Impacts of head chefs’ leadership styles on job satisfaction of kitchen staff in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants

Silvija Delekovcan

12117269

Supervisor Rachel Doherty

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National College of Ireland

Mayor Street, IFSC, Dublin 1

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ABSTRACT

This study focuses on impacts of head chefs’ leadership styles on kitchen employees. In particular, this study investigates impacts of head chefs’ leadership styles on job satisfaction of kitchen staff working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants in two different situations – (a) busy service hours and (b) non-service hours.

For the purposes of research in this paper both quantitative and qualitative research was conducted. Quantitative portion of the study used the Path-goal Leadership Questionnaire which has been specifically arranged to provide sufficient information for respondents about the four Path-goal leadership styles: Directive, Supportive, Participative and Achievement-Oriented. Qualitative portion of the study used focus group discussion with a group of chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants to confirm and debate the findings.

The results of this study show that a strong correlation exists between job satisfaction and perceptions of head chefs’ leadership styles in both situations. In addition, however, the results also show that while employee job satisfaction is hugely affected by, it is not limited to head chefs’ leadership styles.

Even though limited to Dublin area, this study contributes to the theoretical literature in the area of leadership in service driven, high standard restaurants. Therefore, the results of this study may assist head chefs running high standard restaurants across the globe in developing their leadership styles which could enable them to optimise kitchen output, improve employee satisfaction and maintain current levels of the quality of their culinary creations, hence sustaining the competitive edge and profitability position of their respective organizations.
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DECLARATION

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Student Number: 12117269

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

A good employee as well as organisational performance are vital to organisations across all industries in order to survive in the current business environment (Salman, Raiz, Saifullan & Rashid, 2011). Previous research show that it is the factor of leadership that has a direct impact on employee job satisfaction and hence organisational performance. It has also been agreed that absence of leadership could result in an organisation’s inability to survive (Ali, Sidow & Guleid, 2013; Hitt et al., 2012; Yukl, 2012, Salman et al., 2011; Adhikari, 2010; Raiz and Haider, 2010). This is why leadership is one of the most researched areas within the field of organizational studies (Northouse, 2010; Zopiatis & Constanti, 2010).

Organisations within the restaurant industry are no exception. Due to the unfavourable economic conditions, increased competition and the unique nature of the restaurant industry, head chefs have been forced to adopt new methods in order to achieve organisational goals, particularly in optimising kitchen output, improving employee performance, and maintaining current levels of the quality of their culinary creations (Johnson, Surlemont, Nicod & Revaz, 2005; Testa, 2001).

Even though head chefs have managerial responsibilities in day-to-day running of the kitchen, they are, above all, leaders.

Research conducted in both Europe and the U.S. about management related issues in the top gourmet restaurants emphasises the importance of leadership of chefs who run them (Johnson et al., 2005). However, there has been very little research on leadership styles of head chefs (Lützen, 2010) and their impacts on employee job satisfaction, and hence, on organisational performance.
While the interest in the world of professional chefs and their kitchens has grown significantly in recent years, as evidenced by the popularity of television shows (Palmer, Cooper & Burns, 2010), the majority of research of leadership in restaurant industry was limited to the restaurant frontline managers and staff (e.g. Gill et al., 2011; Clark et al., 2009). Therefore, one might ask themselves why is there a gap in the literature? According to Lützen (2010) it is because of the uniqueness of the kitchens that restrains a full transfer of the findings of a study’s outcome to other industries or business.

The research in this paper builds onto Lützen’s (2010) qualitative study of head chefs and leadership in Copenhagen’s top gourmet restaurants. The purpose of Lützen’s (2010) study was to identify head chefs’ leadership styles. Taking into the consideration a dynamic environment, a service orientation and a labour-intensive nature of the restaurant industry, Lützen (2010, p. 6) emphasised that leading in restaurant kitchens is nothing similar to leading in a ‘normal’, office or workshop like environments.

While the focus of Lützen’s (2010) study was on head chefs, not employees, the research in this paper focuses on impacts of head chefs’ leadership styles on kitchen employees. In particular, the aim of this research is to examine the impacts of head chefs’ leadership styles on job satisfaction of kitchen staff working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants.

Even though limited to Dublin area, the research in this paper contributes to the theoretical literature in the area of leadership in service driven, high standard restaurants. Moreover, since a number of empirical studies show that the above variables, are useful measure of organisational performance (Erkutlu, 2008; Jing &
Avery, 2009), the results of research in this paper can assist head chefs in developing their leadership style which could enable them to optimise kitchen output, improve employee satisfaction and maintain current levels of the quality of their culinary creations, hence sustaining the competitive edge and profitability position of their respective organizations.
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In order to examine the impact of head chefs’ leadership styles on job satisfaction of kitchen staff working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants, the review of the literature in this paper focuses on the relevant concepts for the present study on the area of leadership and its impacts on one’s job satisfaction, and hence, organisational performance.

To do so, the author first looks at the concept of leadership and leadership theories. In order to make it relevant to the research in this paper, the author next looks at the role of leadership in restaurants’ kitchens. Following the general review of the concept of leadership, leadership theories and leadership role in the restaurants’ kitchens, the author looks at Path-goal theory of leadership and its respective leadership styles.

In the second part of the review of the literature in this paper, author looks at the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction and draws research questions to support her study.

Since the results of the research in this paper could assist head chefs in developing their leadership style which could enable them to optimise kitchen output, improve employee job satisfaction and maintain current levels of the quality of their culinary creations, hence sustaining the competitive edge and profitability position of their respective organizations, the last part of the literature review in this paper focuses on a relationship between leadership styles and organisational performance.
2.1 Leadership

2.1.1 Concept of Leadership

Leadership is one of the most researched areas within the field of organizational studies (Northouse, 2010; Zopiatis & Constanti, 2010). According to Long & Thean (2011), leadership is critical element for the success of an organisation, regardless of its nature of activities, profit orientation or sector, and its absence could result in an organisation’s inability to survive (Ali, Sidow & Guleid, 2013; Hitt et al., 2012; Yukl, 2012, Salman et al., 2011; Adhikari, 2010; Raiz and Haider, 2010).

Even though “…there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept” (Strogdill, 1974, p. 259), the essence of leadership in organisational context is, above all, influencing and supporting individual and group efforts to maintain the competitive edge and sustain profitability position of the organization (Ali et al., 2013; Hitt et al., 2012; Yukl, 2012; Raiz, & Haider, 2010). According to Daft (2005), the key of leadership role is to grow the organisational performance through human capital.

While the definition of leadership is contentious (Hitt et al., 2012; Jing & Avery, 2008), Northhouse (2010, p. 3, 4) identified the following components to be central to the phenomenon of leadership: (1) leadership is a process, (2) leadership involves influence; (3) leadership occurs in groups and (4) leadership involves common goals. Following the identification of the central components of the definition of leadership, Northhouse (2010, p. 4) defined leadership as
“...a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal”.

Since a common goal for the majority of restaurant leaders is to maintain current levels of the quality of their culinary creations, therefore sustaining the competitive edge and profitability position of their respective organizations through human capital, the author identified the above definition of leadership to be appropriate for the purpose of research in this paper.

2.1.2 Leadership Theories Development

Through the history, the phenomenon of leadership has attracted the attention of many philosophers, researchers and academics who struggled to find the true meaning of leadership. As a result, there have been numerous leadership theories developed over time. Traditional approaches of leadership include trait theories, behavioural theories, and situational and contingency theories. Additionally, modern approaches include transactional leadership and transformational leadership.

The trait theory of leadership suggests that good leaders could not be made (Hitt et al., 2012; Yu-Jia, Yi-Feng & Islam, 2010; Lussier & Achua, 2009). Instead, this theory of leadership suggests that it is the leader’s personality and traits that determine a good leader (Salman et al., 2011). However, Jones & George (2011) argue that traits alone are not the key to understanding leader effectiveness. They suggest that in order to understand leader effectiveness one should look at leader’s behaviours rather than traits only.

Behavioural theories of leadership attempt to explain characteristics of leadership styles used by effective leaders (Lussier & Achua, 2009). Contrary to trait theories, as mentioned above, behavioural theories of leadership focus on behaviours
of leaders for the assessment of leader’s effectiveness (Jones & George, 2011; Salman et al., 2011; Lussier & Achua, 2009). However, Lussier & Achua (2009) argue that there is no one best leadership styles for all situations. This is the reason why behavioural theories of leadership alone, similarly to trait theories of leadership, are not the key for understanding leader’s effectiveness (Jones & George, 2011).

While trait and behavioural leadership theories attempted to find one best leadership style for all situations, situational and contingency theories of leadership take into the account the complexity of situation within which leadership occurs (Jones & George, 2011; Salaman et al., 2011; Lussier & Achua, 2009).

Situational and contingency theories of leadership focus on situational factors such as the nature of the task performed, and the organisational context (Hitt et al., 2012; Lussier & Achua, 2009). Therefore, according to situational and contingency theories of leadership, the key for understanding leader’s effectiveness is balanced use of one’s traits and behaviours appropriate to the specific situation (Lussier & Achua, 2009). Jones & George (2011, p. 440) suggest that situational and contingency theories of leadership help leaders to “…focus on the necessary ingredients for effective leadership”.

In contrast to the earlier theories which concentrate on the leader’s traits, behaviours or situations, transformational leadership is developed based on charisma and empowerment (Raguz, 2007). Transformational leadership is operationally defined as the extent to which managers motivate and encourage employees to use their own judgment and intelligence to solve problems, transfer missions to employees, and express appreciation for good work (Gill et al., 2011). According to
Robinsons et al. (2010), transformational leaders are able to motivate and inspire subordinates to strive hard in order to achieve organisational outcomes.

Research has found that transformational leadership is positively related to job satisfaction, commitment and performance (Gill et al., 2011; Jones & George, 2011; Long & Thean, 2011; Yi-Feng & Islam, 2010).

Contrary to transformational leadership, transactional leadership focuses on leader-follower exchange (Jones & George, 2011; Long & Thean, 2011). In transactional leadership leaders encourage high performance and motivate their subordinates by rewarding high performers and punishing subordinates in situations where they fail to perform as instructed (Jones & George, 2011; Long & Thean, 2011). It is in essence, transactional leader clarifies what has to be done and provides the reward when the task has been achieved. As such, according to Shams-Ur-Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood & Ishaque (2012), transactional leadership is a combination of bureaucratic authority and legitimacy in the organization. Since transactional leadership has a positive association with personal accomplishment (Zopiatis & Panayiotis, 2010), transformational leaders often engage in transactional leadership in order to encourage high performance. In addition to this, previous research show that transactional contingent reward style of leadership is positively related to subordinates’ satisfaction, commitment and performance (Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003).

2.1.3 Leadership in Restaurants’ Kitchens
Considering a dynamic environment, a service orientation and a labour-intensive nature of the restaurant industry, research conducted in both Europe and the U.S. about management related issues in the leading restaurants emphasises the importance of leadership of chefs who run them (Johnson et al., 2005). However, the
leadership role of chefs who run restaurants is not the same as the leadership role in office or workshop like environments (Lützen, 2010).

Head chefs must be able to take the role of businessperson, leader and creator in the same time (Johnson et al., 2005). Apart from their ability to optimise kitchen output and maintain current levels of quality of their culinary creations, one of the main challenging issues for head chefs is human resources (Johnson et al., 2005).

While human resources has been identified as one of the most challenging issues for head chefs, many of them have little or no training in dealing with employees. In addition, considering the fact that restaurants often run on a limited budget, money is rarely spent on administrative employees or external consultants who could provide head chefs with feasible solutions for leadership development (Lützen, 2010). While such approach might be seen as cost effective in the short run, seeing leadership training and development as an unnecessary cost could very likely negatively affect the organisational performance in the future. More specifically, the absence of leadership, as warned by many academics and practitioners, could result in an organisation’s inability to survive (Ali, Sidow & Guleid, 2013; Hitt et al., 2012; Yukl, 2012, Adhikari, 2010; Raiz and Haider, 2010; Lok &) Crawford, 2004; Kusluvan, 2003).

It is also important to note that different leadership styles have different impacts on one’s job satisfaction. While the interest in the world of professional chefs and their kitchens has grown significantly in recent years, as evidenced by the popularity of television shows (Palmer, Cooper & Burns, 2010), the majority of research of leadership in restaurant industry and its impacts on one’s job satisfaction was limited to the restaurant frontline managers and staff (e.g. Gill et al., 2011; Clark
et al., 2009). Therefore, we still know very little about how different leadership styles exercised by top gourmet restaurants’ head chefs impact employees’ job satisfaction, and hence, organisational performance.

2.1.4 The Application of Leadership Theories to the Kitchen Environment: Contingency Theories

Following the review of both traditional and modern theories of leadership, contingency theories appeared to be the most relevant for the purpose of research in this paper. Contingency theories of leadership focus on situational factors such as the nature of the task performed, and the organisational context (Hitt et al., 2012; Lussier & Achua, 2009).

According to Hitt et al. (2012) the nature of the work to be performed is one of the critical components facing leaders. They suggest that there are two dimensions of a task that influence process of leadership. These two dimensions include whether the task performed is structured or unstructured and weather it involves high or low levels of worker discretion (Hitt et al., 2012).

