

UNIVERSITY OF DERBY

Don't worry, be emotionally intelligent

**Hotel functional managers' trait emotional
intelligence and its relation to
task and contextual performance within
organisational culture in Hungary**

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Abstract

Purpose

This thesis aimed to explore Hungarian hotel functional managers' emotional intelligence traits and examined if there was a relationship between the emotional intelligence traits and the level of individual task and contextual performance. Moreover the research studied the role individual and organisational factors played in managers' emotional intelligence and performance. Additionally it identified the present dominant and the preferred organisational culture of Hungarian hotels as perceived by functional managers.

Design and methodological approach

The thesis followed a positivist research philosophy and focused on the deductive approach. Meanwhile it aimed to adopt methodological triangulation by applying both quantitative and qualitative research techniques. A questionnaire was developed to test the proposed hypotheses allowing for multiple regression and correlation analysis. On the one hand an internationally applied reliable and valid trait emotional intelligence questionnaire was adopted and validated in Hungarian. On the other hand, an individual performance measurement scale was developed based on previous research outcomes and case studies via interviews with hotel managers. Principle component analysis was applied to identify task and contextual performance items. Present and preferred organisational culture was explored taking individual and organisational variables into consideration as control variables. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to perceive which independent variables had a higher influence on the dependent variable.

Findings

A strong positive relationship was found between hotel functional managers' trait emotional intelligence and their global performance. The relationship was medium and strong even at factorial level. 'Hierarchical culture' was identified as the present dominant hotel culture, and 'clan' as the most preferred. Furthermore the hierarchy culture indicated a strong negative correlation with performance, especially within contextual performance. Considering gender female functional managers' emotionality was found to be higher than their male colleagues' while male functional managers' self-control differed significantly from their female colleagues'. It was managers' tenure rather than age that had significant influence on emotional intelligence and performance. Functional managers with higher optimism and social awareness

levels were found to complete their task performance better, while those with high empathy, happiness and adaptability were likely to accomplish better contextual performance. Within contextual performance, female managers' loyalty was found to be significantly higher than their male counterparts. Regardless of gender, functional managers with high optimism, social awareness, and happiness and empathy levels seemed to have been more loyal to their hotels.

Academic implications

The development and validation of an individual performance scale is a specific outcome of the research. This attempt was the first to examine separately individual task and contextual performance in Hungary with a reliable measurement that was developed specifically for hotel functional managers. Furthermore, the introduction of the international emotional intelligence measurement in Hungarian academic life is also a novelty of the thesis. This enables researchers to apply a valid and highly reliable measurement in future research.

Practical implications

The results of the combination of three human resources phenomena (emotional intelligence, performance and organisational culture) and the pilot case study will offer real-life implications to hotel management as how to select and train functional managers in the future. As emotional intelligence traits (among them emotionality and self-control as the most significant factors) were identified stronger determiner of performance than age or hotel category, HR managers should consider these when hiring or training employees. Besides, gender differences should be taken into consideration especially empathy, stress control and loyalty facets. Moreover individual preferred organisational culture and hotel present culture have clashed noticeably. Those working in clan and adhocracy hotel cultures and prefer to continue so demonstrated higher performance levels, especially on contextual performance. While in hierarchic organisational cultures hotel managers' performance showed a negative relationship. This tells owners and general managers that functional managers prefer and do work better in family atmospheres (clan culture) or creative, innovative and flexible (adhocracy culture) hotels than in more controlled and monitored environments (hierarchy culture).

Originality and value

The thesis developed a new performance scale measurement for the hospitality industry. Furthermore, it identified certain emotional intelligence traits that enable high task- and contextual performance. Triangulation, in the form of the combination of quantitative and qualitative research methods, is one of the strengths of the research. It is the first research of its kind in the Hungarian hospitality industry. The outcomes of the thesis can therefore act as a firm basis for a carefully developed selection, training and performance assessment process for hotels.

Personal drive

The question of what makes one person perform higher despite external circumstances and what makes one stay in an organisation and endure hardship has always intrigued me. Being a frequent guest in hotels, first involuntarily and then purposely, I began to observe how employees behave and affect each other, the business outcomes of these interactions and obviously the behaviour of guests. Knowing that there have only been a few empirical studies carried out investigating soft factors that can influence work outcomes in organisational culture (especially in Hungary) in hospitality, I deliberately decided to take the challenge and focus on these in my research. Furthermore as a lecturer and as one of the founding members of the Hungarian Association of Hotel and Restaurant Educational Board, I feel responsible for contributing both to the academic and practical knowledge with the results of this research.

