2003)

Article 2: “Gender and Salaries in Hotel Financial Management: It’s Still a Man’s World” Burgess (2003)

Article 3: “A Woman's Place in Hotel Management: Upstairs or Downstairs?” Mooney and Ryan (2009)

Some other articles were also included to illustrate the traditional factors although these articles have been published in more recent years; they were included because these articles presented traditional analyses:

Article 4: “Women’s Leader Identity Journeys: The Influence of Past Student Experiences on the Formation of Leader Identity in Women Leaders” Dunlop (2018)

Article 5: “Gender Diversity in Hospitality and Tourism Top Management Teams: A Systematic Review of the Last 10 Years” Russen et al. (2021)

Article 6: “Barriers to Women's Career Advancement in the NZ Hospitality Industry” Macpherson (2021)

4.2.1 Findings on societal values

International societal values were the essential findings for providing information on gendered stereotypes about leader idealisation in this study. These global societal values were found to be reflected in NZ societal values; these are historical factors creating leadership gender stereotypes in NZ work environments. The themes are the key codes generated from the data.

1) Social beliefs about women’s focus on family

One important theme emerging in articles (data) was the belief about women’s concentration on family care-giving responsibilities. Under this traditional societal value, women were commonly deemed incompetent to be leaders. For example, research from Olsson and Walker (2003) presented the gendered lens’s impact on leaders’ attitudes toward leadership in NZ society in the past (Article 1). Their research used a past theory from Sinclair (1994) as the theoretical base in the NZ study of women’s leadership: family duty was an important reason informing the common value, implying that women were not ideal leaders (Article 1). Another study by Burgess (2003), which analysed the global reason for the gender imbalance in the financial management team of the traditional hospitality industry, also demonstrated a similar point (Article 2). It suggested the reason why women were not promoted into leadership positions was that they were believed to lack the commitment due to balancing family and careers according to social expectations (Article 2): *“the lack of this shows ‘evidence’ of a lack of commitment – which is difficult when balancing family life. There may also be societal or employment expectations of this type of career structure, perhaps leading to lower – status jobs for women”* (Burgess, 2003, p. 51). Similarly, Mooney and Ryan’s (2009) study revealed barriers women met in NZ hospitality workplaces (Article 3). Conflict between the family and life balance was one of the typical barriers based on traditional values; the values showed that women should

consider childcare rather than men (Article 3) : *“a man moving also has to factor in his children’s needs but generally, this appeared to be the responsibility of his wife rather than his primary responsibility”* (Mooney & Ryan, 2009, p. 202).

2) Gendered differences impact individuals’ judgments about leadership

In the findings, the gendered differences’ impacting on leadership were frequently mentioned. Social gendered differences were used by individuals to judge incumbents of leadership and management positions at workplaces. For instance, a finding from Burgess’s (2003) study of the global hospitality management team’s gender imbalance showed social perceptions about gendered differences divided women and men into having different desires for their careers (Article 2): *“It is social attitudes of both individuals and companies that now appear to affect women’s career development ... there is a perception that men ‘need’ to have a career more than women do”* (p. 57). Moreover, Olsson and Walker (2003), in their study of NZ social attitudes towards leadership, found that both NZ male and female executives judged leaders according to gender differences: males supported the view that good women leaders should have female qualities such as kindness and softness; women also thought that they should own these qualities to be competent leaders and lead their future careers (Article 1). Similarly, Russen et al. (2021) analysed the factors explaining the lack of women leaders in the hospitality industry’s top management teams in the previous 10 years in their study, and cited a theory from Ngan and Litwin (2019) to present the idea that the traditional societal division was informing social labour in 2010 (Article 5): *“women as the homemakers and men as the leaders”* (Ngan & Litwin, 2019, as cited in Russen et al., 2021, p. 7).

3) Penalties for women leaders

Women leaders were often punished in their workplace organisations since they did not follow social expectations. For example, Olsson and Walker (2003) (Article 1) described “sanctions” occurring for women leaders as *“against those women who display stereotypical, male behaviors”* under a gendered lens function (p. 392). This illustration showed the penalty for women leaders who did not follow the social gendered division; in this study of NZ’s societal values of gendered leadership, women leaders received their counterparts’ dislike (Article 1): *“men suggested that women were trying to be ‘too like a man’ or ‘too different’”* (Olsson & Walker, 2003, p. 391). Moreover, Mooney and Ryan (2009), in their NZ study about barriers to hotel woman

workers' careers, also illustrated penalties against global women leaders who were mothers of young children (Article 3): *"some spoke about women who had been employed by the company being made redundant when they became pregnant"* (p. 203). Another study from Dunlop (2018) (Article 4) revealed the penalty women met in their past work experiences, illustrating how NZ women leaders confronted challenges and *"had to bear the 'rebellious' label"* in their past work experiences (p. 40).

4) Male-dominated management teams

The theme of male dominance in the executive world was most frequently mentioned in the data. Male leadership and male leaders traditionally dominated in the work environments, including NZ's workplaces, which informed the perceptions that men were more suitable leaders. Olsson and Walker (2003) concluded that the NZ management teams were historically dominated by men and excluded women (Article 1): *"male executives constructed senior management as a male domain in which, implicitly if not explicitly, women were [shown as] 'absence' or 'silence' (Marshall, 1995)"* (p. 390). Burgess (2003) also made similar points in their study of the traditional hospitality gender imbalance of management teams; Burgess concluded that women often perceived a higher standard was required to access leadership since they were treated as the exception in the management team (Article 2). A supporting finding from Dunlop's (2018) study showed women workers' challenges related to gendered biases under the male organisational culture in women's past work experiences in NZ (Article 4): *"Sharlene is a leader in her organization, in an industry that historically has not promoted women in senior leadership positions. She has had to challenge some discriminatory behavior during her time with the organization"* (p. 40).

5) Societal values impact

The data showed that the traditional societal values which informed the leadership-gendered stereotypes were changing slowly and this would continue. This was a factor enabling these stereotypes to remain in workplaces. Burgess (2003) concluded that the traditional attitudes would continue and women would also struggle in workplaces even though there were some positive changes in attitudes (Article 2): *"Despite an immense social change in recent years, traditional attitudes towards the need for women to work in responsible jobs persist and these will ensure that women are unable to achieve their full potential"* (p. 57). Likewise, Olsson and Walker (2003), in their research into NZ's societal values of leadership, showed that women's professional networking was an

undeveloped and new culture experiencing a slow change and having an uncertain future (Article 1).

4.2.2 Discussion of societal values

4.2.2.1 Gendered differences in leadership

As illustrated in the data, gendered differences in leadership perceptions were an important factor. The sample has shown past social gendered differences' impacts on leadership. Firstly, in terms of these differences, men were traditionally supported by the organisation as being more competent leaders. Harrison et al. (2015) explained that after the gender division of men and women, the gender differences perceptions (i.e., female and male features) were naturally widespread; and via traditional social activities, female features were under-evaluated and male features were deemed to reflect power and status in leadership. Hence, through these differences, men acquired more power to be leaders than women. Carvalho et al.'s (2019) review of a large number of previous studies demonstrated that the social construction of gender differences was used to justify discrimination against women on the basis that these differences were natural and could not be changed. Thus, the fact that gender differences implied masculine leadership was taken for granted, not only by society but by researchers too.

Secondly, the data showed the gendered roles following the differences enhanced masculine leadership: men were positioned as ideal leaders and women were not because their 'natural' role was to be the homemaker and carer. This result was similar to the point made in Chapter 2 that, under common traditional social attitudes, women should be more suitable for the domestic area to carry out caring tasks instead of workplace tasks. This result also supports a previous study finding: Badura et al. (2018) confirmed that, historically, men acquired higher status within the family as they were regarded as the "breadwinner"; women's domestic role had lower status (p. 337). Badura et al. also concluded that this domestic division of labour was embedded in workplace perceptions so that men were considered ideal workers and leaders. Castaño et al. (2010, as cited in Segovia-Pérez et al., 2019) also found that women's family responsibilities were used to justify their exclusion from leadership. Thus, based on the social gendered differences, women and men were divided into female and male styles of leading, and the male style was deemed to be the more suitable leadership style.