In her qualitative study of head chefs and leadership in Copenhagen’s top gourmet restaurants, Lützen (2010) identified that there are two different types of situations: busy service hours and hours outside service or as named in this paper – non service hours. Hence, the nature of the task to be performed is different.

According to Lützen (2010), it is the service hours that distinguish the kitchen from many other workplaces. Lützen (2010, p. 72) describes service periods as
“...the process of making a product, that allows no flaws or errors, neither in production, timing of the production or in the delivery of the product while having a very perishable time period”.

She further describes that during service periods, head chefs

“...need to be in charge of controlling quality, when to do what, taking the fast decisions, communicating everything in short precise messages and to secure the flow of the service”.

(Lützen, 2010, p. 72)

Contrary, in non-service hours, tasks performed by subordinates are concrete and specific (Lützen, 2010). In non-service hours, according to Lützen (2010, p. 72)

“...not much leading appears to be necessary, unless technical question on e.g. cutting size, length of boiling, density etc. questions that the sous-chef just as often answer and instruct”.

In addition to the nature of task performed, contingency theories suggest that the factor of organisational context should not be undermined (Hitt et al., 2012). One of the most important features of organisational context that can affect the leadership process is the culture of the organisation (Hitt et al., 2012).

According to Lützen (2010), culture is amongst strongest influential factors that might affect leadership process in the kitchen. She describes the culture in top gourmet restaurants’ kitchens as a no-error culture. In no-error culture
“... the lack of room for errors, is vital when discussing leaderships...and definitely adds to the high pressure that the chefs—especially the head chefs feel”.

(Lützen, 2010, p. 48)

While there are three prominent contingency models developed to explain what makes managers effective leaders, including Fried Fielder’s contingency model, Robert House’s Path-goal theory, and the leader substitute model (Jones & George, 2011), Robert House’s Path-goal theory appeared to be the most relevant for the purpose of research in this paper.

Developed in the 1970s, Path-goal theory of leadership

“...focuses on the leader’s role in increasing subordinate satisfaction and effort by increasing personal payoffs for goal attainment and making the path to these payoffs easier”.

(Hitt et al., 2012, p. 245)

Not only it is “…one of the major themes covered by virtually all basic textbooks on management and organisational behaviour...” (Schriesheim, Castro, Zahu & DeChurch, 2006, p. 21), Path-goal theory also has an established measurement instrument, which will allow the author of this research to achieve greater reliability.

2.1.5 Leadership Styles

Lussier & Achua (2009) define leadership style as the combination of traits, skills, and behaviours leaders use as they interact with employees. According to Daft (2005, p. 26), “… the best leaders are those who are deeply interested in others and
can bring out the best in them”. Over the course of time, a number of dimensions of leadership styles have been developed and applied as researchers continue to discover what contributes to leadership success and failures (Yiing & Bin Ahmad, 2009).

Path-goal theory of leadership identifies four leadership styles including Directive leadership, Supportive leadership, Participative leadership and Achievement-Oriented leadership (Northouse, 2010).

Directive leadership is characterized by authoritarian and legitimate power that uses high levels of strict direction, command and close supervision to provide psychological structure and task clarity (Northouse, 2010; Clark et al., 2009; Houghton & Yoho, 2005). Directive leaders set standards of performance and set clear rules and regulations to subordinates as to what should be done and how it should be done, and the timeline when it should be completed (Jones & George, 2011; Northouse, 2010).

Supportive leadership is characterised by a leader who is friendly, approachable and treats subordinates as equals (Northouse, 2010). Supportive leaders care about the well-being and human needs of subordinates and go out of their way to make the work more enjoyable for their subordinates (Jones & George, 2011; Northouse et al., 2010).

Participative leadership invites subordinates to share decision-making (Northouse, 2010). Participative leaders consult with subordinates and integrate their feedback into decisions (Northouse, 2010). As such, Participative leadership encourages participation and teamwork (Ogbeide & Harrington, 2011; Clark, Hartline & Jones 2009).
Achievement-Oriented leadership motivates subordinates to perform at the highest level possible by setting high challenging goals and high standards of excellence (Jones & George, 2011; Northouse, 2010). Achievement-Oriented leaders challenge subordinates to perform their work at the highest possible level hence encouraging continuous improvement (Northouse, 2010). In addition to expecting that challenging goals and standards must be met, Achievement-Oriented leaders believe in subordinates’ capabilities (Jones & George, 2011; Northouse, 2010).

In this respect of the above typology and considering different types of situations (service hours and non-service hours) that influence leadership styles, the following research questions (RQ) are proposed:

RQ1 (a) What is the most common leadership style in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants during busy service hours?

RQ1 (b) What is the most common leadership style in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants during non-service hours?

2.2 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is one of the most heavily researched studies in organisational behaviour research. Job satisfaction refers to the attitudes and feelings one has towards his or her job (Armstrong, 2006).

Locke (1976, p. 1300) defined job satisfaction as

“…a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences”.

As such, job satisfaction leads to a positive work attitudes and improved performance (Wicker, 2011). According to Wicker (2011), workers who experience job satisfaction are more likely to be creative, flexible and loyal.

In contrast, employees who have negative attitudes and feelings toward their job, experience job dissatisfaction (Armstrong, 2006). Research shows that where employees do not experience job satisfaction, the productivity suffers (Wicker, 2011). According to McKenna (2008), the outcomes of job dissatisfaction are deterioration in productivity, employee turnover and absenteeism.

In attempt to establish the causes of job satisfaction, Hodgetts (1991), cited in McKenna (2008, p. 278), identified that leadership is, among other organisational factors such as pay, nature of the job and work conditions, one of the key determinants of job satisfaction.

2.2.1 Job Satisfaction and Leadership
Since leadership has been identified as one of the key organisational factors that influence job satisfaction (Hodgetts, 1991, cited in McKenna, 2008, p. 278), the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction is critical (Yu-Jia et al., 2010). Numerous empirical studies show that leadership is positively related to job satisfaction (e.g. Long & Thean, 2011; Gill et al., 2011; Yu-Jia et al., 2010; Clark, Hartline & Jones, 2009; Erkutlu, 2008; Jing & Avery, 2008).

In this respect of the positive relationship between leadership and job satisfaction, and different types of situations (service hours and non-service hours) that influence leadership styles, the following research questions (RQ) are proposed:
RQ2 (a) What are the impacts of leadership styles identified during busy service hours on job satisfaction on kitchen staff working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants?

RQ2 (b) What are the impacts of leadership styles identified during non-service hours on job satisfaction on kitchen staff working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants?

2.3 Organisational Performance

Li-An Ho (2008) defines organisational performance as an indicator which measures how well an organisation achieves their business objectives. Organisational performance is concerned with product or service quality, employee attraction and retention and customer satisfaction (Li-An Ho, 2008).

2.3.1 Organisational Performance, Job Satisfaction and Leadership

Leadership is viewed as one of the key driving forces that affect performance of an organisation (Jing & Avery, 2009). Even though it has not been numerically proved due to the complexity, research suggests that leadership is positively related to organisational performance (Erkutlu, 2008; Jing & Avery, 2009). In addition, a number of empirical studies suggest that employee satisfaction is useful measure of organisational performance (Erkutlu, 2008; Jing & Avery, 2009).

Considering that the outcomes of this research could assist head chefs to develop their leadership style in order to optimise kitchen output, improve employee satisfaction and maintain current levels of the quality of their culinary creations, hence sustaining the competitive edge and profitability position of their respective organizations, the following research questions (RQ) are proposed in respect of the above:
RQ3 (a) What leadership style would make kitchen staff working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants more satisfied during busy service hours?

RQ3 (b) What leadership style would make kitchen staff working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants more satisfied during non-service hours?

2.4 Theoretical Framework

Based on the review of the literature above, the author of this research proposes the following theoretical framework:

![Diagram](image.png)

Figure 1: Theoretical Framework

According to the theoretical framework (Figure 1), the research in this paper investigates the impacts of leadership style in (a) busy service hours and (b) non-service hours on employee job satisfaction and hence the organisational performance.
CHAPER 3

RESEARCH APPROACH AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter the author deals with the methodology used to carry out the research, and therefore, to achieve the aim of the study in this paper.

That aim of research in this paper was threefold.

First, to identify the most common leadership styles used by head chefs in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants in (a) service hours and (b) non-service hours.

Second, to examine the impacts of head chefs’ leadership styles in each of the situations on job satisfaction of kitchen staff working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants.

Third, to outline recommendations to head chefs to develop their leadership style which could enable them to optimise kitchen output, improve employee satisfaction and maintain current levels of the quality of their culinary creations, hence sustaining the competitive edge and profitability position of their respective organizations.

This chapter outlines the research approach and methods chosen as part of the research in this paper. In addition, this chapter provides details on the justification of the methods chosen and considers the advantages and limitations of the approach.

The areas covered in this chapter include the research questions, aims and objectives, research philosophy, research paradigm, research design, research procedure and data collection instruments and the ethical considerations to the research.
For the purposes of the study in this paper, the author used both quantitative and qualitative research methods.

First, data was collected through the use of a structured questionnaire which was distributed to chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants. This survey was primarily conducted to identify the most common leadership styles used by head chefs in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants in two different situations: (a) in service hours and (b) in non-service hours; as well to as to explore the impact of head chefs’ leadership styles in each of the situations on job satisfaction of kitchen staff working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants. The survey was then followed by focus group discussion with a group of chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants to confirm and debate the findings.

3.2 Research Questions, Aims and Objectives
The research in this paper seeks to answer the following:

1. Identify the most common leadership styles used by head chefs in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants in two different situations: in service hours and in non-service hours

2. Examine the impact of head chef’s leadership style in each of the situations on job satisfaction of kitchen staff in working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants.

3. Outline recommendations to head chefs to develop their leadership style which could enable them to optimise kitchen output improve employee satisfaction and maintain current levels of the quality of their culinary
creations, hence sustaining the competitive edge and profitability position of their respective organizations.

Therefore, the goal of this research is for chefs, working in Dublin’s top restaurants, to identify their respective head chefs’ leadership styles and how does it affect their job satisfaction in two different situations: (a) in busy service hours and (b) non-service hours; with the aim of making recommendation to head chefs.

The objectives of the research were as follows:

- To identify the most common leadership style in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants during (a) busy service hours and (b) non-service hours.
- To examine the impacts of leadership styles identified during (a) busy service hours and (b) non-service hours on job satisfaction on kitchen staff working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants.
- To investigate a leadership style that would make kitchen staff working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants more satisfied during (a) busy service hours and (b) non-service hours in order to provide a recommendations to head chefs.

3.3 Research Philosophy

The term ‘Research Philosophy’ relates to “development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge” (Saunders, Lewis & Tornhill, 2009, p. 107). By choosing a particular research philosophy we accept certain assumptions on how we perceive the world (Collins, 2010). Therefore, a commitment to certain research philosophy is the key to our research strategy, determining not only the methods we use to answer our research questions, but also, our understanding of what are we investigating (Saunders et al., 2009; Collins, 2010).
Many academics and practitioners agree that a number of reasons why an understanding of philosophical issues is vital to a research. In fact, an understanding of philosophical issues is so important that a failure to think through philosophical issues can significantly affect the quality of the research (Easterby-Smith, Thrope, Jackson, & Lowe, 2008).

According to Easterby-Smith et al. (2008), there are at least three reasons why an understanding of philosophical issues is vital to a research.

First, an understanding of philosophical issues can help the researcher to simplify and explain the research methods to be used in the study. This involves the type of evidence required, the way in which that evidence is gathered and interpreted and also, how this evidence helps to provide the answer to the research questions posed.

Second, knowledge of research philosophy can enable the researcher to distinguish between different methodologies, and recognise which research methods would work and which would not. This should enable the researcher to avoid unnecessary work by identifying limitations of individual approaches.

Third, an understanding of research philosophy may help the researcher to be more creative and innovative in identifying methods that may be outside of his or her past experience.

### 3.3.1 Research Approaches

Academics have distinguished three major aspects of the perspectives of researching: ontology, epistemology and axiology.

The ontological perspective is concerned with nature of reality (Saunders et al., 2009; Easterby-Smith et al. 2008). This perspective is made about assumptions about
the way the world operates and the commitment to particular view we as researchers hold (Collins 2010; Saunders et al., 2009).

The epistemological perspective is concerned with the nature of the theory of knowledge (Collins, 2010; Easterby-Smith et al. 2008). This perspective is about understanding the nature, scope and limitations of knowledge in particular contexts (Collins, 2010).

The third, axiological perspective is concerned with values, including aesthetics, ethics and the process of social enquiry (Saunders et al, 2009; Collins, 2010).

For the purposes of research in this paper, the author is interested in ontology and epistemology as she believes that one may be more appropriate than another in answering specific question (Saunders et al., 2009). In order to clarify and explain her choice, the author discusses the research paradigm in the section below.

### 3.3.2 Research Paradigm

Many academics agree that a research requires the selection of an appropriate philosophical and methodological framework. The term “paradigm” relates to the perspectives through which we see the world.