Key words: *trait emotional intelligence, individual performance, organisational culture, hotel functional managers*

Dedication

This thesis work is dedicated to all of the people in my life who believe or doubt the importance of emotional intelligence, but mostly to my son, Milan, from whom I have learnt a lot about emotions.

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¹ Note: there has been a name change in 2015 from Komlósi to Kővári

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Context

Interest in the importance of soft competences in business is flourishing nowadays. Technology has become more important in business and makes competition more incisive between companies who wish to learn the secret of employing and keeping employees with not only high skills and talent but with excellent intra and interpersonal competences. It is even more critical within the service industry where attracting and, even more, retaining customers can make a business prosper or disappear. The aftermath of the recession challenges businesses to rethink their strategies and efforts to win back the trust of people who have the money to spend on leisure. Hospitality in the service sector is not an exception to this.

The major roles of (human resource) managers within the hospitality industry are to select, employ, train and retain employees with excellent skill and competences. Unquestionably the adequate selection, recruitment, and retention of employees (for example through (re)training) results in high-quality work outcomes (Akrivos et al, 2007). Ultimately however, efficient, effective, and competitive organisations require more than just experience and expertise from their employees. Some personal traits enrich not only individual, employee performance but also collective, organisational performance. Emotional intelligence, which can be defined as a competence (ability and/or traits) to understand individuals own and others' feelings and to act accordingly (Garden and Hatch, 1989), is one of the drivers of high performance. Research has confirmed the link between emotional intelligence and work outcomes: those employees who have been selected by applying emotional intelligence tests have proven to be more loyal and better performing than employees selected and recruited the 'usual' way (see, for example, Spencer Jr. and Spencer 1993; George 2000; Lopes et al. 2006). In the particular case of the hospitality sector, studies have started to emerge exploring the links between emotional intelligence and work outcomes (Langhorn 2004; Sy, Tram, and O'Hara 2006; Scott-Halsell, Blum, and Huffman 2008; Min 2012). However, thorough research examining functional managers' emotional intelligence in the hotel industry and its role in task and contextual performance within given organisational cultures is scant, both in Hungary and internationally. Consequently, the thesis aims to investigate the links between these three phenomena.

1.2 The relevance, importance and originality of the thesis

This chapter aims to provide an overview of the relevance, importance and originality of the thesis followed by the aims and objectives. Following this, the research questions, a brief methodology and the process are introduced. The chapter ends with the proposed outcomes and the contribution of the thesis.

The relevance of the research comes from the fact that tourism is a key component of the service economy. In Hungary it makes a direct contribution to the national economy of 6.5 per cent of GDP and an indirect contribution of 12.1 per cent (Hungarian Tourism Board 2015). According to the ITB *World Travel Trends Report* (2014) and the *World Travel and Tourism Council* (2015), more than 800 million people travel every year, making the tourism sector one of the leading employers and providing a job to every 12th person—in Hungary, 7.6 per cent of the working population are employed directly within the tourism sector and 12.7 per cent are employed indirectly (WTTC, 2015).

Hospitality is a leading industry within the tourism sector. In the EU alone nearly 2 per cent of the total working population are employed in the tourist accommodation industry, about four out of every five people are employed on a fulltime basis (Eurostat 2015). According to the Hungarian Central Statistical Office annual report (2012) there were 3175 commercial accommodations in Hungary². 58% of the hotels had 50 or less rooms while 13% had 100 or more. The division of hotels by function was the following: 40% wellness/spa (in English we say spa not wellness although wellness is used commonly in Europe) and/or wellness/spa and conference hotels, 35.3% city and/or grain hotels, 11,1% apartment hotels, 7.3% thermal and spa hotels and 6.3% castle hotels. Also, in Hungary, the average hotel occupancy is 49.7 per cent of the total capacity (Hungarian Central Statistical Office, 2015). However, employment in this segment fluctuates more than purely with seasonality—hotel jobs appear less stable than in the rest of the labour market (Eurostat 2015). According to István Németh, the Head of the Hungarian Spa Association (2011), guests are increasingly sophisticated, and besides quality they expect customised service. Therefore, hiring highly qualified, loyal, self-motivated employees is essential. Furthermore, hiring assertive functional managers³ who deal well with conflicts, have a high empathy level, are adaptable, loyal and perform well in stressful situations and in a given organisational culture is vital (Waal and Counter, 2009).