Based on the first two points above, according to the findings, women could also receive penalties if they did not meet their gender role under gender differences. Women with male characteristics such as ambition were labeled “rebellious” and women leaders with young children faced a reduction in their status in workplaces. Mavin and Grandy (2016) illustrated how women’s ambitions and assertiveness were traditionally treated as ‘unreasonable’ female features since, in terms of gender differences, these features belonged to men. Carli and Eagly (2016) presented past analyses showing organisation’s punishment of motherhood, and that women leaders with children ran the risk of being replaced. This punishment presented the gender role associated with carers instead of leaders. Hence, according to the gender difference, women should be kind and soft without a desire to be leaders since they needed to fulfil their caregiver role; if they challenged this bias, they could be punished and disliked in the workplace.

Fourthly, due to the privileges of men under gender differences described above, men were numerically dominant in the executive management team, which also implied the norm of masculine leadership. As the finding shows, the executive world being a male domain was the “common attitude”. Many global industries, especially the hospitality industry, were traditional and followed traditional social rules, including following male rules and enabling males to dominate top management teams (Segovia-Pérez et al., 2019, as cited in Gebbels et al., 2020). Cho et al. (2017) and Badura et al. (2018) showed that women previously remained in low-level or middle-level management positions without opportunities to acquire higher promotion; thus, fewer women could enter the management team, so that most leaders in the past were men. When men formed the majority of the traditional management team, it may be commonly believed that they, rather than women, were the natural leaders.

4.2.2.2 Summary of the traditional societal values

The main factor of gendered leadership in societal values was the gender difference. Traditionally, this difference informed the gender stereotype to show men’s privilege of leadership; based on this difference, the gender roles were women’s concentration on family and men’s concentration on careers and leadership. Women could be punished, and were punished, if they presented the ambition of being leaders and mothers; finally, this difference was also presented in the male domination of executive teams.

On the other hand, as the findings showed, historic societal values have changed over time, but the results have not been satisfying. For example, women could become leaders, but they should still follow social expectations of women's roles and be nurturing. Thus, the gender difference would still exist. Abrahamsson (2014) found that while changes in societal gender stereotypes should be acknowledged and that many gender inequalities and biases have been reduced in the work environment; many gendered rules such as vertical occupational sex segregation were retained, and new gender stereotypes emerged instead. Thus, many gendered problems, including stereotypes of leadership, have not been resolved and the changes have taken place slowly, without a significant effect on the problem. Future stereotypes might emerge in new circumstances.

4.2.3 Gendered values at the organisational level

This section presents traditional hospitality organisations' gendered rules, which were the important factors informing gendered attitudes to leader idealisation. These rules are shown to be related to social and individual attitudes. Resembling the approach taken in the previous section on societal aspects of gender stereotyping, the data associated with the organisational level were generated from the analyses of global hospitality workplaces and NZ hospitality workplaces. The themes that follow are findings on organisational factors which were frequently mentioned in the data.

1) Glass ceiling

The first key organisational gendered value that emerged from the data was the 'glass ceiling'. The glass ceiling refers to a typical gendered rule in organisations that hinders women's access to leadership positions, which is commonly understood to include the unequal evaluation of leadership ability, vertical occupational segregation, exclusion of woman workers with young children, and hierarchical power regulation. Firstly, Burgess (2003) showed the unequal evaluation of leadership ability for women, which indicated the reason for the glass ceiling found in the hospitality financial management team (Article 2): *"Even when women do hold equivalent qualifications (as with professional accounting or hospitality degrees) they still appear to progress at a slower level and then reach a 'glass ceiling'"* (p. 56).

Burgess (2003) also put forward a theory from Biswas and Cassell (1996) to show the vertical occupational segregation in the hospitality workplace, which built up the traditional glass ceiling for women leaders since this segregation meant that women

could not access the positions that were deemed to be higher positions with higher-level daily work tasks (Article 2). Thirdly, research from Mooney and Ryan (2009) showed gendered barriers for women with children in their study of past NZ hospitality environments, finding that women perceived the glass ceiling and abandoned building a family to fulfil the organisational requirement of commitment to leadership (Article 3):

“interviews revealed that the perception of glass ceiling barriers faced by women in their hotel career ... Various respondents commented that most of the women who made it to the top were single and some were lesbian. This signalled to the younger women that they may have to be without a partner and children to ‘get on’.” (p. 200)

Another study from Russen et al. (2021) (Article 5) on the global hospitality gender glass ceiling in the last 10 years used the idea of the *“broken rung in the ladder to leadership”* to explain the hierarchy offering fewer promotional opportunities and no mentor support for women (p 4).

2) Motherhood penalty

The second key theme about organisational processes was the motherhood penalty that was embedded in organisational rules based on leadership gender stereotypes which limited career progression. The difficulty of balancing work and family (i.e., childcare) was the reflection of societal values: social beliefs about women’s focus on family. Burgess (2003), in a study of the reason for female hospitality workers’ promotion barriers, used Gammie and Gammie’s (1997) theory to demonstrate that having children created a barrier to career for women since they were believed to lack commitment to work positions due to having more family caring tasks related to their children (Article 2). Mooney and Ryan (2009) gave further illustrations of this gendered rule in NZ hotel workplaces; they concluded that the long-hours work norm was a typical reason for the motherhood penalty; women with children felt they were struggling to meet this norm (Article 3): *“work long hours with interviewees revealing that this was a norm for advancement... Women with children were greatly affected by long hours as they had to juggle childcare and working hours”* (p. 204).

3) Male-dominated organisational management teams

Similar to the finding in the section on societal values, male dominance was shown in hospitality organisations’ management teams. This organisational gendered value revealed the absence of women leaders, and led individuals to perceive that men should

be leaders. A finding generated by Burgess (2003) (Article 2) showed that the male dominance of the traditional financial management team in global hospitality workplaces resulted in woman employees' perception that there was no possibility of accessing this team by "*being discouraged from becoming qualified because they see that these jobs are largely occupied by men*" (p. 56). Likewise, both Mooney and Ryan (2009) and Macpherson (2021), in their empirical studies of NZ hospitality organisations, showed this gendered value meant that more opportunities were created for male workers, which excluded women and further enabled male dominance (Article 3, Article 6).

4) Little organisational support

The failure of organisations to support women employees was another important theme generated from the data. This theme showed that women could not receive the organisation's support from role models and/or mentors in a male-dominated management team. Mooney and Ryan's (2009) found that it was easier for men to establish a professional network but harder for women; without the support of a network, women perceived the difficulty of accessing management positions (Article 3). Research from Dunlop (2018) revealed a similar finding in an NZ study of women leaders' experiences, and showed that despite becoming leaders, women still felt it was hard to blend in with the team due to having no fellow women as support (Article 4): "*she and other senior leaders challenged the current model of leadership which does not have any women in the executive team*" (p. 40).

Likewise, Russen et al. (2021), in their analysis of international hospitality organisations' male dominance of management teams over the past 10 years, showed this situation caused women to feel there were no suitable role models and mentor support for their careers (Article 5): "*The lack of female mentors and role models in the hospitality and tourism industry leads to perceived barriers to entry in management for other women*" (p. 4).

5) Organisational gendered rules are hard to change

As the findings in the societal values section showed, the societal values behind discrimination in leadership continue to change very slowly. This point also impacted the past hospitality organisational gendered rules, which meant the gender stereotypes of leader idealisation were hard to change. For example, Burgess (2003) showed that

global traditional attitudes toward women, such as occupational segregation in financial management roles, remained in place, which limited women's capabilities (Article 2): *“traditional attitudes towards the need for women to work in responsible jobs persist and these will ensure that women are unable to achieve their full potential”* (p. 57).