Kasi (2009, p. 4) defines paradigms as

“...our understanding of what one can know about something and how one can gather knowledge about it.”

More simply, in addition, according to Johnson & Christensen (2010, p. 31), paradigm is
“…an approach to thinking about and doing research.”

For the purpose of the research in this paper, as already introduced in the section above, the author adopts the position of a pragmatist.

Pragmatism argues that the most important factor to take into consideration is the research question (Saunders et al., 2009). This position allows the researcher to mix both ontology and epistemology as well as to use both quantitative and qualitative research methods to gather and analyse data (Saunders et al., 2009).

According to Johnson & Christensen (2010), there are three major research paradigms or approaches. These are qualitative research, quantitative research and mixed research.

![Figure 2: The Research Continuum, adopted from Johnson & Christensen (2010)](image)

While pure quantitative research relies entirely on the collection of quantitative data and pure qualitative research relies entirely on the collection of qualitative data, mixed research involves the mixing of both approaches (Johnson & Christensen, 2010).
Even though all three approaches are important, the mixed research method is used in this paper. Mixed method research uses both, quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques (Saunders et al., 2009) and, as previously mentioned above, it is strongly supported by the philosophical approach known as pragmatism (Krivokapic-Skoko & O’Neill, 2011).

Mixed methods approach can be powerful means of gaining balanced research results and provide new insight into the phenomena being investigated (Krivokapic-Skoko & O’Neill, 2011). According to Saunders et al. (2009), there are two major advantages of choosing to use a mixed approach: it can provide a researcher with better opportunities to answer a research question as well as to evaluate the extent to which findings can be trusted and conclusions made.

Using both qualitative and quantitative research methods enabled the author of research in this paper to back up the results of the questionnaire with focus group discussion, therefore allowing for more accurate research.

However, even though many researchers recognise the advantages of using the mixed methods approach, it is important to mention that some others are rather critical about it, arguing that qualitative and quantitative paradigms “…cannot and should not be mixed”(Krivokapic-Skoko & O’Neill, 2011, p. 291). This is mainly because incompatibility between qualitative and quantitative research methods (Krivokapic-Skoko & O’Neill, 2011).

3.3.3 Research Design
The research design of the study in this paper will be, as already mentioned above, both quantitative and qualitative since the author uses both questionnaire and focus group discussion to collect data. Qualitative and quantitative methods are
based upon different ontological and epistemological approaches (Lee S K, 1992). According to Lee S K (1992), quantitative approach to research is objective and greatly relies on numbers and statistics. In contrast, qualitative approach is subjective and uses description and language (Lee S K, 1992).

Quantitative research approach in the form of questionnaire was used to identify the most common leadership styles used by head chefs in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants in two different situations: in service hours and in non-service hours; as well as to measure the impact of head chefs’ leadership styles in each of the situations on job satisfaction of kitchen staff working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants.

For the ease of display, the findings of quantitative research are organised in charts and tables.

In order to gather the data, which would enable the author of this research to outline recommendations to head chefs on how to develop their leadership style and hence sustain the competitive edge and profitability position of their respective organizations through increased employee satisfaction, qualitative research approach in the form of discussion group was used next. Qualitative data was conducted with a group of chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants.

The author of research in this paper chose to include the qualitative research approach in her study in order to confirm and debate the findings.
3.4 Research Procedure

3.4.1 Population Size and Sample
According to David & Sutton (2011), population can be defined as every possible person that could be used in a research. In addition, Saunders et al. (2009, p. 212) define the population as “the full set of cases from which a sample is taken”.

However, even though it is possible to collect data from entire population as it is of manageable size for some research questions, there are research questions where it is not practicable to collect data from entire population (Saunders et al., 2009). In such cases Saunders et al. (2009) suggest selecting a sample.

Sample is defined as “sub-group or part of larger population” (Saunders et al., 2009, p. 600).

A population of chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants was chosen for both, the questionnaire and the focus group discussion.

For the purposes of the research in this paper, fine-dining and Michelin-starred restaurants in Dublin City are considered as ‘Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants’.

3.4.2 Negotiating Access
Many researchers agree that negotiating access to an appropriate source is one of the main challenges in conducting a research.

The first and most difficult level of access is the physical access (Saunders et al., 2009). According to Saunders et al. (2009, p. 170) negotiating physical access is challenging for the following reasons:

First, individuals or organisations may not be prepared to engage in voluntary activities because of time and resources required.
Second, the request for access may fail because the nature of the topic’s potential sensitivity or concerns about the confidentiality of the information; because of the perceptions about researcher’s credibility and competence; and because the lack of perceived value in relation to the work of the organisation, group or individual.

To avoid the obstacles and ensure the access to the appropriate sample, the author of the research in this paper allowed herself a sufficient time to conduct the fieldwork and to carefully review the literature in order to determine the best way of negotiating the access.

When trying to negotiate the access directly through the restaurants, the author of research in this paper faced two main obstacles.

First, restaurant industry is known for “…the pressure…the fast-pace…the never-ending demands of profession…” (Bourdain, 2007, p. 18). When trying to negotiate the access directly through restaurants, the author of the research in this paper was turned away with the excuse of being too busy.

Second, restaurant kitchens are also known to be highly structured working environments and militaristic culture (Bourdain, 2007). Taking this into the consideration, when contacting the restaurants directly the author of the research in this paper had to reach the head chef who was in that case the “…gatekeeper or broker who controls research access and makes the final decision as to whether or not to allow the researcher to undertake the research” (Saunders et al., 2009, p. 170). This might explain why the author of the research in this paper could not negotiate the access directly through contacting restaurants.
To overcame this obstacles the author of the research in this paper decided to use non-probability, snowball sampling technique in order to ensure the access to the appropriate sample.

### 3.4.3 Sampling Technique

“Sampling is the process of selecting a sufficient number of the right elements from the population, so that a study of the sample and an understanding of its properties of characteristics make it possible for us to generalise such properties or characteristics to the population elements”.

(Sekarn & Bougie, 2010, p. 266)

According to Saunders et al. (2009), there are two main types of sampling techniques: probability or representative sampling and non-probability or judgemental sampling.

With probability sampling it is possible to statistically estimate the characteristics of the population from the sample (Saunders et al., 2009). In other words, with probability sampling the population is known and it is usually the same for all cases (Saunders et al., 2009). As such, probability sampling is often associated with questionnaire and experimental research methods (Saunders et al., 2009).

Contrary, with non-probability sampling it is usually not possible to statistically estimate the characteristics of population (Saunders et al., 2009). In other words, sample must be selected some other way, not statistically (Saunders et al., 2009).

Even though one would suggest using probability sampling considering the research approaches applied to this study, for the purpose of this research the author
chose to use non-probability sampling. As discussed earlier, the main reason for such decision is access to sample.

Even though it was easy to recognise the sample and even to determine the sample size, the author took into the consideration the fact that negotiating the access would have multiple obstacles.

Saunders et al. (2009) identified five main sampling techniques in non-probability sampling: quota sampling, purposive sampling, snowball sampling, self-selection sampling and convenience sampling. In order to overcome the above obstacles and ensure a sufficient sample, a snowball sampling technique was used.

**Figure 3: Sampling Techniques, adopted from Saunders et al. (2009)**

In snowball sampling, the researcher collects data on the few members of the target population he or she can locate and then asks those individuals to locate other members of the same population they might know (Babbie, 2010).

One of the major drawbacks of the snowball sampling is the concern of whether or not people interviewed will know others like themselves (Babbie, 2010).
However, the fact that chefs are like a “tribe”, a “community”, and “much more than a group of people” (Palmer, Cooper & Burns, 2010, p. 3) removed this concern.

3.4.4 Instrumentations
The instruments used in this study were selected after an extensive review of literature. The author of research in this paper used multiple items scales for quantitative and clearly and precisely defined interview topics for qualitative research in order to assess various dimensions of the research constructs.

3.4.4.1 Questionnaire
Questionnaire is one of the most widely used data collection techniques (Saunders et al., 2009). According to Saunders et al. (2009), questionnaire provides an efficient way of collecting responses from a large sample prior to qualitative analysis.

For the purposes of the research in this paper, self-administered, Internet-mediated anonymous questionnaires were used.

Figure 4: Types of Questionnaire, adopted from Saunders et al. (2009)
3.4.4.1 Designing Individual Questions

Saunders et al. (2009, p. 374) suggest that when designing individual questions one should do one of the following three things:

1. Adopt questions used in other questionnaires
2. Adapt questions used in another questionnaires
3. Develop their own questions

For the purposes of research in this paper, questions used were adapted from standard instruments used by research in the past. According to Saunders et al. (2009), adapting questions has two main advantages: it allows reliability and it can be more efficient than one developing his or her own questions.

However, despite the advantages, when adapting questions, one should be aware of the fact that there are a vast number of poor questions in circulation (Saunders et al., 2009). In addition, one should think about whether or not questions are under the copyright (Saunders et al., 2009).

This is why author of this research conducted in-depth review of literature and research instruments making sure that she uses academic peer-reviewed resources available in NCI’s library.

3.4.4.2 Pilot-Testing

The questionnaires were pre-tested for two main reasons.

First, to ensure that the sampling technique, namely snowball sampling, allows to the author of the research in this paper to generate sufficient data.

Second, to get feedback regarding the quality of the instructions and clarity of the questions.
For the purposes of pre-testing of the questionnaires, the author of research in this paper created the questionnaire using Survey Monkey and sent the link of the questionnaire to two chefs via Facebook.

Chefs were asked to assess the clarity and the appropriateness of the questions. In addition, they were asked to measure how long it took them to fill out the questionnaire. Lastly, chefs were asked to share the link of the questionnaire with their colleagues via Facebook.

Pre-testing of the questionnaire generated five responses in a one week’s time. Comments and suggestions (Appendix 1) obtained from the pre-test were used for rewording the instructions and layouts.

3.4.4.3 Validity and Reliability
According to Saunders et al. (2009), reliability refers to consistency. Questionnaire should be consistent in means that it should accurately and consistently measure selected constructs across the sample (Hinton, Brownlow, McMurray & Cozens, 2004).

For the purposes of research in this paper, questionnaire was used to measure the perceived head chefs’ leadership styles in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants and the impact of these styles on employee job satisfaction. These constructs include sets of different statements or questions.

For example, perceived “Directive Leadership Style” during busy service hours in Dublin’s top restaurants is measured by the following set of statements:

- During busy service hours the head chef always lets me know what is expected from me
• During busy service hours head chef always informs me about what needs to be done and how it needs to be done
• During busy service hours the head chef asks me to follow standard rules and regulations

Hence, for a questionnaire used in this research to be reliable, it should appropriately and consistently measure given construct for each respondent.

While there are many different ways of measuring reliability, author of research in this paper used Crombach’s Alpha.

Crombach’s alpha is currently most commonly used method for measuring reliability (Hinton et al., 2004; Gliner & Morgan, 2000). Its calculation is based on the number of items and the average inter-item correlation (Hinton, 2004).

Crombach’s Alpha ranges from 0 for a totally unreliable test to 1 for completely reliable test (Hinton et al., 2004).

While there is a debate around reliable value of Crombach’s Alpha, it has been recommended by statisticians that 0.7 or higher can be taken as a benchmark for a value to be reliable (Hinton et al., 2004).

The statistical command in SPSS was used in this research paper to conduct a reliability analysis by means of determining Crombach’s Alpha for each question (Table 1).

Crombach’a Alpha given in the table below is based on a sample of 5 respondents, who participated in the pilot testing.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Crombach’s Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subordinates Leadership Scores: Busy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Hours</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Directive Leadership Style</td>
<td>2(A)</td>
<td>1, 4, 7</td>
<td>0.823</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Participative Leadership Style</td>
<td>2(A)</td>
<td>3, 6, 11</td>
<td>0.703</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Supportive Leadership Style</td>
<td>2(A)</td>
<td>2, 9, 12</td>
<td>0.707</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Achievement Oriented Leadership Style</td>
<td>2(A)</td>
<td>5, 8, 10</td>
<td>0.720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subordinates Leadership Scores: Non-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Hours</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Directive Leadership Style</td>
<td>2(B)</td>
<td>1, 4, 7</td>
<td>0.933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Participative Leadership Style</td>
<td>2(B)</td>
<td>3, 6, 11</td>
<td>0.744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Supportive Leadership Style</td>
<td>2(B)</td>
<td>2, 9, 12</td>
<td>0.902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Achievement Oriented Leadership Style</td>
<td>2(B)</td>
<td>5, 8, 10</td>
<td>0.881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Intrinsic</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4</td>
<td>0.923</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Extrinsic</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5, 6, 7, 8</td>
<td>0.903</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Total</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8</td>
<td>0.950</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Crombach’s Alpha

3.4.4.4 Types of Questions

Questionnaire had four sections:

1. Section 1: Demographic Background
2. Section 2: Leadership Scale
3. Section 3: Job Satisfaction Scale
4. Section 4: Preferred Leadership Style
Even though the Path-goal leadership theory did not consider demographic data to be necessary to the examination of leader behaviours, the author of the research in this paper collected the demographic data for the purpose of classifying the respondents to provide better understanding of the characteristics of the sample.