² <http://www.ksh.hu/docs/hun/xftp/idoszaki/jeltur/jeltur12.pdf>

³ Middle managers responsible for a department / unit and the people working in that department / unit.

Hospitality is a twenty-four hours, seven-days a week labour-intensive sector that makes interpersonal relationships challenging for employees (Brymer 1982; Ross 1995)—the working conditions are not ideal, and the levels of education and the cultural backgrounds of the workforce are diverse (Raub et al, 2006). The career ‘ladder’ is rather horizontal: within a department or to an identical or similar position in another hotel, eventually overseas. A typical career in the hotel industry—for example from back office agent to desk agent via front office manager to general manager—restricts career development to different functional management positions (Hayes and Ninemeier 2006). Alternatively, managers leave the industry, either for good or to start their own businesses (a small lodging place, for example, or a restaurant) (Carbery et al. 2003). The cultural, ethnic, and religious diversity of both guests and employees also characterises the hospitality sector and requires high levels of interpersonal skills and emotional intelligence (Testa 2004; Baum 2006). Constant high work pressures result in high incident levels of burnout⁴, and in high employee turnover (Watkin 2000; Singh and Woods 2008). As a result, the hospitality industry is characterised by labour shortages and an ongoing demand for skilled employees (Hayes and Ninemeier 2006). The previously described phenomena are also present in the Hungarian hospitality industry.

With responsibilities towards guests and subordinates, as well as towards owner(s), hotel middle/functional⁵ managers are key figures who try to undertake and balance several roles in order to satisfy this triple mandate. This requires certain personality traits and competencies within the culture of the organisation. Functional managers’ cultural values may contradict those of the organisational values, thus as task requirements are given, the job has to be accomplished (Keles and Aycan, 2011). One of the questions that inspired the thesis writing was the following: *What makes managers endure and overcome all these demands to perform well even in turbulent circumstances?*

The importance of this research emerges from the facts that there are financial setbacks of selecting inadequate candidates (those lacking in skills and experience, personality and behavioural requirements) for managerial positions and/or losing those who perform well as organisation culture clashes with personal values and preferences (Birdir, 2002; Mitki and Herstein, 2007; Davidson et al, 2010). Knowing the emotional intelligent traits that trigger high

⁴ Burnout is psychological term that refers to long-term exhaustion and dissatisfaction at work (Freudenberger, 1974).

⁵ The notion of functional manager in thesis refers to middle managers responsible for a hotel area. Hotel middle manager and functional manager used as synonymous.

performance and the organisational culture where functional managers would prefer to work in a hotel is a huge advantage both when selecting, training and retraining candidates.

1.3 The aim and objectives of the research

This empirical thesis aims to investigate Hungarian hotel functional managers' emotional intelligence and its relation to individual performance within hotel organizational culture.

The thesis focuses on emotional intelligence traits, task- and contextual performance along with perceived 'now/present' and 'preferred' organizational culture within the hospitality industry. The attempt of the study is to identify emotional intelligence traits that enable high performance. Furthermore the organizational culture where the majority of hotel functional managers work presently and the one they would prefer to work in are aimed to be classified. An intended outcome is to make recommendations for selection process and facilitate customized training to help managers become emotionally aware of certain traits that influence individual performance. Furthermore the thesis aims to pinpoint the possible difficulties within the difference of present and preferred culture and show how to manage cultural change successfully if necessary.