These findings were supported by Mooney and Ryan (2009), showing that, over time, the gendered barriers had not been changed and that women hotel workers were still searching for their ideal workplaces (Article 3): *“the findings of this research show that ‘genuine choice’ in this contemporary workplace is still, for women, as much an ideal to strive for now as it was two decades ago”* (p. 207).

4.2.4 Discussion of organisational values

4.2.4.1 Glass ceiling

Historically, the glass ceiling was a widespread phenomenon. The findings showed that the glass ceiling was presented as the embodiment of gendered norms to implicate women as not suitable leaders, which were also discussed more in previous analyses. Firstly, the glass ceiling embodied the motherhood penalty. According to Carvalho et al. (2018), women's reproductive role was traditionally a typical barrier forming the glass ceiling for women in the hospitality industry. Under organisational considerations of potential for promotion, women workers with young children were considered unsuitable to be leaders due to their lack of commitment. According to Macpherson (2021), under the discrimination of motherhood, many women executive managers in past NZ hospitality organisations had a choice between work or a family with children; this means these women might feel they would have to neglect their families to meet the long-hours work commitment, as found by Mooney and Ryan (2009). Thus, it meant women's careers were traditionally interrupted for pregnancy and childcare (Bazazo et al., 2017).

Furthermore, the previous study also showed that the glass ceiling was also typically seen in the organisation's male-dominated management team. Women's absence from management teams, especially the top management team, created a self-fulfilling stereotype: women were not competent to be leaders. This situation was shown in individuals' attitudes, including women's attitudes. According to Clevenger and Singh (2013), historically, women would suspect that if they could access the leading positions since they found fewer women leaders in the organisation. Hence, female hospitality employees might lack the confidence to develop their careers when facing a

male-dominated management team. Not only the women but also the whole organisation might take this vertical sex segregation as natural. According to Marinakou (2014), past organisational policies and practices implied that women were deemed to be short-term workers due to their family duties, and were not qualified to be promoted into management teams. Thus, women were segregated into low-level positions and the management team was dominated by men.

Meanwhile, male dominance was also associated with the lack of organisational support for women's careers. The lack of "careers networks" and the need for a "role model" were frequently mentioned in the data. Kim et al. (2015) reported that women found it difficult to access or gain influential mentors and follow a role model in male-dominated management teams. If women could not find a professional network in the management team, they perceived the difficulty in accessing this team (Cho et al., 2017).

The glass ceiling was also presented as limiting women's careers through other gendered organisational values such as the higher standard expected of women compared to men and a fixed hierarchy. According to Clevenger and Singh (2013), women workers and leaders often faced expectations of higher standards in their daily work which meant that male workers' mistakes could be forgiven and women workers' mistakes could not. Moreover, Kensbock et al. (2013) defined a potential gendered practice: the top management did not value employees' suggestions or listen to their complaints. Under the hierarchical power division, women were assigned to work in specific lower positions and their dissatisfaction was ignored by managers. This rule showed the hierarchy informing gender inequality. Thus, the glass ceiling based on higher standards for woman employees and a fixed hierarchy were also used in the workplace to enhance men's privilege.

4.2.4.2 Summary of organisational values

The main past organisational value informing the gender stereotype of leadership was the glass ceiling, which was embedded in different gendered norms. These norms included the motherhood penalty, male-dominated management teams, no organisational support, higher standards for women than for men, and organisational hierarchical division. These rules constituted the glass ceiling that impeded women's careers and access to leadership positions.

Moreover, according to these findings, the hospitality industry's gendered rules were not effectively addressed despite the positive changes shown. According to Bazazo et al. (2017), while hospitality organisations in the past attempted to implement strategies to involve more women leaders, these strategies were only limited to middle management positions. It can be explained that organisations implemented strategies just to meet the organisation's demands instead of considering the staff's real requirements. According to Parker and Arrowsmith (2012), past hospitality employers abandoned useful solutions for establishing an equal workplace when they found these solutions required more financial cost. Thus, hospitality management teams were not willing to actually resolve problems based on their employees' needs, which meant that discrimination was not addressed in meaningful ways at all career stages.

4.2.5 Findings on individuals' attitudes about gender

This section discusses traditional individual attitudes informing the gender stereotypes of leadership. According to the data, these attitudes were seen among managers, and among men and women more generally. In the same way as the first two aspects of gender stereotyping, the data about individual attitudes were obtained from employees in global hospitality and NZ hospitality organisations.

1) Managers and supervisors' negative attitudes

The first key factor shown in the data leading to gendered stereotypes of leadership was managers' negative attitudes toward women leaders. It was difficult to decide whether the theme belonged to the organisational gendered rules or the individual attitudes category. In this study, the decision was taken to place the managers' and supervisors' attitudes in the individual category. Hicks (1990, as cited in Burgess, 2003) found that managers expressed negative attitudes about women's supposed lack of commitment to their careers; Hicks's finding was used by Burgess (2003) in their study of financial teams of the hospitality organisation which suggested gender discrimination by managers (Article 2): *"One of the clear findings by Hicks (1990), was that (mostly male) managers assumed that women would only be committed to a short-term career and hence had different goals than men"* (p. 52).

Mooney and Ryan's (2009) study on female managers in NZ and Australian hotels highlighted the importance of senior managers' viewpoints; for example, the organisation's professed strategies of *"more family-friendly work hours"* (Article 3)

could not be practiced because managers were not willing to implement the strategy (p. 204).

2) Individuals undervalued women's abilities

A variety of social values across different social groups (i.e. women and men) undervalued women's competence, including men's suspicions about the women leaders' abilities and women's self-doubt about their own abilities. Olsson and Walker (2003) studied NZ executives' attitudes toward leadership in a variety of organisations. Their findings showed that men questioned women leaders' ability to be senior leaders (Article 1): *"I have difficulties because I do interface with a number of CEO females, I sometimes have difficulty with their skills. I think some of them are appointed because they are females"* (Olsson & Walker, 2003, p. 392).

Burgess's (2003) study on global hospitality executive management teams illustrated an attitude of denial from male hospitality managers, who believed it was women's lack of ability that led to the small number of women leaders (Article 2): *"they [male managers?] see that these jobs are largely occupied by men ... men still consider women as 'not good enough'"* (p. 56).

Mooney and Ryan's (2009) analysis of Australian and NZ hotels found the effects of professional undermining led women to doubt whether they could deliver what was expected from them in an unsupported environment (Article 3): *"Female managers expressed concern as to whether they could possibly combine a management role with motherhood and if they were to have children"* (p 204).

3) Women's concentration in low-level positions

The third important factor that emerged was women's concentration in low-level positions. It expressed in women's lack of confidence in being promoted into senior roles, and acceptance of low-level positions due to social and organisational gendered values. Burgess (2003), in a study of gendered biases in hospitality financial management teams, concluded that women traditionally lacked confidence and they deemed that they were incapable of being leaders (Article 2). Women's negative self-perceptions were caused by implicit social and organisational gendered norms such as male-dominated management teams (Article 2). Dunlop (2018) indicated that women's past work experience, led them to express disappointment with NZ organisation's gender discrimination, as seen in fewer promotional opportunities for women: *"not*

providing opportunities to challenge those gendered norms, it could be argued, sets the participants up to be disenchanted with the gendered workplace environments, as many women encounter in the labor force” (Article 4, p. 78).

Macpherson’s (2021) review of historical NZ gendered career barriers suggested resignation to gender-based discrimination might be viewed as “*complicit masculinity*” (Article 6), as women’s silence supported and reinforced the gendered rules (p. 16).