Section 2 and Section 3 collected data using standardised instruments which have been validated in the past for research on leadership as well as on job satisfaction.

Section 4 collected data with the purpose to identify leadership styles that would make chefs more satisfied in work.

Demographic Variables
The questions on demographic background were given in section 1 of the questionnaire. There were three questions in this section measuring age, gender and one’s number of years of experience.

a) Age
The respondents were asked to choose the category for his or her age among five age categories. The first category (no. 1) was for those younger than 20 years of age. The second category (no. 2) was for those from 20-30 years old. The third category (no. 3) was for those from 31-40 years old. The fourth category (no. 4) was for those from 41-50 years old. Last, fifth category (no. 5) was for those older than 51 years of age.

b) Gender
This demographic variable was measured by asking respondents to choose their gender by marking either Male (no. 1) or Female (no. 2)
c) Number of Years of Experience

The length of experience of the respondents was measured by asking respondents to choose the category that showed the number of years one has been working as a chef. Four categories were given: 1-5 years (no. 1), 6-10 years (no. 2), 11-15 years (no. 3) and 16 years and more (no. 4).

Leadership Measurement Instrument

For the purposes of the research in this paper, the author used Path-goal Leadership Questionnaire which has been specifically arranged to provide sufficient information for respondents about the four Path-goal leadership styles: Directive, Supportive, Participative and Achievement-Oriented. The Path-goal leadership questionnaire was given in section 2.

Even though there are 20 items in the Path-goal leadership questionnaire, with 5 items for each of four leadership styles, in the pre-testing of the questionnaire respondents suggested that 20 items was too many, considering the fact that these items repeated twice in order to measure leadership styles in (a) busy service hours and (b) non-service hours. Hence, for the purpose of research in this paper, 12 items from Path-goal leadership questionnaire were adapted, with 3 items for each of four leadership styles.

The scores for the four leadership styles are calculated as follows (Appendix 2):

1. Reverse the scores for items 6 and 10

2. Directive style: Sum of scores on items 1, 4 and 7

3. Supportive style: Sum of scores on items 2, 9, and 12.
4. Participative style: Sum of scores on items 3, 6 and 11.

5. Achievement-oriented style: Sum of scores on items 5, 8 and 10

The scoring can be interpreted in the following manner:

• Directive style: A common score is 14, scores above 17 are considered high, and scores below 8 are considered low.

• Supportive style: A common score is 17, scores above 20 are considered high, and scores below 14 are considered low.

• Participative style: A common score is 13, scores above 16 are considered high, and scores below 10 are considered low.

• Achievement-Oriented style: A common score is 11, scores above 15 are considered high, and scores below 8 are considered low.

Job Satisfaction Instrument

Job satisfaction of chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants was measured by the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale, referred to as the MCMJSS. The MCMJSS had proven effective in the measurement of self-perceived job satisfaction, and had been used in several other studies (McKee, 1990). Based on the Motivation-Hygiene Theory of Herzberg, the MCMJSS was designed to measure eight aspects of perceived job satisfaction (McKee, 1990).

The instrument consisted of eight items divided into two sections. Each section contained four items with a six-point Likert scale with 1 being the lowest score for job satisfaction and 6 being the highest score. First section measured intrinsic job satisfaction. The intrinsic factors were related to self-esteem/self-respect, personal growth and development, achievement, and expectations (McKee,
Extrinsic job satisfaction was measured in the second section. The factors on the MCMJSS indicating extrinsic job satisfaction characteristics were respect and fair treatment, being informed, the amount of supervision by the immediate supervisor, and opportunity to participate in the methods, procedures and goals of the organization (McKee, 1990).

On the MCMJSS, the intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction scores are attained by adding up all the scores of the four items in each of the two sections. The overall job satisfaction is based on factors resulting from both, intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction (Herzberg, 1969). Therefore, the score for total job satisfaction can be obtained from the total scores of the two sections of the MCMJSS scale.

### 3.4.4.5 Focus Group Discussion

Focus group, or a group interview, is a well-known research technique (Saunders et al., 2009). It has become a popular research method for researchers examining the ways in which people understand and interpret the general topics in conjunction with one another (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

Focus group is a form of group interview where the topic is clearly and precisely defined and there is a focus on enabling and recording interactive discussion between participants (Saunders et al, 2009; Bryman & Bell, 2007). At the simplest level, a focus group is, in its essence, an informal discussion among a group of selected individuals about a specific topic (Wilkinson 2004). The aim of a focus group discussion is to understand the participants’ meanings and interpretations of a specific issue (Liamputtong, 2009).

Methodologically, focus groups involve between four and eight participants who have certain characteristics in common that relate to the topic being discussed
(Saunders et al., 2009). In focus group discussions the participants are encouraged to discuss and share their points of view without any pressure to reach consensus, or without any fear that they will be judged or ridiculed by others in the group (Saunders et al., 2009; Hennink, 2007).

The main strength of the focus group discussions is that it allows the researcher to understand and to appreciate the way people see their own reality (Bryman & Bell, 2007). In addition, this technique offers the opportunity to the researcher to study the ways in which individuals collectively make sense of a phenomenon and construct meaning around it (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

For the purposes of research in this paper, in addition to the questionnaire, the focus group discussion was used with an aim to get more balanced answers to the proposed research questions and to confirm and debate the findings.

The focus group involved four chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants. Similarly to the questionnaire, to ensure a sufficient sample, snowball sampling technique was used.

To do so, the author of research in this paper contacted two chefs via Facebook and asked them if they would be available to participate in a focus group discussion and if they would be willing to invite some of their colleagues. In addition, in order to ensure comfortable environment for chefs, they were asked to choose the date, the time and the place for the focus group discussion.

The focus group discussion was held on Sunday, 24th May 2013 at 2pm in O’Donaghues pub in Dublin 2. Even though, according to Saunders et al. (2009), in order to overcome the demands of conducting focus group, the interviewer should
audio-record the group interviews or use the second interviewer, this could not be the case. Chefs who agreed to participate in the focus group discussion did not want to be audio-recorded neither they wanted the presence of the second interviewer. Instead, they agreed for the interviewer to take the notes.

To warm participants up for the discussion and to make them feel comfortable, the interviewer first started asking general questions, such as:

- How are you?
- Where would you like to sit?
- Do you come here often?
- Would you like to order a drink? Are you hungry?
- Did you have to work last night? Was it busy?

When participants started feeling comfortable, the interviewer explained the purpose of the discussion group. Participants were ensured confidentiality and anonymity. They were also told that if at any stage of the discussion any of the participants felt stressed or under pressure, the discussion would be terminated immediately.

Following the introductory part, the interviewer facilitated the discussion by asking pre-defined questions. Questions were defined in four sections:

- Section 1: Questions about the profession
- Section 2: Questions about the industry
- Section 3: Questions about their head chefs’ leadership styles
- Section 4: Questions about their job satisfaction
a) Questions about the profession

The interviewer decided to ask questions about the profession first. The reason for this was to put participants on ease and to find more about why they their experiences of being a chef and about things they like/dislike in the job.

To do so, the following questions were asked:

- Why have you become a chef?
- What do you think are the main qualities of a good chef?
- For how long have you been in your current job?
- Do you like your job?
- Is there anything you dislike in your job?
- Are there opportunities to progress where you work at the moment?
- For how long do you think you will stay in your current job?

b) Questions about the industry

With the questions from the second section, the interviewer wanted to find out more about the nature of the industry. To do so, the following questions were asked:

- How many days do you usually work?
- What shifts do you usually work?
- What is the most stressful time of your working day?
- What is the turnover in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants?
c) Questions about head chefs’ leadership styles

With the questions from the third section, the interviewer wanted to find out more about how participants perceived the leadership styles of their head chefs. To do so, the following questions were asked:

- What is your head chef like?
- Is his/her behaviour different in times when is busy and in times when it is not?
- What kind of a relationship do you have with your head chef?
- What are your head chef’s qualities? What makes him/her a good head chef?
- Is there anything you would like to change or improve in his/her behaviour?

d) Questions about job satisfaction

Last, but not least important, the interviewer wanted to find out how satisfied were chefs in their current jobs and with their current head chefs. Questions about job satisfaction were as following:

- How happy are you in your job?
- Do you feel that there is an opportunity for personal growth and development in your job?
- Do you think you receive enough respect and fair treatment from your head chef?
- What would make you happier in your job?
The discussion lasted for two hours. During the discussion chefs had two pints of beer each. Since they knew each other’s from before they felt comfortable answering the questions because, as one of the chefs said “We talk about this almost every day after work” (Chef A).

Considering the fact that the interviewer was not allowed to audio-record the discussion nor the help from the second interviewer, the facilitation of the discussion and the note taking in the same time was a demanding task. The interviewer also needed to pay attention on her listening and observation skills in order to ensure that each of the participants felt comfortable and valued.

To avoid misinterpretation, the interviewer red over her notes after the discussion was finished and asked participants if they had anything else to add or if there was anything else they would like to take back.

Once the participants were happy with the content the interviewer once again ensured confidentiality and anonymity. Participants were also told that they could call the interviewer at any time if they wanted to change any of the statements they gave during the discussion.

The notes were than transcribed and used as supplement to the results from quantitative research.
3.5 Ethical Considerations

In the context of research, ethical consideration, according to Saunders et al. (2009) arise in each of the stages in a research- from research planning and negotiating the access to target population to collecting, analysing, managing and reporting the data. Here therefore, ethics refer to the standards of behaviour that guide researcher’s conduct in relation to the rights of those who become the subject of his or her work, or are affected by it (Saunders et al., 2009).

Therefore, according to Saunders et al. (2009, p. 184), research ethics relates to

“...questions about how we formulate and clarify our research topic, design our research and gain access, collect data, process and store our data, analyse data and write our research findings in a moral and responsible way.”

Since the research in this paper involved both quantitative and qualitative research approaches, the author had to deal with two types of data. While quantitative data is less likely to lead to a greater range of ethical concerns, qualitative data is more elastic and complex which could lead to a number of ethical issues such as misinterpretation and lack of objectivity (Saunders et al., 2009).

According to Saunders et al. (2009) the maintenance of researcher’s objectivity is vital, especially during the analysis stage. They warn that lack of objectivity could distort researcher’s conclusions and any associated recommendations (Saunders et al., 2009).

In order to avoid any risks the researcher was guided with both National College of Ireland codes of ethics as well as by ethical principles as proposed by
Saunders et al. (2009). Following ethical principles proposed by Saunders et al. (2009) the researcher was:

1. Objective and truthful;

2. Had respect to those who participate in his or her research, or those affected by it;

3. Ensured confidentiality and maintained anonymity;

4. Respected the voluntary nature of participation and enabled the participants to modify the nature of their consent or withdraw from participation;

5. Complied with data management and data protection legislation.
CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the findings of both quantitative and qualitative research.

The areas covered in this chapter include data processing and analysis as well as findings of the research.

4.2 Data Processing and Analysis

4.2.1 Manipulating the Data for Questionnaire Respondents

The data collected through on-line questionnaires via Survey Monkey was transported into Excel spreadsheet and processed using the IBM SPSS (Statistical Software for the Social Sciences) (SPSS) version 20 for Windows.

After the data was transported into SPPS and checked for accuracy, the author of research in this paper manipulated the raw data into a form she could use to conduct the analysis.

The process of manipulation of data varies on the types of questions one wishes to research (Pallant, 2010, p. 85) According to Pallant (2010), this process may include:

- Adding up the scores from the items that make up each scale to give an overall score for scales
- Transforming skewed variables for analyses that require normally distributed scores
- Collapsing continuous variables
• Reducing or collapsing the number of categories of categorical variable

For the purposes of research in this paper, leadership styles and job satisfaction data had to be manipulated by means of adding up the scores from the items that make up each scale to give an overall score for scales. This process involved the two main steps: reversing negatively worded items and calculating total scores from all the items that make up the subscale or scale.

According to Pallant (2010), the wording has been reversed to help to avoid response bias. Therefore, in the first step of data manipulation, negatively worded items have to be reversed before a total score can be calculated (Pallant, 2010).

Scores in question 6 and question 10 of both part A and part B of section 2 (Leadership Scale) were negatively worded and hence had to be reversed before total score for each leadership style could be calculated.

To do so, the author of research in this paper used SPSS to create new variables (Appendix 3). According to Pallant (2010), creating new variables is a safer option than overwriting the existing data because it retains original data unchanged.

The second step involved calculating total score for each leadership style and each element of job satisfaction (Appendix 4).

4.2.2 Manipulating the Data for Focus Group Discussion Respondents

The data collected through Focus Group discussion was transcribed and analysed by using the scissor-and-sort technique. The scissor-and-sort technique is also called the cut-and-paste method (Stewart, Shamdasani & Rook, 2007). It is a cost-effective
method for analysing focus group discussions and includes categorising data into major issues and topics (Stewart et al., 2007).

To do so, the author of research in this paper used color-coded brackets.