The objectives of the research are the following:

- to review the relevant literature regarding emotional intelligence, individual performance and organisational culture
- to investigate Hungarian hotel function managers' trait emotional intelligence to facilitate trait emotional intelligence application in selection and training processes especially in the hotel industry
- to identify key performance indicators in Hungarian hotels to develop an individual task and contextual self-report performance measurement tool for hotel managers
- to investigate the relationship between Hungarian hotel function managers' trait emotional intelligence and their task and contextual performance
- to identify present and preferred organisation culture in Hungarian hotels and its relation to functional managers' performance

1.4 Research questions, methodology and process

Considering the research aims and objectives, the following research questions are formulated:

- 1. What is the relationship between hotel function managers' trait emotional intelligence and their individual performance? Are there explicit emotional intelligence elements that are related to task and contextual performance?*
- 2. Which is the dominant present and preferred organisational culture in Hungarian hotels? Is there a relationship between organisational culture and individual performance?*
- 3. What is the effecting power of personal and organisational characteristics in these relationships?*

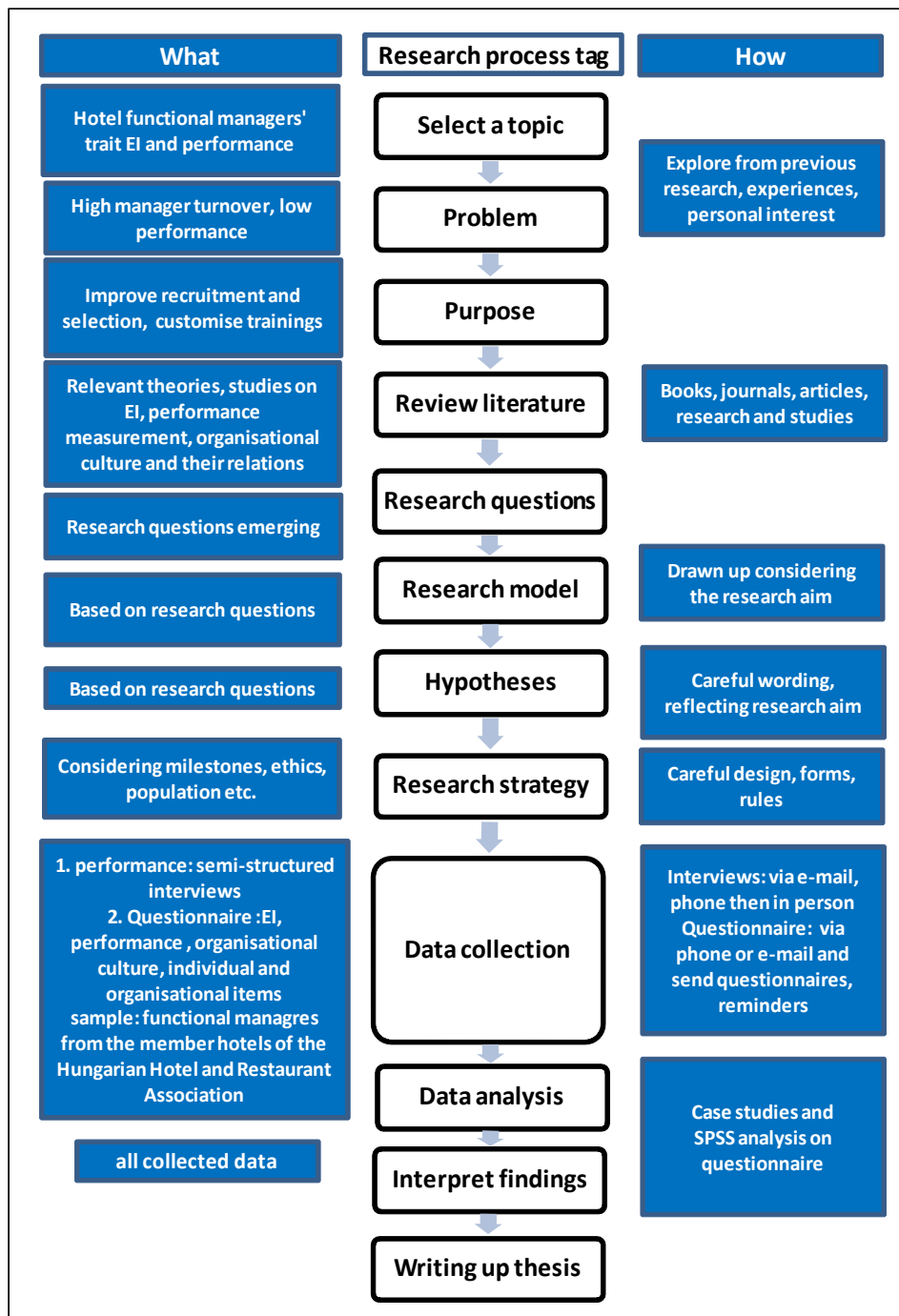
The thesis is an empirical study that applies deductive theory by forming hypotheses. Applying triangulation enables to exploit the strengths of the quantitative and qualitative approach, as it “involves the use of more than one approach in a single study to gain a broader or more complete understanding of the issue being investigated” (Veal, 2011:143). Triangulation allows the researchers to use more methodology to gain diverse information of the same topic and to analyse data in different ways (Creswell, 2008). Moreover it can attain a higher degree of reliability and validity, produce a holistic representation of the investigated issue and develop a study that is accurate and credible (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2010, Veal, 2011). Additionally triangulation can provide a more in-depth and multi-dimensional perspective of a matter if researchers pay careful attention to drawbacks. Easterby-Smith et al (1991) differentiate four types of triangulations which enable researchers to apply a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods in either individual or at all stages of their research: data triangulation, investigator triangulation, methodological triangulation and triangulation of theories.