4) Women’s awareness of the lack of support

The findings revealed that women were aware of the lack of organisational support. For example, Mooney and Ryan (2009), in their study of women’s barriers to promotion in hotels, found the old boy network and their exclusion from male networks that disadvantaged them (Article 3). Furthermore, research from Dunlop (2018) based on women’s past experiences in NZ workplaces revealed important sources of supports that were absent in women’s careers, including the lack of school education about workplace barriers, and the lack of parental support (Article 4):

With leader identity not a focus of school development, little was done to unravel those social cues that limit how women experience leadership when they start their careers ... [as] highlighted in the interviews. (, p. 82)

While these women were able to navigate their own career paths to leadership roles, I would contend that many students do not have the self-belief, the parental support. (Article 4, p. 81)

Russen et al.’s (2021) analysis of the hospitality industry’s past gendered norms revealed that women employees also felt the lack of organisational support for their careers: “*a male-dominated culture, women are less likely to feel the organization is supportive of selection, promotion, or mentoring of women*” (Article 5, p. 4).

5) Men endorsed the gendered discrimination

There was evidence of men’s defence of the gendered stereotypes of leadership. For example, Dunlop’s (2018) study of NZ women’s past work experiences found that some men were ignorant of gender discrimination; Despite men’s awareness of the gender issue, they treated it as a natural organisational situation (Article 4): “*no men spoke up because they didn’t see it as a problem. Even if they recognise it as a problem, it was like oh ha ha, yeah, they didn’t even think that was totally inappropriate*” (p. 40).

According to Macpherson (2021), in previous decades, in NZ hospitality workplaces, men supported traditional societal values, including women's role as undertaking more family duties, and put the norm into practice by giving more consideration to their own careers: *"It has been found that men reify complicity to women's minority position in prioritizing work over family life, due to the socially ingrained position of female partners as domestic carers"* (Article 6, p. 13).

6) Self-imposed barriers

From the data, it appeared women's self-identity could also hinder women's careers. This theme emphasised the women's own negative impact on their careers more than social and organisational impacts. For example, Burgess's (2003) conclusions on the gendered rules of global hospitality management teams highlighted that changes in women employees' attitudes were the more useful method of dealing with occupational segregation; Burgess's conclusion supported the view that individual perceptions were the main reason hindering women's efforts to be leaders (Article 2). In addition, Macpherson (2021), when discussing historical gendered barriers in NZ hospitality workplaces, presented that the employers suggested that, the reason why women employees were unable to balance family and careers was that women set the barriers themselves; for example, some management teams found that women might remain silent when experiencing discrimination, being unwilling to attempt to challenge it, even though it was the main reason hindering their promotion (Article 6). Hence, as the previous sections showed, women's self-perceptions were mainly influenced by social and organisational norms; however, this theme, the self-imposed barrier, emphasised the impact of individuals, which means that women employees' perceptions were the main reason for this barrier and the social and organisational impacts were decreased.

4.2.6 Discussion of individual attitudes

4.2.6.1 Perceptions impacted by societal and organisational values

Individual attitudes to gender stereotypes of leadership were influenced by traditional societal and organisational values; these attitudes came from managers, as well as more generally from both women, and men. Previous studies also emphasised the reflection of past social and organisational values into individuals' feelings. First of all, managers' attitudes towards female leaders were traditionally based on societal values, which impacted the whole workplace's values. According to Elhoushy and El-Said (2020), in the recruitment process, managers have already shown a gendered evaluation by using

common societal values to judge the advantages and disadvantages of hiring a woman. Thus, from the beginning of the process of contacting the organisation, individuals have met the organisation's gender division reproduced in the management team, and might be assigned into certain positions based on this division. Moreover, Litwin et al. (2019) illustrated how, traditionally, both Austrian and Chinese managers were influenced by societal values to set more obstacles to women's career development, despite these countries' different cultures. Hence, managers globally put the glass ceiling in place for female employees. In addition, managers' attitudes were also impacted by the organisational gender norms such as male-dominated management teams. Scholars revealed that the number of women leaders in the global hospitality industry in the past was small (for example, Lagasi & Buba, 2016; Litwin et al., 2019); therefore, most managers in this industry were men and they naturally believed that men should be leaders rather than women (Elhoushy & El-Said, 2020).

Furthermore, women's negative perceptions were also caused by traditional gender values in society and in the organisation. According to further insights from previous literature, they received the undervalue of their abilities, accepted low-level positions, and perceived the lack of support, and, therefore, lacked confidence. Firstly, women might accept low-level positions. Kensbock et al. (2013) revealed that the traditional hospitality organisation often hired women into the housekeeping department and the job was commonly considered a simple one with low-level status. Under this evaluation, women in this department accepted the common under-evaluation even though they believed their job was an essential service (Alcalde-González et al., 2021). Female hospitality employees experienced inequality in organisations so that they lost confidence and accepted their low-level positions. According to Min and Yoon (2021), under the glass ceiling, women felt hopeless about developing careers and being promoted, and might leave their work or accept their position without desiring to change it. Furthermore, women's perceptions of the lack of social and organisational support increased their lack of willingness to access leadership positions. According to Brownell (1993, as cited in Kumara, 2018), the old-boy network was the most important barrier to women workers who sought advancement to the management team. Women experienced exclusion from male professional networks and were unwilling to aspire the higher-level positions (Smith & Crimes, 2007, as cited in Chen et al. 2021). Women leaders might also not be willing to help women staff access leadership positions, since some Women leaders preferred to keep their advantageous position as the minority

member of the management team; without help from the management team, especially women leaders' help, women employees felt it was very difficult to strive for leading positions (Brownell, 1993; Mooney & Ryan, 2009, as cited in Chen et al. 2021). Apart from the lack of organisational support, societal backups such as family encouragement were also absent for women, which caused difficulties for women in developing their careers. Chen et al. (2021) raised that women usually wished and attempted to meet familial expectations to be a good wife or mother; they needed partners' help including in sharing family duties to support their careers, however, they often could not obtain this support. Hence, women felt no confidence about becoming leaders because there was no possibility of balancing family and career due to no family backing.

Men's attitudes were also a reflection of organisational gender values. According to the findings, men were traditionally willing to support the existence of gendered inequality in hospitality. It may have been because men could obtain more benefits from inequality such as higher wage levels and support from male networks for promotion (Hultin & Szulkin, 2003, as cited in Bakas et al., 2018). Thus, men were often complicit in gendered discrimination that allowed them to be more easily promoted than women. Moreover, even if not complicit, they treated the existence of gender problems as natural. According to Boone et al. (2013), more male employees than female employees did not believe that the glass ceiling was a problem. Men might regard this value as the normal practice in the workplace. In their view, it was reasonable to follow the common social norm, even though men perceived that the norm supported gender inequality.

4.2.6.2 The magnification of societal and organisational values

According to the findings of the study, women's and men's perceptions were key factor informing gender stereotypes. Previous studies showed that organisational gendered norms were accepted by individuals so that these norms' impacts were magnified. Firstly, this intensification can be presented by women's experience. For example, women were unwilling to challenge the unequal rules and express their career plans; thus, managers might deem that women did not desire the promotion (Singh & Terjesen, 2008, as cited in Kiaye & Singh, 2013). It meant that if women never tried to change the current situation, they could be ignored by the management team since their demands could not be known. Moreover, as Boone et al. (2013) demonstrated, women, blamed themselves instead of the organisational rules, since they thought they were not able to balance work and family. Women's silence and blame contributed to the stereotype,

enabling the organisation to confirm women's lack of qualification for leadership. Secondly, men were an important group in magnifying the norms. As the discussion above showed, men acquired benefits from the gendered values in the workplace. As a result, they were more likely to support these values instead of challenging them. Thus, the individual impact was highlighted as boosting the gendered norms since individuals magnified these norms' impacts. In this view, factors from the traditional individual level became more significant than other levels' factors.