After the coding process, the author placed the data to relevant topic. Data gathered through focus group discussion was used to get more balanced answers to the proposed research questions as well as for better understanding of the restaurant industry, the nature of chefs’ work and chefs’ perception on leadership style of their respective head chefs.

### 4.3 Findings

The findings of the analysis from both qualitative and quantitative research are divided into three different sections.

Section 4.3.1 describes the sample characteristics, in terms of age, gender and one’s number of years of experience. To do so, the author used descriptive statistics.

Since the Path-goal theory did not consider demographic data to be necessary to the examination of leader behaviours, the author of the research in this paper analysed the demographic data only for the purpose of classifying the respondents to provide better understanding of the characteristics of the sample.

Section 4.3.2 the author gives the mean, range, and standard deviation of all the scales used in the study. In addition this section gives the results of the one-sample t-tests used to present the results for the examination of the perceived levels of the four leadership styles and job satisfaction.

Last, but not least important, full discussion of the findings is presented in the section 4.3.3.
4.3.1 Sample Characteristics

4.3.1.1. Sample Characteristics: Demographic Background for Questionnaire Respondents

This section shows the demographic information in terms of age, gender and one’s number of years of experience.

Detailed findings are to be described as follows

1. Age Range

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under 20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>61.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>28.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 and above</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Age range frequency and percentage for questionnaire respondents

According to the research, the majority of the respondents were aged between 20 years old and 30 years old (See Figure 5 below)

Figure 5: Age range percentage for questionnaire respondents
As it can be seen in the Figure 5, the majority (61.5%) of the respondents was in the age range between 20 and 30. Following to this group, 28.8% of the respondents was in the age range between 31 and 40, and 9.6% of the respondents was in the age range between 41 and 50. There were no respondents in the age range fewer than 20 and above 51.

2. Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>73.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Gender frequency and percentage for questionnaire respondents

According to the research, the number of male respondents exceeds the number of female respondents.

As it can be seen in the figure below, there was 73.1% of male respondents and 26.9% of female respondents.

Figure 6: Gender percentage for questionnaire respondents
3. Years of Experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>32.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>38.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>21.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 and above</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Years of Experience frequency and percentage for questionnaire respondents

According to the research, the majority of respondents have less than 16 years of experience.

As it can be seen in the figure below, the highest percentage of respondents (38.5%) has between 6 and 10 years of experience. Following to this group, 32.2% of respondents have 1 to 5 years of experience and 21.2% of respondents have between 11 and 15 years of experience. Only 7.7% of respondents have more than 16 years of experience.

![Years of Experience](image)

Figure 7: Years of experience percentage for questionnaire respondents
4.3.1.2 Sample Characteristics: Demographic Background for Focus Group Discussion Respondents

Compared with surveyed respondents, the number of those who participated in the focus group discussion was relatively small in the research.

Author of research in this paper conducted focus group discussion with 4 chefs working in different Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants.

Respondents who participated in the focus group discussion were all males with two chefs was in the age range between 20 and 30 and two chefs in the age range between 31 and 40. Similarly to the age range, 2 chefs have between 6 to 10 years of experience and two chefs have 11-15 years of experience.

4.3.2 Inferential Statistical Analysis

4.3.2.1 Characteristics of the Questionnaire Constructs

The characteristics of the measuring instruments and the scores for the mean and standard deviation coefficient of the scales are given in Table 5 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>No. of Items</th>
<th>Range of Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lowest</td>
<td>Highest</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Subordinates Leadership Scores: Busy Service Hours</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>15.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Directive</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>15.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Participative</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>14.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Supportive</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>12.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Achievement – Oriented</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>12.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Subordinates Leadership Scores: Non-Busy Hours</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>12.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Style</td>
<td>Typical Low Score</td>
<td>Typical Common Score</td>
<td>Typical High Score</td>
<td>(A) Chefs Mean Score n=52</td>
<td>(B) Chefs Mean Score n=52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15.27</td>
<td>15.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14.27</td>
<td>15.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12.77</td>
<td>14.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement-Oriented</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12.85</td>
<td>15.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Scores for the mean and standard deviation coefficient of the scales

Means for Leadership Styles
The mean scores for the four leadership styles during (A) busy service hours and (B) non-service hours, as perceived by chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants were compared with the typical low, common and high scores. The results are shown in Table 6 below:

Table 6: Means of Leadership Styles compared with the typical low, common and high scores
(A) Levels of Leadership Styles during busy service hours as perceived by chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants

In order to answer Research Question RQ1, the author of research in this paper performed a series of one-sample t-tests using chefs mean scores for each of the leadership styles and the typical low score, common score or high score for the particular leadership style.

1. *Level of Directive Leadership Style during busy service hours as perceived by chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants*

The one-sample t-test using the typical common score of 14 as the test value gave the following result: $t = 2.042$, $p = 0.046$, d.f. = 51, at a level of significance of 5% ($a = 0.05$), and the test using the typical high score of 17 as test value gave $t = -2.788$, $p = 0.007$, d.f. = 51 at $a = 0.05$ level.

The result showed that chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants perceived their head chefs to exhibit Directive leadership style at a level significantly higher than typical common score of 14 but suggestively below typical high score of 17 during busy service hours.

2. *Level of Supportive Leadership Style during busy service hours as perceived by chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants*

The chefs perceived their head chefs to have scored 14.27 on the Supportive leadership scale, which was very close to the typical low score of 14.

The one-sample t-test using typical common score of 17 as the test value gave the following result: $t = -5.277$, $p = 0.000$, d.f. = 51, at a level of significance of 5% ($a = 0.05$) and test using typical high score of 20 as test value gave $t = -11.074$, $p = 0.000$, d.f. = 51 at $a = 0.05$ level.
The result showed that the chefs perceived their head chefs to exhibit a low level of Supportive leadership style during busy service hours.

3. *Level of Participative Leadership Style during busy service hours as perceived by chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants*

The chefs perceived their head chefs to have scored 12.77 on the Participative leadership scale, which was slightly below typical common score of 13.

The one-sample t-test using the typical common score of 13 as test value gave $t = -0.580$, $p = 0.564$, d.f. $= 51$, at $a = 0.05$ level. In addition, test using typical low score of 10 as test value gave $t = 6.965$, $p = 0.000$, d.f. $= 51$ at $a = 0.05$ level.

The result showed that the chefs perceived their head chefs to exhibit Participative leadership style at a level slightly below typical common score but considerably above typical low score.

4. *Level of Achievement – Oriented Leadership Style during busy service hours as perceived by chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants*

The chefs perceived their head chefs to have scored 12.85 on the Achievement – Oriented leadership scale during busy service hours, which was between typical common score of 11, and typical high score of 15.

The one-sample t-test using typical common score of 11 as the test value gave the following result: $t = 5.091$, $p = 0.000$, d.f. $= 51$, at a level of significance of 5% ($a = 0.05$) and test using the typical high score of 15 as test value gave $t = -5.939$, $p = 0.000$, d.f. $= 51$ at $a = 0.05$ level.

The result showed that the chefs perceived their head chefs to exhibit Achievement- Oriented leadership style at a level significantly higher than typical
common score but suggestively lower than typical high score during busy service hours.

(B) Levels of Leadership Styles during non-service hours as perceived by chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants

In order to answer Research Question RQ2, the author of research in this paper performed a series of one-sample t-tests using chefs mean scores for each of the leadership styles and the typical low score, common score or high score for the particular leadership style.

1. Level of Directive Leadership Style during non-service hours as perceived by chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants

The chefs perceived their head chefs to have scored 15.60 on the Directive leadership scale, which was between typical common score of 14, and typical high score of 17.

The one-sample t-test using typical common score of 14 as the test value gave the following result: \( t = 2.999, \ p = 0.026, \ d.f. = 51, \) at a level of significance of 5% (\( a = 0.05 \)) and test using the typical high score of 17 as test value gave \( t = -2.022, \ p = 0.048, \ d.f. = 51 \) at \( a = 0.05 \) level.

The result showed that the chefs perceived their head chefs to exhibit Directive leadership style at a level significantly higher than typical common score but suggestively lower than typical high score during non-service hours.

2. Level of Supportive Leadership Style during non-service hours as perceived by chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants
The chefs perceived their head chefs to have scored 15.85 on the Supportive leadership scale, which was between typical low score of 14, and typical common score of 17.

The one-sample t-test using typical low score of 14 as test value gave \( t = 2.950, p = 0.05, \text{d.f.} = 51 \) at \( \alpha = 0.05 \). In addition, test using typical common score of 17 as the test value gave the following result: \( t = -1.844, p = 0.071, \text{d.f.} = 51 \), at a level of significance of 5% (\( \alpha = 0.05 \)).

The result showed that the chefs perceived their head chefs to exhibit quite low level of Supportive leadership style during busy service hours.

3. *Level of Participative Leadership Style during non-service hours as perceived by chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants*

The chefs perceived their head chefs to have scored 14.44 on the Participative leadership scale, which was between typical common score of 13, and typical high score of 16.

The one-sample t-test using typical common score of 13 as the test value gave the following result: \( t = 2.414, p = 0.019, \text{d.f.} = 51, \) at a level of significance of 5% (\( \alpha = 0.05 \)) and test using the typical high score of 16 as test value gave \( t = -2.607, p = 0.012, \text{d.f.} = 51 \) at \( \alpha = 0.05 \) level.

The result showed that the chefs perceived their head chefs to exhibit Participative oriented leadership style at a level significantly higher than typical common score but suggestively lower than typical high score during non-service hours.
4. Level of Achievement – Oriented Leadership Style during non-service hours as perceived by chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants

The chefs perceived their head chefs to have scored 15.46 on the Achievement – Oriented leadership scale, which was higher than typical high score of 15.

The one-sample t-test using then typical high score of 15 as the test value gave the following result: $t = 11.396$, $p = 0.000$, d.f. = 51, at a level of significance of 5% ($a = 0.05$).

The result showed that the chefs perceived their head chefs to exhibit Achievement – Oriented leadership style during non–service hours.

Job Satisfaction

Section 3 of the questionnaire measured job satisfaction as perceived by chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants.

A median for total job satisfaction was 28 with 8 being the lowest possible score and 48 being the highest possible score for measuring job satisfaction.

The chefs' mean score for total job satisfaction was 36.75 on the job satisfaction scale, which was significantly higher than the median of 28.

The one-sample t-test using the median of 28 as test value gave the following result: $t = 6.881$, $p = 0.000$, d.f. = 51, at $a = 0.05$ level.

4.3.3 Relationship between Leadership Styles and Chefs’ Job Satisfaction

To explore the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction the author of research in this paper used two tests.

First she used Pearson correlation analysis test to determine the correlations between main variables of the study. She then used regression analysis to examine
the impacts of leadership styles identified during (A) busy service hours and (B) non-service hours on chefs’ job satisfaction.

**Correlations**

Pearson correlation coefficient provides the numerical summary of the strength of relationship between variables (Pallant, 2010). Its coefficients range from -1 (negative correlation) to +1 (positive correlation).

According to Pallant (2010), a perfect co-relation of -1 or 1 shows that the value of one variable can be determined by the value of second variable. On the other hand, value of 0 shows that there is no relationship between two variables (Pallant, 2010).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Styles Identified during busy service hours</th>
<th>Job Satisfaction</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P</td>
<td>R</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.747</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.759</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.560</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement Oriented</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>0.304</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 7: Pearson correlation coefficients determining the relationship between leadership styles and chefs’ job satisfaction during busy service hours**

As it can be seen in the table above, all four leadership styles during busy service hours had significant positive relationships with job satisfaction with $p<0.05$ for Directive, Supportive and Participative leadership styles, and $p<0.05$ for Achievement-Oriented leadership style.
In particular, the strongest correlation during busy service hours can be seen between Supportive leadership style and job satisfaction ($r=0.759$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Styles Identified during non-service hours</th>
<th>Job Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement Oriented</td>
<td>0.028</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 8: Pearson correlation coefficients determining the relationship between leadership styles and chefs’ job satisfaction during non-service hours**

During non-service hours there is a strong positive relationship between all four leadership styles and job satisfaction with $p<0.01$. While Achievement-Oriented leadership style had least significant relationship with job satisfaction during busy service hours ($r=0.304$), the results demonstrated that Achievement-Oriented leadership style had the strongest correlation with job satisfaction during non-service hours ($r=0.808$).

**Regression Analyses**

Once positive relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction in both (A) busy service hours and (B) non-service hours has been identified, the author of research in this paper next used multiple regression analysis to further investigate these relationships.

(A) Effects of leadership styles on job satisfaction during busy service hours

Regression analysis showed statistically significant positive effects for Directive leadership style during busy service hours $\beta = (0.627, p<0.01)$. Supportive
and Participative leadership styles also have positive effects on the job satisfaction where $\beta= 0.418$ and $\beta= 0.102$ respectively.

On the other side, Achievement-Oriented leadership style had a significant negative effect on job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.180$, $p<0.05$) which indicated that chefs whose head-chefs exercised Achievement-Oriented leadership style during busy service hours tended to have lower levels of job satisfaction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Job Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Directive Leadership Style</td>
<td>0.627</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive Leadership Style</td>
<td>0.418</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative Leadership Style</td>
<td>0.102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement-Oriented Leadership Style</td>
<td>-0.180</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9: Multiple regression analyses: effects of leadership styles on job satisfaction during busy service hours

(B) Effects of leadership styles on job satisfaction during non-service hours

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Job Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Directive Leadership Style</td>
<td>0.090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive Leadership Style</td>
<td>0.304</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative Leadership Style</td>
<td>0.202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement-Oriented Leadership Style</td>
<td>0.610</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10: Multiple regression analyses: effects of leadership styles on job satisfaction during non-service hours
While findings indicated that chefs whose head-chefs exercised Achievement-Oriented leadership style during busy service hours tended to have lower levels of job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.180$, $p<0.05$), it can be seen from the table above that there is a significant positive effects for Achievement-Oriented style during non-service hours ($\beta = 0.610$, $p<0.05$). Similarly to busy service hours, Supportive and Participative leadership styles positively affect job satisfaction during non-service hours.

### 4.3.4 Preferred Leadership Style for Questionnaire Respondents

In this section, the author shows the preferred leadership style for questionnaire respondents. Detailed findings are to be described below.

#### 4.3.3.1 Preferred Leadership Style during busy service hours

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement-Oriented</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>34.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied with the current leadership style</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 11: Preferred leadership style during busy service hours frequency and percentage for questionnaire respondents**

According to the research, the majority of the respondents would prefer Achievement-Oriented leadership style during busy service hours (See Figure below)
Figure 8: Preferred leadership style during busy service hours for questionnaire respondents

As it can be seen from the figure above, 34.6% of respondents would prefer Achievement-Oriented leadership style during busy service hours. In addition, 23.1% of respondents would prefer Participative leadership style during busy service hours, 19.5% of respondents would prefer their head chef to use Directive leadership style, and 13.5% would prefer their head chef to use Supportive leadership style when busy. According to research, 9.6% of respondents are very satisfied with the leadership style of their head chef during busy service hours.

Even though the Directive leadership style was least preferred, all respondents who are very satisfied with the current leadership style of the head chef during busy service hours identified that their head chef uses Achievement-Oriented style during busy service hours (Table 12).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identified Leadership Style During Non-Service Hours</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement-Oriented</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 12: Findings of respondents (frequency and percentage) who are very satisfied with the current leadership style of the head chef during busy service hours**

4.3.3.2 *Preferred Leadership Style during non-service hours*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>28.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement-Oriented</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied with the current leadership style</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 13: Preferred leadership style during non-service hours frequency and percentage for questionnaire respondents**

According to the research, 15 (28.8%) of respondents would prefer their head chef to behave in a friendly and supportive manner during non-service hours.

As it could be in the figure below, Achievement-Oriented leadership style is second most preferred leadership style during non-service hours as 26.9% of chefs would like their head chef to challenge and motivate them to perform at highest level possible. According to the research, 23.1% of chefs would like to share decision
making with chef during non-service hours and would therefore prefer participative leadership style when not busy.

More than one sixth (17.3%) of respondents is very satisfied with the leadership style of their head chef during non-service hours, and only 3.8% would be more satisfied if head chef’s leadership style was more directive.

**Figure 9: Preferred leadership style during non-service hours for questionnaire respondents**

As it can be seen in the table below, even though the Directive leadership style was least preferred, the majority of respondents (66.67%) who are very satisfied with the current leadership style of the head chef during non-service hours identified that their head chef uses Directive style during non-service hours. 22% of respondents who are very satisfied with the current leadership style of their head chef identified Participative leadership style and 11.1% of respondents is very satisfied with Achievement-Oriented leadership style used by their head chefs during non-service hours.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identified Leadership Style During Non-Service Hours</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>66.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement-Oriented</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14: Findings of respondents (frequency and percentage) who are very satisfied with the current leadership style of the head chef during busy service hours

4.4 Answers to Research Questions

RQ1(a)

The results showed that chefs perceived their head chefs to have scored both Achievement-Oriented leadership style and Directive leadership style during busy service hours at levels significantly higher than typical common scores; however, they were still suggestively lower than typical high scores.

Even though the results showed that the Achievement-Oriented leadership style during busy service hours was to some extent more dominant than the directive leadership style, the difference is only marginal.

Therefore, the most common leadership style in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants during busy service hours varies between Directive leadership style and Achievement-Oriented leadership style.

RQ1 (b)

The results showed that the chefs perceived their head chefs to have scored Achievement-Oriented leadership style during non-service at a level higher than typical high score.
Therefore, the most common leadership style in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants during non-service is Achievement-Oriented leadership style.

**RQ2 (a)**
Regression analysis showed statistically significant positive effects for Directive leadership style during busy service hours. On the other side, Achievement-Oriented leadership style had a significant negative effect on job satisfaction during busy service hours.

Therefore, chefs whose head-chefs exercised Directive leadership style during busy were tended to have high levels of job satisfaction. On the other hand, those whose head-chefs exercised Achievement-Oriented leadership style leadership style during busy service hours tended to have lower levels of job satisfaction.

**RQ2 (b)**
While findings indicated that chefs whose head-chefs exercised Achievement-Oriented leadership style during busy service hours tended to have lower levels of job satisfaction, the results showed that there was significant positive effect for Achievement-Oriented style on job satisfaction during non-service hours.

Therefore, chefs whose head-chefs exercised Directive leadership style during non-service hours tended to have lower levels of job satisfaction. On the other hand, those whose head-chefs exercised Achievement-Oriented leadership style leadership style during non-service service hours tended to have high levels of job satisfaction.

**RQ3 (a)**
While findings indicated that chefs whose head-chefs exercised Achievement-Oriented leadership style during busy service hours tended to have lower levels of job satisfaction, when asked to indicate leadership style which would
make them more satisfied with their job during busy service hours, chefs indicated Achievement-Oriented leadership style (34.6%).

**RQ3 (b)**

According to the research, 15 (28.8%) of chefs would prefer their head chef to behave in a friendly and supportive manner during non-service hours. The results also showed that Supportive leadership style has a strong positive relationship with employee job satisfaction.

Following to Supportive leadership style, second preferred leadership style during non-service hours, as indicated by chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants is Achievement-Oriented leadership style (26.9%). As already discussed, the results also showed that Achievement-Oriented leadership style during non-service hours has significant positive effects on chefs’ job satisfaction during non-service hours ($\beta = 0.610$, $p<0.05$).
5. Discussion

5.1 Introduction

The aim of the research in this paper was threefold.

First, to identify the most common leadership styles used by head chefs in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants in (a) busy service hours and (b) non-service hours.

Second, to examine the impacts of head chefs’ leadership styles in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants in each of the situations on job satisfaction of kitchen staff.

Third, to outline recommendations to head chefs in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants to develop their leadership style which will enable them to optimise kitchen output, improve employee job satisfaction and maintain current levels of the quality of their culinary creations, hence sustaining the competitive edge and profitability position of their respective organizations.

In total, 56 chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants participated in the research. Majority of respondents (52 chefs) completed self-administered, Internet-mediated anonymous questionnaires via Facebook, and a fraction of the total number of respondents (4 chefs) participated in the focus group discussion.

This study has identified the most common leadership styles used by head chefs in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants in (a) busy service hours and (b) non-service hours.

In addition, this study has also examined the impacts of head chef’s leadership style in each of the situations on job satisfaction of kitchen staff.
Last, but not least important, this study has identified a leadership style that would make kitchen staff working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants more satisfied during both; busy service hours and non-service hours.

The findings of the study will now be discussed with reference to the literature.

5.2 Most common leadership styles used by head chefs in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants

The results of this study revealed that head chefs in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants use Achievement-Oriented leadership style and Directive leadership during busy service hours.

On the other hand, during non-service hours, the most common leadership style used by head chefs in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants is Achievement-Oriented leadership style.

As previously identified in the literature, Directive leadership is characterized by authoritarian and legitimate power that uses high levels of strict direction, command and close supervision to provide psychological structure and task clarity (Northouse, 2010; Clark, Hartline & Jones, 2009; Houghton & Yoho, 2005). Directive leaders set standards of performance and set clear rules and regulations to subordinates as to what should be done and how it should be done, and the timeline when it should be completed (Jones & George, 2011; Northouse, 2010).

On the other hand, Achievement-Oriented leaders motivate subordinates to perform at the highest level possible by setting high challenging goals and high standards of excellence and believe in subordinates’ capabilities (Jones & George, 2011; Northouse, 2010).
In addition to the results gained from the questionnaire which revealed that head chefs in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants use different leadership styles during busy service hours and during non-service hours, chefs who participated in the focus group discussion confirmed the above findings saying that that their head chef’s leadership style is “…very different…” depending on the situation (Chef B).

During busy service hours head chefs in Dublin top gourmet restaurants “…can get very tough…” (Chef B) asking chefs to “…be quiet, don’t make mistakes and listen…” (Chef D).

On the other hand, similarly to the results gained from the questionnaire, the results gained through focus group discussion revealed that head chefs in Dublin top gourmet restaurants are more approachable (Chef B) and fun (Chef D) during non-service hours.

Linking back to the literature, the above findings can be explained by the fact that kitchen environment is different from many other workplaces (Lützen, 2010). Busy service hours are the period of production that allows no errors (Lützen, 2010). During this period head chefs are in charge of controlling the quality and directing the flow of the service (Lützen, 2010).

5.3 The impacts of head chef’s leadership styles on job satisfaction of kitchen staff working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants

As previously mentioned in the literate review, numerous empirical studies show that leadership is positively related to employee job satisfaction (e.g. Long & Thean, 2011; Gill et al., 2010; Yu-Jia et al., 2010; Clark et al., 2009; Erkutlu, 2008; Jing & Avery, 2008). The results of this study revealed the same.
Pearson correlation coefficient, used to examine the numerical summary of the strength of relationship between head chefs’ leadership styles and job satisfaction of kitchen staff in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants indicated that there is a significant positive relationships between these two variables.

When it comes to the impacts of head chefs’ leadership styles on job satisfaction of kitchen staff in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants, the results of regression analysis revealed that chef whose head chefs exercised Achievement-Oriented leadership style during busy service hours tended to have lower levels of job satisfaction and those whose head chefs exercised Directive leadership style during busy service hours tended to have higher level of employee job satisfaction.

The above findings confirm the Path-goal theory predictions. According to Path-goal theory, Directive leadership behaviour is more effective in environments with high need for achievement (Hayyat, 2012). Since busy service hours are the period of production that allows no errors (Lützen, 2010), it is no surprise that chefs whose head chefs exercised Directive leadership style during busy service hours tended to have higher level of employee job satisfaction.

On the other hand, the results of the regression analysis identified that chefs whose head-chefs exercised Directive leadership style during non-service hours tended to have lower levels of job satisfaction and those whose head-chefs exercised Achievement-Oriented leadership style leadership style during non-service service hours tended to have high levels of job satisfaction. Therefore, while setting clear rules and regulations to subordinates as to what should be done and how it should be done, and the timeline when it should be completed (Jones & George, 2011; Northouse, 2010) proves to be effective during busy service hours, such leadership
behaviour has a negative impact on employee job satisfaction during non-service hours. Instead, setting challenging goals, encouraging in continuous improvement and believing in subordinates’ capabilities (Jones & George, 2011; Northouse, 2010) proves to be more effective.

While the findings of this study indicated that leadership is important, the findings also suggest that employee job satisfaction is affected, but not limited to head chef’s use of leadership styles.

With the mean score of 36.75, significantly higher than the median of 28, the findings indicated that chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants are generally satisfied with their jobs.

They are professionals driven by passion towards food they serve (Chef A & Chef D). They “…love…” their job (Chef A) and they believe that there are the opportunities for progress in their job, depending on “…where you work and how determined you are…” (Chef D).

However, the results of this study confirmed the fact that kitchen environment is different from many other workplaces (Lützen, 2010). As identified in the literate review, restaurant industry is dynamic, service-oriented and labour-intensive (Johnson et al., 2005).

While chefs like the variety their role brings them, saying that they enjoy the “…the environment” and the fact that “…every day is different…” (Chef A), they all complained about the long hours.
However, while they are clearly enthusiastic about their jobs, chefs who participated in the focus group discussion indicated that they would be more satisfied with their job if their head chefs communicated more effectively.

In addition, chefs who participated in the focus group discussion indicated that they would be more satisfied with their jobs if they worked fewer hours and if they had more free time off work.

5.4 Implications for Managers

So, what are the implications of the findings of this study for head chefs leading Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants?

As discussed in the literature review, Path-goal theory argues that the perception of subordinates is affected by leaders’ behaviours, drawing attention to the importance of matching specific leadership style to specific situations. Therefore, the essential implication is that head chefs should become more aware of the importance of using the appropriate leadership style according to the situation. Taking into account the fact that leadership is a complex process (Kouzes & Posner, 1995) as well as the fact that kitchen environment is different from many other workplaces (Lützen, 2010), it is clear that head chefs cannot rely solely on one dominant style of leadership. Saying that, the implication is that head chefs should be flexible and keep open mind in order to use the leadership style which will work best for their teams in a particular situation.