4.2.6.3 Summary of individual attitudes

Traditional individual perceptions of gender stereotypes were the reflection of societal and organisational values. These perceptions showed that managers used gender division to judge leaders' qualities and capabilities and implement the glass ceiling, women lacked confidence and stayed silent due to the impact of inequality, and men supported gendered norms since they could acquire benefits. Moreover, the individual level factor was also emphasised as the main factor informing gender stereotypes; it meant that when individuals preferred to stay silent and accept the gendered norms, the impact of these norms could be strengthened to hinder women's careers. This emphasis might imply that if individuals can challenge or fight these norms, the result may be different or at least the negative impact can be reduced.

4.3 Summary of past gender stereotypes

4.3.1 Intersection of different aspects of gender stereotyping

The study indicates that traditional societal values, organisational values and individual perceptions intersected to inform the gender stereotypes of leadership in hospitality workplaces. As the data has presented, the impact of societal values was more frequently mentioned in relation to the traditional organisational values. It meant that hospitality organisational gendered norms were the reflection of societal values. According to González-Serrano et al. (2018), the glass ceiling was associated with the social gender division, indicating that women were not qualified to be leaders. As previously shown in regard to the definition of the social gender difference and glass ceiling, both represented values that women were not suitable to be leaders. Moreover, the individual-level factors were reflected in the societal and organisational norms. Thus, different aspects of gender stereotyping interacted and reinforced.

4.3.2 Summary of historical gender stereotypes

To sum up, traditional basic factors mutually impacted and informed the gender stereotypes of leadership; these factors included the social gender difference, the organisational glass ceiling, and individual attitudes reflected in the previous two gendered norms. Meanwhile, as the data showed, past analyses have indicated that these factors were difficult to change. Hence, some traditional societal and organisational gendered norms were shown as persisting in the more recent analyses, as is demonstrated in Part Two, below. Meanwhile, some of them are shown to have changed to current gendered norms.

4.4 Part Two: Current gender role expectations

Part Two of this chapter considers contemporary gender role expectations, and indicates the changes which have occurred between historic and contemporary findings. According to the data, findings generated from the following articles present contemporary or current factors due to these articles' analyses being generated in the years since 2017; they represent the current situation and the differences compared to the past situation:

Article 1: "The Double Bind Phenomenon of Hospitality Female Leaders", Pizam (2017)

Article 2: "Still Pounding on the Glass Ceiling: A Study of Female Leaders in Hospitality, Travel, and Tourism Management", Remington & Kitterlin-Lynch (2018)

Article 3: "Incorporating a Gender Approach in the Hospitality Industry: Female Executives' Perceptions", Segovia-Pérez et al. (2019)

Article 4: "Gender Matters in Hospitality (Invited Paper for 'Luminaries' Special Issue of *International Journal of Hospitality Management*)", Morgan & Pritchard (2019)

Article 5: "Mentoring for Gender Equality: Supporting Female Leaders in the Hospitality Industry", Dashper (2020)

Article 6: "Gender Research in Hospitality and Tourism Management: Time to Change the Guard", Mooney (2020)

Article 7: "Gendered and Diversified? Leadership in Global Hospitality and Tourism Academia", Gewinner (2020)

Article 8: “Barriers to Women's Career Advancement in the NZ Hospitality Industry”, Macpherson (2021)

4.4.1 Findings on societal values

Contemporary societal values are mainly the continuation of past societal values presented in the previous section; however, there are some changes in current values. The contemporary values are shown as key themes in the data from global and NZ societal analyses. Similar to the analysis of past themes presented earlier in this study, current themes frequently emerge in the literature (data).

1) Persistence of beliefs about gender differences

Gender differences based on the social gender division are still widespread and resemble the societal values of the past. Segovia-Pérez et al. (2019), in a global study of the discrimination experienced by women executives leaders in the hospitality workplace, presented women leaders' perception of social expectations (Article 3). They indicated that women should be more suited to being employees instead of leaders since, according to the gender role, they should be the domestic caregivers. Thus, women are judged by the social gender difference, not their abilities (Article 3). Macpherson's (2021) research on existing barriers for NZ hospitality women workers also made a similar point (Article 8). This research refers to the idea of the “*socially created dichotomy of boys/girls in separate roles*” informing gendered stereotypes to show that men's roles are outside the home and leaders and women's role is as the family carer (Macpherson, 2021, p. 31). It is because men's characteristics are suitable for workplaces and leadership but women's characteristics are not (Macpherson, 2021) (Article 8).

2) Penalties against women leaders

Penalties against women leaders, such as the double standard and the social culture of misogyny, are shown in the data as the key themes. The traditional penalties focused on that women who demonstrated an assertive style were disliked, as previously discussed in Part One. The current social penalty concentrates on the double-gendered societal expectations, such that women leaders who choose a female or a male leadership style are punished. For example, Pizam's (2017) analysis of double sanctions for women illustrated negative social labels based on two irreconcilable expectations for women leaders, implying that women leaders are punished no matter whether they show a

female typed style such as kindness, or a male style in being forceful (Article 1). This can be explained that, based on societal values, women should follow the gender role to show kindness; meanwhile, to fulfil the leadership requirement, women should also show toughness, which is deemed a male characteristic; thus, women should show two contradictory expectations, which is not possible, and showing only one expectation could be punished (Article 1). Research from Macpherson (2021) (Article 8) on gendered barriers for women revealed that women leaders in NZ hospitality workplaces may be disliked by men due to the social culture of misogyny; misogyny culture indicates that no matter how competent women leaders are, their abilities cannot be acknowledged and they still face discrimination under the “*verbalization of broader socio-cultural beliefs surrounding men’s suitability and dominance in leadership*” (p. 32).

3) Women leaders judged to a higher standard

Women are expected to perform to a higher standard at work than men when seeking promotion to male-dominated management teams. The higher standard emerged as a subordinate theme in the past factors of the key theme of male domination of the executive world. In current findings, the higher expectation of women is more clearly shown as the key theme. In Remington and Kitterlin-Lynch’s (2018) research on the typical barriers to promotion for female hospitality workers, based on the masculine norm in executive teams, women are considered not to be suitable to be leaders so that they often need to prove their abilities (Article 2).

The same study from Macpherson (2021), based on the investigation of women’s attitudes, also found a higher standard applied because fewer women can become leaders in NZ workplaces; this standard requires women to prove themselves by having a higher level of ability (Article 8): “*as she explained that ‘you have to prove your worth’ as a woman in a higher capacity ... higher competency testing including gendered expectations was a focal point for participants in discussing their progression*” (p. 37).

4) Additional work/life balance stressors

The difficulty of balancing family and work is another key theme informing the stereotype that indicates women are not suitable to be leaders. This theme is also mentioned in the past factors. In contemporary society, the challenge still exists if a

woman has primary caregiver commitments, and more difficulties are added because of additional family duties. Morgan and Pritchard (2019) also highlighted the extra burden for women wrought by recent demographic changes. They suggest that the new additional domestic responsibility of caring for ageing relatives negatively impacts women's careers (Article 4): *"25% of women aged 45 to 64 and one in seven of those 35 to 44 are now caring for an older relative and one in six have lost around 33% of their income because of these caring responsibilities"* (pp. 40-41).

Moreover, further articles have presented the persistence of traditional societal values that reinforce the understanding, which indicates that women should focus on domestic duties. Segovia-Pérez et al. (2019), in an analysis of contemporary gendered barriers faced by women leaders, presented women's clear perception of the unfair burden of societal expectations to be the primary caregiver, which hindered their careers (Article 3): *"If we continue to assume that we have to take on more family responsibility, we will never achieve equality with men in management positions' (Interview 20)"* (p. 186).