While this is not an easy task, it is not impossible to achieve. According to Kouzes & Posner (1995), leadership is an observable and learnable set of practices. However, it cannot be thought in vacuum. According to Hayyat Malik (2012, p.368), leadership is rather “… a product of situation and experiences”.
Therefore, promoting effective leadership through formal training and the continual use of appropriate leadership based upon the situational and group variables could be encouraged. Considering that head chefs already have too much on the plate to worry about, they could seek help from the HR professionals to formulate policies and strategies to improve working systems based on situational leadership.

The second implication for head chefs is to become more aware of the importance of the ability to have higher level of confidence in their subordinates’ capabilities.

Although chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants prefer task clarity and direction during busy service hours, such hierarchical approach and direct supervision may not always work. In fact, findings of this study indicated that chefs working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants would be more satisfied in work during busy service hours if their head chefs exercised more of Achievement-Oriented leadership style.

As previously discussed, apart from striving for excellence, setting challenging goals and constantly seeking improvement, one of the main characteristics Achievement-Oriented leaders have is their ability to have high level of confidence towards their subordinates (Jones & George, 2011; Northouse, 2010).

As tasks and the environment during busy service hours are challenging enough, already requiring chefs to perform at the highest level possible, one thing often missing in head chefs’ leadership styles in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants is the belief in their subordinates’ capabilities.
Therefore, taking into account both previous research and the results of this study, which suggest that Achievement-Oriented leadership has positive impact on employee job satisfaction, head chefs should believe more in their subordinates’ capabilities by empowering them to use their knowledge and enabling them to act autonomously where appropriate.

However, high level of confidence toward subordinates and the ability to empower subordinates does not come easily to all leaders (Hernez-Broome & Nilsen, 1998). According to Hernez–Broome & Nilsen (1998), it requires a head chef to give up the control, and, during busy service hours, where there is or room for errors (Lützen, 2010), giving up the control can be seen as too risky.

Again, this is why promoting effective leadership through formal training and the continual use of appropriate leadership based upon the situational and group variables should be encouraged.

The third implication for head chefs is to pay more attention to the way they communicate with their subordinates.

Chefs who participated in the focus group discussion indicated that they would prefer if their head chefs had better communication skills (Chef A). Therefore, effective communication between head chefs and their subordinates should be encouraged.

To do so, head chefs could undertake leadership development trainings with special emphasis on effective communication techniques.

Last, but not least important implication for head chef in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants is that they should be more aware of their subordinates’ needs.
The results of the study revealed that chefs would be more satisfied in work if their head chefs exercised Supportive leadership during non-service hours. As identified in the literature review, supportive leaders are friendly, approachable and treat their subordinates as equals (Northouse, 2010). They care about the well-being and human needs of subordinates and go out of their way to make the work more enjoyable for their subordinates (Jones & George, 2011; Northouse et al., 2010).

Therefore, being more supportive and caring more about well-being of their subordinates during non-service hours would enable head chefs to provide their subordinates with better work-life balance and in return, to improve their overall job satisfaction.

It is, however, important to emphasise the fact that none of the above suggestions can be easily accommodated without the support and commitment from the organisational leaders.

Often too busy with managing day-to-day operations as well as working on a tight budget, restaurant leaders can easily underestimate the importance of developing their ‘key people’ leadership skills.

Therefore, it is crucial that development of head chefs’ leadership styles and behaviours is encouraged from the side of top restaurants leaders and coordinated by either internal or external HR professionals.

While many restaurants leaders may see this as just another unnecessary expense, a number of empirical studies suggest that employee satisfaction is useful measure of organisational performance (Erkutlu, 2008; Jing & Avery, 2009).
Therefore, if head chefs running Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants were encouraged to continually apply the appropriate leadership styles to (a) busy service hours and (b) non-service hours, and, by doing this, increase their subordinates job satisfaction, they would be able to continually maintain current levels of the quality of their culinary creations, hence sustaining the competitive edge and profitability position of their respective organizations.

5.5 Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research

Although the findings of this study may greatly contribute to the theoretical literature in the area of leadership in service driven, high standard restaurants, this study faced several limitations.

One of the major limitations is the shortage of relevant studies in restaurant industry in general, and, in particular, shortage of relevant studies in the kitchen environment of service driven high standard restaurants.

In addition, the researcher found access to Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants and distributing the questionnaires to participants very challenging. This was mainly due to the sensitivity of the research topic and lack of cooperation from the side of restaurants. Even though the researcher managed to reach the participants via social media by the snowball sampling research technique, this limitation reduced the ability to obtain a larger sample and produce more reliable and more valid findings.

Moreover, in order to increase anonymity and hence increase chefs’ willingness to participate, this study did not have enough demographic data draw more specific conclusions.

Recognising the difficulties of this area of research and lack of relevant studies, more research needs to be done. In particular, for further development of
appropriate situational leadership styles in service driven, high standard restaurants, more study is needed that includes larger sample and more demographic data.
6. Conclusion

Considering that the job satisfaction can be used as a useful measure of organisational performance, identifying factors which influence job satisfaction is crucial.

This study investigated the impacts of head chef’s leadership styles on their subordinates’ job satisfaction. In particular, this study investigated impacts of head chef’s leadership style on job satisfaction of kitchen staff in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants in two different situations – (a) busy service hours and (b) non-service hours.

The quantitative portion of this study used the Path-goal Leadership Questionnaire which has been specifically arranged to provide sufficient information for respondents about the four Path-goal leadership styles: Directive, Supportive, Participative and Achievement-Oriented.

The results of this study indicated that a strong correlation exists between job satisfaction and perceptions of head chefs’ leadership styles in both situations. In addition, findings obtained through focus group discussion suggested that while employee job satisfaction is affected, it is not limited to head chef’s use of leadership styles.

Taking into the account the results of the study, it is recommended that promoting effective leadership through formal training and the continual use of appropriate leadership based upon the situational and group variables should be encouraged.
In addition, it is recommended that Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants’ head chefs should be flexible and keep open mind in order to use the leadership style which will work best for their teams in a particular situation.

Last, but not least important, it is recommended that development of head chefs’ leadership styles and behaviours are encouraged from the side of top restaurants leaders and coordinated by either internal or external HR professionals.

Recognising the difficulties of this area of research and lack of relevant studies, more research needs to be done. Future studies should involve larger sample and could look into gaining more demographic data in order to draw more reliable, valid and specific conclusions.
References


Appendices

Appendix 1: Pilot Testing – Feedback and Comments

On 7\textsuperscript{th} April 2013, the author of research in this paper created an on-line questionnaire using an on-line questionnaire tool Survey Monkey.

The questionnaire was sent to 5 chefs (2 female and 3 male) in order to test it and to get the feedback.

Chefs were asked to measure how long did it take them to fill out the questionnaire and to let the researcher know if questions were clear and easy to understand.

In addition, chefs were asked to advise the researcher on the appropriateness of the questions and to report questions that could annoy chefs.

The feedback was as follows:

- It took chefs 15-20 minutes to fill out the questionnaire
- Chefs liked the fact that I made a distinction between service and non-service hours
- The questions are clear, logic and easy to understand
- One of the chefs (female) recommended to use bullet points at the beginning of the questionnaire ('General instructions') and advised the researcher on some grammatical changes.
Appendix 2: Questionnaire

NATIONAL COLLEGE OF IRELAND

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS

- Please find a quiet place where you would not be disturbed for 15 to 20 minutes.
- The questions are designed to ask for your perceptions of the issues concerned in two different situations:
  1. Busy service hours
  2. Non-service hours
- There are no right or wrong answers.
- Please read the questions carefully before answering.
- Please answer all the questions because complete information is required for the analysis later.

CONFIDENTIALITY

- All information given will be treated with the strictest confidence.

Researcher: Silvija Delekovcan

Program: MA in Human Resource Management, National College of Ireland, Dublin 1,

Email: sivija.djelekovcan@gmail.com

NOTE: There are altogether 5 pages in this questionnaire.
SECTION 1: DEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND

Please complete your background data by circling the appropriate response to each question. The answers to the questions will be useful in the study to make comparisons among different groups of employees working in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants. Like all the other responses given by you, the answers are completely confidential, and nobody can identify you in any way whatsoever.

1. **Age Range**
   1. Under 20
   2. 20-30
   3. 31-40
   4. 41-50
   5. 51 and above

2. **Gender**
   1. Male
   2. Female

3. **Years of Experience**
   1. 1-5
   2. 6-10
   3. 11-15
   4. 16 and above
SECTION 2

This Section contains questions about the leadership styles of your head chef. Indicate how often each statement is true of your head chef’s leadership behaviour in (A) busy service hours and (B) non-service hours.

Key:  
1= Never  2= Hardly ever  3= Seldom  4= Occasionally  
5= Often  6= Usually  7= Always

(A) Indicate how often each statement is true of your head chef’s behaviour during busy service hours.

1. During busy service hours the head chef always lets me know what is expected from me.  
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. During busy service hours the head chef maintains friendly working relationship with me.  
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. During busy service hours the head chef listens receptively to the suggestions and ideas I make.  
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. During busy service hours head chef always informs me about what needs to be done and how it needs to be done.  
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. During busy service hours the head chef lets me know that he/she expects me to perform at the highest possible level.  
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. During busy service hours head the chef acts without consulting with me.  
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. During busy service hours the head chef asks me to follow standard rules and regulations.  
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. During busy service hours the head chef encourages continual improvement in my performance.  
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. During busy service hours the head chef helps me to overcome problems and be more efficient.  
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10. During busy service hours the head chef believes in my ability to meet most objectives.  
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. During busy service hours the head chef asks me for suggestions on what should we do to improve the service.  
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. During busy service hours the head chef behaves in a manner that is thoughtful of my personal needs.  
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(B) Indicate how often each statement is true of your head chef’s behaviour during non-service hours

1. During non-service hours the head chef always lets me know what is expected from me. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. During non-service hours the head chef maintains friendly working relationship with me. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. During non-service hours the head chef listens receptively to the suggestions and ideas I make. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. During non-service hours the head chef always informs me about what needs to be done and how it needs to be done. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. During non-service hours the head chef lets me know that he/she expects me to perform at the highest possible level. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. During non-service hours the head chef acts without consulting with me. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. During non-service hours the head chef asks me to follow standard rules and regulations. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. During non-service hours the head chef encourages continual improvement in my performance. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. During non-service hours the head chef helps me to overcome problems and be more efficient. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. During non-service hours the head chef believes in my ability to meet most objectives. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11. During non-service hours the head chef asks me for suggestions on what should we do to improve the service. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12. During non-service hours the head chef behaves in a manner that is thoughtful of my personal needs. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
**SECTION 3: JOB SATISFACTION SCALE**

Please indicate your level of satisfaction with various facets of your job by circling a number on the six-point scale after each of the statements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key:</th>
<th>1= Low</th>
<th>6= High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The feeling of self-esteem or self-respect you get from being in your job.</td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5  6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The opportunity for personal growth and development in your job</td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5  6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment in your job</td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5  6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Your present job when you consider the expectations you had when you took the job.</td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5  6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The amount of respect and fair treatment you receive from your superiors.</td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5  6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The feeling of being informed in your job.</td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5  6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The amount of supervision you receive.</td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5  6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. The opportunity for participation in the determination of methods, procedures and goals.</td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5  6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SECTION 4

Please indicate which of the following leadership styles would make you more satisfied with your job during (A) busy service hours and (B) non-service hours

(A) I would be more satisfied with my job during busy service hours if head chef’s leadership style was more:

1. Directive- I like when I am told what to, how it should be done and when it should be done. Strict command, clear orders and close supervision works best for me when we are busy.

2. Participative- I like when we work as a team and share decision making with head chef during busy service hours.

3. Supportive- I like when head chef behaves in a friendly and supportive manner when we are busy, during service hours.

4. Achievement-Oriented- I like when head-chef challenges my performance and motivates me to perform at the highest possible level when we are busy, during service hours.

5. I am very satisfied with the leadership style of the head chef during busy service hours.

(B) I would be more satisfied with my job during non-service hours if head chef’s leadership style was more:

1. Directive- I like when I am told what to, how it should be done and when it should be done. Strict command, clear orders and close supervision works best for me during non-service hours.

2. Participative- I like when we work as a team and share decision making with head chef during non-service hours.

3. Supportive- I like when head chef behaves in a friendly and supportive manner during non-service hours.

4. Achievement-Oriented- I like when head-chef challenges my performance and motivates me to perform at the highest possible level during non-service hours.

5. I am very satisfied with the leadership style of the head chef during non-service hours.

END OF QUESTIONNAIRE. THANK YOU.
Appendix 3: Data Analysis: Adding together scores from all the items that make up the subscale or scale

The scores for the four leadership styles are calculated as follows:

- Directive style: Sum of scores on items 1, 4 and 7

The syntax generated for this command was:

```plaintext
COMPUTE
    VARIABLE LABELS DirectiveA 'Directive Leadership Style A'.
EXECUTE.

COMPUTE
    VARIABLE LABELS DirectiveB 'Directive Leadership Style B'.
EXECUTE.
```

1. Supportive style: Sum of scores on items 2, 9, and 12.

The syntax generated for this command was:

```plaintext
COMPUTE
    VARIABLE LABELS DirectiveA 'Directive Leadership Style A'.
EXECUTE.

COMPUTE
    VARIABLE LABELS SupportiveB 'Supportive Leadership Style B'.
EXECUTE.
```
2. Participative style: Sum of scores on items 3, 6 (reversed) and 11.

The syntax generated for this command was:

```
COMPUTE
    VARIABLE LABELS ParticipativeA 'Participative Leadership Style A'.
EXECUTE.
COMPUTE
    ParticipativeB=B3 + B11 + ReversedB6.
    VARIABLE LABELS ParticipativeB 'Participative Leadership Style B'.
EXECUTE.
```

3. Achievement-oriented style: Sum of scores on items 5, 8 and 10 (reversed)

The syntax generated for this command was:

```
COMPUTE
    AchievementOrientedA=A5 + A8 + ReversedA10.
    VARIABLE LABELS AchievementOrientedA 'AO Leadership Style A'.
EXECUTE.
COMPUTE
    AchievementOrientedB=B5 + B8 + ReversedB10.
    VARIABLE LABELS AchievementOrientedB 'AO Leadership Style B'.
EXECUTE.
```
Appendix 4: Scores for Leadership Styles

The scoring can be interpreted (Northouse 2003, p. 143) in the following manner:

• Directive style: A common score is 23, scores above 28 are considered high, and scores below 18 are considered low.

• Supportive style: A common score is 28, scores above 33 are considered high, and scores below 23 are considered low.

• Participative style: A common score is 21, scores above 26 are considered high, and scores below 16 are considered low.

• Achievement-oriented style: A common score is 19, scores above 24 are considered high, and scores below 14 are considered low.

However, considering that for the purpose of the researching this paper the items in the questionnaire had to be reduced from 20 to 12, or in other words, from 5 items for each of four leadership styles to 3 items for each of four leadership style, the following formula was used to adapt the scoring:

\[ x = \frac{(a:b)^{1/c}}{c} \]

- \( x \) = new leadership style score
- \( a \) = original leadership style score
- \( b \) = number of items for measuring the original leadership style score (\( b = 5 \))
- \( c \) = number of items for measuring new leadership style score

Therefore, the scoring for the questionnaire used in the research in this paper is calculated as following:
• Directive style:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Common Score</th>
<th>High Score</th>
<th>Low Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Original Scoring</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adapted Scoring</td>
<td>(x=(23:5)\frac{1}{3}=14)</td>
<td>(x=(28:5)\frac{1}{3}=17)</td>
<td>(x=(18:5)\frac{1}{3}=8)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A common score is 14, scores above 17 are considered high, and scores below 8 are considered low.

• Supportive style:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Common Score</th>
<th>High Score</th>
<th>Low Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Original Scoring</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adapted Scoring</td>
<td>(x=(28:5)\frac{1}{3}=17)</td>
<td>(x=(33:5)\frac{1}{3}=20)</td>
<td>(x=(23:5)\frac{1}{3}=14)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A common score is 17, scores above 20 are considered high, and scores below 14 are considered low.

• Participative style:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Common Score</th>
<th>High Score</th>
<th>Low Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Original Scoring</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adapted Scoring</td>
<td>(x=(21:5)\frac{1}{3}=13)</td>
<td>(x=(26:5)\frac{1}{3}=16)</td>
<td>(x=(16:5)\frac{1}{3}=10)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A common score is 13, scores above 16 are considered high, and scores below 10 are considered low.
• Achievement-oriented style:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Common Score</th>
<th>High Score</th>
<th>Low Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Original Scoring</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adapted Scoring</td>
<td>x=(19:5):\frac{1}{3}= 11</td>
<td>x=(24:5):\frac{1}{3}= 15</td>
<td>x=(14:5):\frac{1}{3}= 8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A common score is 11, scores above 15 are considered high, and scores below 8 are considered low.
Appendix 5: Focus Group Discussion

**Day & Date:** Sunday, 24th May 2013  
**Place:** O’Donaghues, Dublin 2

**Start Time:** 14:05  
**Finish Time:** 16:00

**Number of Participants:** 4  
**Facilitator:** Silvija Delekovcan

**Cost:** €55

On Sunday, 24th May 2013 at 2:05pm the author of the research in this paper met with chefs working in Dublin’s top restaurants. The reason for meeting on Sunday was because Sunday was their day off. The place of the meeting was O’Donaghues pub in Dublin 2.

Both, place and the time of the meeting were chosen by chefs. They said two o’clock is the best because it gives them enough time to sleep after busy Saturday’s shifts. Also, they suggested meeting in O’Donaghues because it is their usual place to go for drinks on Sundays.

The author of the research in this paper arrived to O’Donaghues pub at 2pm and sat at the bar. Chefs arrived five minutes later, at 2:05pm.

There were 4 chefs. For the purpose of the research in this paper their names are kept anonymus and throughout the paper they are called Chef A, Chef B, Chef C and Chef D.

Chef A is one of the researcher’s old friends. He helped the researcher to conduct quantitative researcher through Facebook and he also helped the researcher...
to organise the focus group discussion. He has been working as a chef in a number of Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants since 2004. He started as a commis (basic) chef and worked his way up to his current position- sous-chef. Sous-chef is a second in authority in a restaurant kitchen, ranking below the head chef. Chef A is 32 years old and is originally from Dublin. The researcher met Chef A in 2011 when she worked as a waitress in one of Dublin’s gourmet restaurants.

Chef B is 34 years old Hungarian. He has been working as a chef in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants since 2006. Previous to this, he had been working as a chef in one of top gourmet restaurants in Budapest. He met Chef A in 2006 when they both worked as commis chefs in a busy top gourmet restaurant in Dublin City Centre. They have been working together for a year; however, they remained friends to this date. Chef B currently works as fish chef in one of five Michelin-starred restaurants in Dublin City Centre.

Chef C is 26 years old Australian. He is on a 12 months working holidays visa and has moved to Dublin before Christmas. He currently works as a pastry chef in the same restaurant as Chef A. He qualified in 2006 and has been working in top gourmet restaurants in Australia, France, London and Dublin.

Chef D is 30 years old Dubliner. He has been working as a chef since 2002. Currently he works as a sous-chef in the same restaurant as Chef B. Chef D has in the past working in the same restaurant as Chef A.

On their arrival the researcher welcomed chefs and thanked them for their time and their attendance. Chefs decided to sit on one of the tables in the smoking area. They ordered pint of Heineken each. The researcher offered to order some food for them, but they were not hungry.
The researcher opened a conversation by asking them if they had to work the
night before. All 4 chefs worked the previous night and finished around midnight.
They all said the night was busy, as usual. After work they went for drinks in town
with their colleagues.

Why have you become a chef?

Chef A: Passion for cooking, being a leader, creativity.

Chef B: Attracted by the environment, dynamics, every day is different.

Chef C: I get to live and work in different places around the world.

Chef D: Education- but when I finished I realised that I wanted to continue.

What do you think are the main qualities of a good chef?

Chef A: Good communication and leadership skills.

Chef B: Determination and good organisation and leadership skills.

Chef C: Teamwork and patience.

Chef D: Good timing, teamwork and leadership.

For how long have you been in your current job?

Chef A: Since 2004, so almost 10 years.

Chef B: 15 years.

Chef C: 7 years next month.

Chef D: Over 10 years.
Do you like your job?

Chef A: Yes, I do.

Chef B: Would I do it for 15 years if I didn’t like it?

Chef C: I cook while I dream. Yes, love it.

Chef D: I do like my job.

Is there anything you dislike in your job?

Chef A: Long hours.

Chef B: Same for me.

Chef C: No, I enjoy every second of it. I just love my job, that’s it.

Chef D: When other people party we have to work.

Are there opportunities to progress where you work at the moment?

Chef A: There are always opportunities to progress in this job.

Chef B: Yes, but it depends where you work.

Chef C: And how many years of experience you have. But, yes, there are opportunities.

Chef D: I agree, it depends where you work and how determined you are.

For how long do you think you will stay in your current job?

Chef A: Until the end of the summer. I am opening my own place in October.
Chef B: *I think I will stay longer where I am now. I relay like the place I am working at the moment.*

Chef C: *3 months and I am moving back home then*

Chef D: *I don’t know. Don’t have any plans moving job yet.*

a) **Questions about the industry**

With the questions from the second section, the interviewer wanted to find out more about the nature of the industry. To do so, the following questions were asked:

**How many days do you usually work?**

Chef A: *5-6 days a week.*

Chef B: *5 days but it can be more.*

Chef C: *It depends, usually 5 days.*

Chef D: *Almost every day except Sundays. I don’t work Sundays!*

**What shifts do you usually work?**

Chef A: *Splits.*

Chef B: *Yes, usually doubles.*

Chef C: *It depends, mostly mornings during the week and splits during the weekend.*

Chef D: *Doubles.*
What is the most stressful time of your working day?

Chef A: When we run out of the food during the service.

Chef B: If a waiter brings the food back with a complaint from a customer.

Chef C: Early morning.

Chef D: When orders start to come in on a busy night. The sound of the printing machine can drive me nuts.

What is the turnover in Dublin’s top gourmet restaurants?

Chef A: I’d say it is quite high.

Chef B: Definitely higher than back home in Hungary.

Chef C: We just don’t like staying in the same place for too long.

Chef D: Yes, you can’t sit for too long. Three years max in the same place.

b) Questions about head chefs’ leadership styles

With the questions from the third section, the interviewer wanted to find out more about how participants perceived the leadership styles of their head chefs. To do so, the following questions were asked:

What is your head chef like?

Chef A: She would not be the ideal head chef. I prefer when we don’t work together.

Chef B: I like my head chef, we get on really well. That’s very important because I had some bad experiences from before. A good head chef makes a difference.

Chef C: My head chef is great. I can learn so much from him. One of the best I had.
Chef D: Good and fair. Can be tough but that is what you need sometimes.

Is his/her behaviour different in times when is busy and in times when it is not?

Chef A: She is always moody. As long as there are no problems she is fine, but she can lose her temper quickly. I prefer when she is not in the kitchen.

Chef B: Very different. He is very approachable in-between the service. He can get very tough during the service.

Chef C: He is always the same. We always have something to do and you want to do it right. He is very approachable though and what I like is that he allows me to make mistakes. We are always busy so there is no difference.

Chef D: Yes, he is different. But as I said it is good. When we work we work. Better be quiet, don’t make mistakes and listen to him. However, after the service we have a great fun.

What kind of a relationship do you have with your head chef?

Chef A: Strictly Business

Chef B: Respect

Chef C: Very good. He is like my teacher.

Chef D: Good I think

What are your head chef’s qualities? What makes him/her a good head chef?

Chef A: Apart from the fact that she can be moody I think she is very good cook.

Chef B: He is great leader, fair and good in his job.
Chef C: He is a real team player and a great teacher.

Chef D: No mistakes, his dishes are made to perfection. Fair and great leader.

Is there anything you would like to change or improve in his/her behaviour?

Chef A: Improve people and communication skills.

Chef B: No

Chef C: No. I’d like to be like him.

Chef D: Sometimes he should take his job less seriously. It is only a job at the end of the day.

c) Questions about job satisfaction

Last, but not least important, the interviewer wanted to find out how satisfied were chefs in their current jobs and with their current head chefs. Questions about job satisfaction were as following:

How happy are you in your job?

Chef A: I love my job. This is my passion. However, there are things in my current job that could be changed. Fewer hours would be nice

Chef B: I really enjoy my job. I can say I am very happy. I would like to have more time off though.

Chef C: Loving it.

Chef D: I am quite happy. My colleagues are great; I love the food we serve. I only wish I had more time off. I need a holiday.
Do you feel that there is an opportunity for personal growth and development in your job?

Chef A: *In my opinion being a chef provides you with many opportunities for personal growth and development. But, as I said before, it really depends where you work. It also depends on the head chef.*

Chef B: *It does. It depends where you work and what is your head chef like.*

Chef C: *I am developing every day. There are so many opportunities. But I agree with guys. Working in a good place with a good chef makes a difference and helps you to grow and develop faster.*

Chef D: *Yes, I think if you want to develop you can. You just need to put enough effort and also, support from the head chef is very important.*

Do you think you receive enough respect and fair treatment from your head chef?

Chef A: *Not as much as I think I should. I think she respects me but it is like she does not want to show it.*

Chef B: *Yes.*

Chef C: *Yes, I do.*

Chef D: *Very fair.*

What would make you happier in your job?

Chef A: *New head chef? (laugh) More communication and more time off.*

Chef B: *Fewer hours.*
Chef C: *I don’t know to be honest. More money? (laugh) No, I am happy at the moment.*

Chef D: *I would like to get a weekend off for a change. Definitely fewer hours.*

We finished the discussion at 3:30pm. The researcher offered chefs another drink and asked them if they had few more minutes so she could go through their answers one more time to avoid any misinterpretation. Chefs agreed.

The session finished at 4pm.