Macpherson (2021) also demonstrated that, from the past and into the present, in the NZ workplace, the expectation that women will have children and prioritise their needs consistently undermines women's careers by implying that women are not ideal leaders. The fiction of women's concentration on family duties enables the negative social evaluation of women's abilities (Article 8).

4.4.2 Discussion of the changes in societal values

4.4.2.1 Gendered differences in leadership in contemporary society

Currently, gender differences based on social gender divisions consistently present themselves in enduring societal values that indicate that women should not be leaders. Preceding analyses also illustrated the persistence of assumptions about contemporary social gender differences. Sheppard (2018) revealed current gendered leadership values, based on traditional social attitudes about differences between men and women, influence individuals' behaviours and inform boys' and girls' roles; this socialisation is formed before individuals enter the workplace and significantly impacts their careers. Sheppard also raised that these current values enhance men's privilege of leadership.

Moreover, the penalties that women leaders experience are also the reflection of beliefs about gender differences. Traditional penalties, as discussed in Part One, presented that women should not show male-typed leadership styles such as assertiveness, and should

follow permitted feminine-typed behaviours such as kindness. However, there are some changes relating to the penalty associated with current values in the form of the double social standard delivered to women leaders. In addition to the traditional penalties for women leaders who displayed behaviours defined as masculine only, women leaders were also subjected to dislike from the workplace when they choose a 'feminine' style as leaders. This dilemma was also analysed by preceding scholars. Bierema (2016) explained that the contemporary double bind requires women leaders to be "not too masculine or too feminine". Behaviour judged as too feminine will be sanctioned since it cannot accord with expectations of leadership ability, and too masculine will be also condemned since it cannot accord with expectations of gendered characteristics. Thus, the leadership requirements and the gender difference requirements that women must adhere to are contradictory; it is impossible to fulfill both and, meanwhile, women are punished whichever requirement they fulfill.

Furthermore, current gender differences also inform the gender roles and expectations that assume women will have a family and will focus on household management and caregiving. In addition to the traditional domestic role, new family responsibilities, which are believed to belong to women, negatively impact women's careers. The typical additional duty is caring for aging family members. This additional domestic role was discussed in previous studies. For example, Boonabaana (2014, as cited in Morgan & Pritchard, 2019) suggested that women probably undertake the additional responsibility of caring for aging relatives as a response to the growth of the aging population; meanwhile, caring for children and finishing the housework are still women's responsibility. Therefore, the contemporary beliefs about gender differences indicate more family responsibilities should be undertaken by women.

4.4.2.2 Positive changes to gendered differences in leadership

Differently from the findings that emerged from Part 2 of the study in the data, other scholars have illustrated how contemporary beliefs about the influence of gendered differences on leadership are different from 10 years ago. Shen and Joseph (2021), in their study of the leadership discourse in modern society, found that there are no gendered differences in leadership effectiveness. They indicated that women leaders' ability associated with effectiveness is acknowledged; they also demonstrated that the relationship between leadership and gender differences is complicated, and future analyses should consider different leadership areas, and should not conclude overall that gender differences impact or negatively impact leadership. Thus, current analyses

present the view that both female and male leaders can show effective behaviours that are unconnected to presumed gendered differences. Hence, the positive change that has been seen in recent years presents that women's leadership abilities are as effective as men's leadership abilities and in the same way, depend on the individual's capability rather than their gender.

4.4.2.3 Summary of societal values' changes

Changes in social values in relation to gender differences are reflected in the double bind that women leaders face, and additional caregiving responsibilities attached to women's domestic roles. In the past, the literature highlighted the penalties associated with women who chose the masculine-typed style only. Under contemporary norms, however, women who follow either the masculine or the feminine style are punished. In addition to the change of penalty, more family duties that are deemed to belong to women are also added, including the responsibility of looking after aging relatives. Moreover, the positive findings of the differences in current values associated with leadership.

Moreover, there is another dimension of these societal values, which presents a positive change. It shows that the gender of a leader in some respects has no impact on leadership ability or leadership effectiveness. Thus, in current society, women's leadership is believed to be effective and positively influential in the organisation. Notwithstanding, in other aspects, assumptions of gender difference might still negatively impact the organisation and inform gendered norms. According to Shen and Joseph (2021), there are still many aspects of leadership impacted by gender division such as the gendered ability of communication, which implicates women's incapability to communicate due to their gender. However, this positive change in beliefs about leadership is a different illustration of leadership and gender from the data, which suggests that further analyses of the details of the relationship between leadership and gender are needed to support the new and original findings from this study.

4.4.3 Findings on organisational norms

The organisational gendered norm also informs current leadership-gendered stereotypes. This subsection focuses on the differences between these norms from those seen in Part One. In addition, there is a new finding shown at the organisational level.

1) Glass ceiling

The glass ceiling was discussed in Part One. This gendered norm remains in contemporary organisations. Women may break this norm to access leadership positions, although they still face the glass ceiling dimensions in the management team. Mooney's (2020) analysis of gendered barriers in the hospitality organisation showed that women still perceive the glass ceiling hinders their advancement (Article 6). This analysis resembles the finding in Part One: "*the glass ceiling is a familiar construct signifying an impermeable barrier that prevents women from advancing in organizations*" (p. 1864).

Apart from the similar finding to Part One, Macpherson's (2021) study also found that in hospitality women may break the glass ceiling to become leaders, but the glass ceiling still exists in the higher-level management team (Article 8): "*even [women] break glass ceilings become leaders, [gendered norms] still remain*" (p. 36.).

2) Gender segregation

Occupational sex segregation is more prevalent in the contemporary analyses in Part Two than in the past analyses. Thus, in Part Two findings, gender segregation emerged as a key theme informing the gender stereotypes of leadership based on societal values, including gender differences and male-dominated organisations. In a study of gendered barriers in hospitality, Segovia-Pérez et al. (2019) (Article 3) revealed that the reason why women are segregated in certain positions from which it is difficult to get promoted is that the belief of gender differences requires women to follow the "*leading role in the family sphere*", and this role represents a lack of commitment, implying that women are not "*ideal tourism workers*" (p. 189). The discussion of gender problems in current and future hospitality workplaces by Morgan and Pritchard (2019) also indicated that the gender segregation of leadership positions funnels women into low-level positions in male-dominated organisations (Article 4): "*the industry remains overly gender-segregated, heavily male-dominated in its values and boardrooms*" (p. 38).

Likewise, Macpherson (2021) presented findings on NZ hospitality organisations similar to international hospitality organisations. They indicated to prove that segregation hinders women's careers since women cannot develop their potential skills (Article 8). This occupational segregation also results from the social belief that women are different from men and women are considered to be more suitable to be, for

example, the waitress instead of the bartender (Article 8): *“participant 12 [a woman hotel leader] expressed ‘I have found that I have been thrown quite often into waitressing: despite that I have never waitressed in my life before I moved to NZ, just because I am a female. I am actually a bartender’”* (p. 31).

3) Double bind for women leaders

The double bind for women leaders is featured more frequently in the studies of contemporary organisations. As previously explained, the gendered double bind means there are two contradictory requirements women need to meet, namely the leadership requirement and the social expectations requirement. This bind can also be found in the hospitality organisation. Pizam (2017) suggested the double bind in the hospitality organisation was based on the societal double bind; this bind means that women employees cannot access top management positions in hospitality since it is impossible to simultaneously show masculine and feminine management styles (Article 1). Macpherson (2021) also illustrated the current double bind in the NZ hospitality organisation by invoking Oakley's (2000) theory (Article 8): *“The research was consistent with Oakley's (2000) analysis of the ‘double-bind’ theory, wherein employed women must simultaneously conform to gendered expectations whilst balancing professionalism and aptitude in their positions”* (p. 32).

4) A new current finding: Sexual harassment

One new finding based on the data is sexual harassment. This finding is an important theme although it is only reported in one very recent analysis from Article 8. Due to the publishing year being 2021, which means that it is a very new analysis, this article set out new findings which had not been presented in other articles. Hence, in the present study, the prevalence of sexual harassment is presented as an important and original finding of current gendered values. Macpherson's (2021), study of NZ hospitality organisations findings showed that sexual harassment is an important factor that reduced women's confidence and the likelihood of their success (Article 8): *“Management practices were absent of ethical boundaries due to the secondary nature of employees' well-being ... She [Interview participant] explained that her sexual assault ‘affected [her] ability for promotion’”* (p. 39).

5) The continuity of values from the past

Some hospitality organisational norms were the same as the past norms illustrated in Part One, such as the motherhood penalty and the lack of support for women. Dashper (2020) explained the penalising practices for motherhood in the hospitality organisation since motherhood means the lack of commitment to work positions (Article 5):

“Younger women in the hospitality industry are aware of the motherhood penalty that might await them” (p. 5).

In regard to the lack of support, a study of gender inequality in hospitality by Segovia-Pérez et al. (2019) revealed that the male network events held outside the organisation after work are helpful for communication and enable men to build connections that benefit men’s careers; not all women could build or join networks due to family commitments (Article 3): *“When women leave work, all they are thinking of is that they have to rush home to take care of the children”* (p. 189).

Macpherson (2021) analysed NZ hospitality organisational barriers to women’s careers and indicated that women cannot acquire support and be involved in the communication of management teams that exists in the male network in the organisation:

There would be male managers that would work quite closely together, and they were in upper management, and so they would have discussions together, or maybe they listened to [women] idea and said yeah, we will talk about it later, and nothing would ever get done. (Participant 6) [a woman leader]. (Article 8, p. 35)

4.4.4 Discussion of changes in organisational norms

4.4.4.1 Changes of the glass ceiling

Resembling the traditional definition of the glass ceiling, the current definition of this phenomenon also recognises organisational cultures’ gendered norms. These cultures contain many different gender norms such as the lack of role models, the practice of the motherhood penalty, the male-dominated culture, gender segregation, and fewer opportunities to promote women (Bazazo et al., 2017). Changes are seen in the operations of current hospitality organisations. Previous analyses also presented changes of the glass ceiling. Firstly, according to the data, women could break through the glass ceiling to access positions in the higher-level management team, although once there, the glass ceiling still existed. Peshave and Gupta (2017) put forward the view that, at present, women can also experience the glass ceiling when working in an

executive management team. Thus, women can be leaders but face an executive glass ceiling in the management team.

Secondly, the existence of occupational sex segregation is discussed more frequently in current findings; it was also highlighted by the literature outside the sample of Part One and Two. For example, Chen et al. (2021) study of gendered barriers in the hospitality industry demonstrated that the gender segregation hinders women's careers since they are often assigned to front-line serving positions. According to Calinaud et al. (2021), in the service sector, workers in technical positions (i.e. engineering department workers) are normally promoted more often since these positions are regarded as more difficult and technical work that is considered more important than service work. They found that service work tasks are perceived as simpler and lacking skills, under organisational values. Women were normally segregated in these serving positions without opportunities for promotion, due to occupational sex segregation in the workplace.

Thirdly, the double bind was more frequently found to hinder women to acquire leadership positions in contemporary hospitality organisations. According to Gebbels et al. (2020), in the hospitality industry, when female leaders perform the masculine style, they are sanctioned by male leaders' dislike; and when women perform the female style to meet the expectations of social attitudes, they will face suspicion and are not respected by hospitality employees since this performance style is deemed as not authoritative. Pizam (2017) demonstrated that women cannot meet two contradictory requirements so that they cannot become ideal leaders under the action of this discrimination, implying that women leaders cannot be accepted whatever they do.

4.4.4.2 The emergence of sexual harassment as a new gendered norm

Sexual harassment was mentioned in the NZ hospitality industry as an original finding not seen in the data presented in other articles. However, Jung and Yoon's (2019) study of the relationship between sexual harassment and employees' psychology, exposed that sexual harassment exists in hotels, especially luxury hotels. This situation allows women to be disappointed and unwilling to further their careers since they cannot obtain support from their organisations' management teams to protect them from harassment (i.e., by guests or managers). This means that hospitality organisations ignore the harmful consequences that women experience; when their harassment is ignored or accepted as normal, this serious neglect of their welfare and safety enables them to feel

vulnerable and self-condemned, therefore, unwilling to apply for promotion (Mooney, 2018).

4.4.4.3 Summary of organisational values' changes

There are some changes in current organisational values based on the glass ceiling. Currently, women can break the traditional glass ceiling to be leaders, which is a positive change; however, the glass ceiling manifestations still exist in the senior management team. Moreover, the occupational sex segregation and the double bind effects are emphasised more in studies of contemporary hospitality organisations. One new finding, sexual harassment, is seen in the current values despite appearing in one study only; it is significant as it affects women's confidence and self-identity.

4.4.5 Findings on individual attitudes

4.4.5.1 Persistence of traditional individual attitudes

According to the data from Part Two, themes from the individual level are the same as the findings in Part One. The key themes also include men's support for gender discrimination, women's lack of confidence and acceptance of gender norms, team leaders' and managers' practice of these norms, and women's self-imposed barriers.

For men's support of gender discrimination, in a review of gender research in hospitality and tourism management, Mooney (2020) found that men attempted to remain in their dominant positions and supported the gendered norms, so as to maintain the segregation of women in low-level positions (Article 6). Macpherson (2021) also suggested that men's attitudes towards gender inequality indicated that they are negative about gender equality due to "*a sense of comfortability in the status quo*" (p. 16); thus, the reason why they support this inequality is that they feel easier acquiring the benefits, such as greater opportunities for promotion (Article 8). Men's negative attitudes toward the gender discrimination could reinforce it (Macpherson, 2021, Article 8).

Exploring women's reactions to discrimination, Dashper (2020) and Segovia-Pérez et al.'s (2019) analyses of the hospitality industry's gendered barriers revealed that women lack the confidence to fight inequality. Their findings indicate that women blame themselves for potential deficiencies in leadership ability, rather than the masculine norms (Article 3, Article 5). Macpherson (2021) additionally suggested that women in the NZ hospitality industry deny the existence of gender discrimination in the workplace (Article 8). She explained that this attitude is "*the avoidance [based on] a*

victim mentality”, which means the reluctance to acknowledge the painful experiences is for the protection of the injured feeling of women themselves; thus, they keep silent (p. 36).

In terms of how team leaders and managers practice these norms, Dashper (2020) and Macpherson (2021) found that managers in the United Kingdom and NZ workplaces reinforced masculine norms, for example, preferring to build networks with male employees rather than women (Article 5 and Article 8):

Managers in hospitality ‘may be embedded within the masculine norm of managerial discourse to such an extent that they do not realize it’, making gender invisible. (p. 3)

“the boys would drink with my boss, and they would all hang out, so there was the social aspect to when it came down to dealing with the ‘lads’ issue. It took a long time for me to get heard” (Participant 12). (p. 33)

In discussing women’s self-imposed barriers, Dashper (2020) and Macpherson (2021) emphasised women’s own enhancement of organisational norms in global hospitality workplaces, including NZ hospitality workplaces. This is also a continuation of the past theme highlighting the significance of individual-level factors, which limit women’s efforts to attain leadership positions.

4.4.5.2 A new finding at the current individual level

One finding which is not based on frequency is the influence of customers’ attitudes informing the gender stereotypes of leadership. This finding emerged from just one analysis according to the data: Article 8. Macpherson (2021), found that in the NZ hospitality industry, women leaders’ abilities were undervalued by customers due to the common social belief regarding leader idealisation (Article 8):

It was found that glass ceiling barriers still existed for women who had attained a management position and were enacted through customer’s verbalization of broader socio-cultural beliefs surrounding men’s suitability and dominance in leadership ... ‘not listening to you because you’re a female’. (p. 32)

This article was published in 2021 and may have generated new and recent findings which earlier articles did not observe. Thus, the study presents this original finding as potentially important.

4.4.6 Discussion of changes in individual attitudes

The majority of findings at the individual level were a continuation of the themes in Part One. However, a fresh finding about customers' attitudes is potentially significant. A subsequent search of the literature did not uncover articles presenting a similar finding about customer dimensions of gender stereotyping. Macpherson's (2021) discussion emphasised how social attitudes influenced customers' perceptions leading them to question women leaders' abilities, which further negatively influenced women's confidence in their abilities. Thus, the belief that women were not suitable to be leaders was reinforced by customers of NZ hospitality organisations.

4.5 Key factors based on the intersection of all three aspects

As the data in Part Two indicated, the current factors influencing gender role expectations are social gender differences, the organisational glass ceiling, individuals' negative perceptions, and the amplification of these first two factors by women. The current factors reveal the persistence of traditional values; meanwhile, there are both positive and negative changes in current values in terms of their additive and intersecting impacts. In terms of the positive change in the relationship between leadership and gender differences, women leaders' abilities in some areas can be acknowledged without comparing them to men's abilities. It is recognised that women can effectively lead teams of workers. Based on this societal value change, women can break the traditional glass ceiling and become leaders in organisations. In terms of the negative changes, the double bind is commonly found in society and in the organisation as hindering women's careers. Another negative change presents that new additional family responsibilities, which are deemed to belong to women, strengthen and continue the career penalty for female leaders in hospitality. Sexual harassment is a new and also negative finding reducing women's confidence to pursue their careers; and customers' undervaluing of women is another new finding based on customers' perceptions of societal gendered values.

4.6 Conclusion

Part One and Part Two presented the factors informing the gender stereotypes behind leader idealisations. They are gender differences, the glass ceiling, and hospitality employees' negative attitudes arising from the gendered norms. These three basic factors are embedded in different gendered norms in society and in hospitality organisations. Moreover, these three factors mutually impact each other to inform the

gendered values that imply women are not ideal leaders. Compared to the values of the past, current gendered values have positively changed to enable women to access leadership. However, these values still continue to hinder women's access to higher-level positions and some negative changes are also shown to amplify gendered norms.

Chapter 5 Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

The study explored the factors informing gender stereotypes about leader idealisation in NZ hospitality work environments. In this chapter, the key findings are summarised based on the study's aim. Then, it presents the theoretical implications of these findings. Finally, it notes this study's limitations and makes recommendations for future studies.

5.2 Research objectives

Due to the persistence of gender stereotypes from the past into the present, women's careers are limited, and they are regarded as unsuitable to be leaders in the hospitality industry. This study searched for the factors underpinning these stereotypes to indicate how gendered norms and discrimination curtailed women's careers. Meanwhile, for the NZ hospitality industry, gender studies are inadequate, especially studies about gender and leadership. Previous studies have some limitations which retain and even enhance the gender norms instead of resolving these norms. Thus, this study aimed at providing a gender analysis for NZ hospitality workplaces to address some of the research gaps and to gain fresh insights.

To meet these aims, this study employed the semi-systematic review, based on the literature review methodology, to analyse the results in previous research; using this methodology, the secondary data associated with the factors that shaped gendered norms were collected and analysed. Specifically, the factors that emerged were shown to change over time and mutually impact current gender values across different dimensions, namely society, hospitality organisations, and individuals. Meanwhile, to address the research gap, the sample in this study includes men and women's insights from global and NZ analyses. Hence, following this analysis, the study's question can be answered. It is hoped that the findings will provide inspiration for the NZ hospitality industry to deal with gender stereotypes and establish a more equal work environment for hospitality employees.

5.2.1 Key findings

Key findings were generated in this study to answer the research question. This study presented the three key factors informing the gender stereotypes about leader idealisation: the belief in gender differences, the glass ceiling, and hospitality employees' negative attitudes arising from the gendered norms. These three factors

interacted to influence the gender norms in NZ hospitality workplaces and to limit women's careers. The glass ceiling is the reflection of the belief in gender differences, and both the glass ceiling and the belief in gender differences contribute to individuals' views on gendered leadership. Meanwhile, the social attitudes towards gendered leadership, and the organisational glass ceiling are the foundational factors assembled as the embodiment of many different gender norms. These norms include, primarily, the belief in women's focus on family responsibilities, the high proportion of male-dominated management teams, the double bind for women, and the motherhood penalty; these norms also cause women to lack confidence and men to keep silent and support discrimination to retain their privileges. Moreover, with the changes that have taken place over time, some factors are altered and show more benefits for women. For example, in some respects, leadership concepts have evolved and women can break the glass ceiling to be leaders. However, gendered norms are still persistent and some of the norms have been enhanced to further hinder women's promotional opportunities; for instance, women face a new glass ceiling when they are in the management team, and additional family duties of caring for the aging relatives are believed to negatively impact women's careers.

5.3 Theoretical implications

This study has presented the factors of gender stereotypes associated with leadership in the NZ hospitality industry to provide a gender analysis about gendered leadership for NZ and avoid some previous studies' limitations. Many gender problems, including the power of negative stereotypes, have not been recognised by hospitality employees, organisations, and society as a whole due to the lack of gender studies (Gewinner, 2020; Morgan & Pritchard, 2019). Moreover, resembling this global situation, in the NZ hospitality industry, the study of leadership and gender is inadequate and research gaps (i.e. not practical in the workplace) exist (Mooney et al., 2017). This means that gendered leadership exists without enough recognition and realisation of its different dimensions and effects. Hence, this study analysed the factors of gender stereotypes in three dimensions, namely society, organisation, and individuals, to allow a common realisation and understanding of how these stereotypes were created and reproduced. Meanwhile, making a comparison of the changes over time generated an understanding of how stereotypes change may impact the future understandings of the relationship between gender and leadership. Thus, more theories can be created to provide solutions and deal with gender norms in the future. For example, the solutions can refer to the

tendencies in the development of stereotypes and be systematically put forward based on social, organisational and individual dimensions. Moreover, to avoid previous studies' limitations (i.e. studies only concentrating on one country), this study also analysed the NZ hospitality industry in the context of the global hospitality industry. The study results give useful insights into the hospitality industry in different countries.

5.4 Limitations and recommendations

There are some limitations in this study. The main limitation of this study was the process of data collection and analysis. Firstly, the inexperienced researcher's analytical ability was limited in this study. When searching the data (literature), hundreds of search results were acquired from the databases; thus, the researcher might have missed potentially relevant during the screening process. Moreover, relying on secondary data was a limitation. It can be seen that the data have been collected from previous analyses, not interviewees (i.e., hospitality employees), and therefore it cannot fully show the current social values. For example, some analyses generated in 2018-2019 cannot show accurately individuals' current views. With the changes that have occurred afterwards in 2020-2022, their views might be changed. This is the limitation of secondary data and can only be avoided by using primary data such as interviews.

Bearing these limitations in mind, some recommendations for future analyses should be discussed. Firstly, more expert researchers should be involved in future studies of gender stereotypes about leader idealisation. It means the search process can be checked and verified several times by different researchers to avoid missing important data. Secondly, future studies can design studies that gather primary and secondary data and to acquire more complete data.

5.5 Closing statement

Gender stereotypes still exist in the hospitality industry, not only in NZ but also in many other countries. These stereotypes greatly limit women's careers and reduce their opportunities to be leaders. The researcher who has undertaken this study has personally confronted many gendered norms during her work experiences. Thus, hopefully, these problems, and other gender problems, can be better understood by recognising the different dimensions, across society, organisations, and individual attitudes, and may be resolved in the future.

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