The present thesis opts for methodological triangulation in order to provide a thorough examination of the subject matter. To test assumptions, both quantitative and qualitative methods are applied. Within the qualitative method a case study technique based on interviews with hotel managers is applied to identify performance indicators and develop a measurement for the main research section. While ANOVA, t-test-, principle component-, regression- and correlation analyses within quantitative methodology are employed to test the hypotheses exploring the relationships between emotional intelligence, organisational culture and performance in accordance with personal and organisational characteristics. Detailed

descriptions of the methodology as well as the measurements applied in the thesis are in Chapter 3.

Most research starts with the theoretical *what* questions which then aim to satisfy the answers with the methodological *how* questions via a procedure. This process design provides the theoretical and methodological framework of the thesis. Based on this framework the process of the thesis is illustrated by Figure 1.

Figure 1 Research process (own)



1.5 The proposed thesis outcomes

The assumption of the research is that hotel functional managers' emotional intelligence shows a positive relation to their task and contextual performance and that the hotel culture also plays a role in this. Differences are expected to be identified between gender, age and qualifications. Furthermore hotel influencing factors such as size, category and membership (chain and association) are also expected to play a role in individual performance and culture.

1.6 Contribution of the thesis

The thesis proposes theoretical and practical contributions. Emotional intelligence has again become a widely researched area in the 21st century. However, the studies in business and management academics rather focus on the ability based theories and measurement and only few researches approach emotional intelligence from the trait point of view (Pérez et al, 2005). Ability based theories regard emotional intelligence as an acquirable phenomenon regardless of an individual's traits, while the trait based theories consider an individual's characteristic features first before adjusting to abilities. In Hungary, academically, it is only psychology which deals with the role of emotional intelligence despite the fact that within management Human Resources urge theoretically based applicable research outcomes. Similarly, a broad scope of studies have conceptualized and measured individual performance globally. However, there are smaller numbers that differentiate, measure and compare task and contextual performance (Griffin et al, 2000; Borman, 2004). Furthermore, in Hungary no thesis works have been identified to explore hotel (functional) managers' individual performance. Much debate has been around the concept and measurement of organizational culture. To some it is a concept perceived by individuals and it is the management who creates organisational culture (Cameron and Quinn, 2011), while others regard it as an expected behavioural "cult" (Glover, 1988). Organisational culture has a history in Hungarian academic research and this thesis intends to contribute to the existing outcomes (Balogh, 2011; Bogdány, 2014; Bognár, 2013; Csepregi, 2011; Fekete, 2011; Raffai, 2014).

The present thesis intends to contribute to this knowledge by identifying emotional intelligence traits that can contribute to task and contextual performance within hotel culture. The academic contribution is the methodological triangulation approach; the theoretical contribution is the proposed research framework; and the practical contribution is to make hotel management aware of the emotional intelligence traits, present and preferred organizational culture and their relation to performance to enable development, adjustment or change in HR strategies accordingly.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter aims to overview the concepts and measurements of emotional intelligence, individual performance and organizational culture through reviewing and summarizing the relevant books, articles and research outcomes in various fields of science and practice. The second part introduces the application of these factors within the hospitality industry by placing the emphasis on hotel managers. Besides, managers' roles and holistic leadership are described in accordance with expected managerial competences. The chapter ends with an interrelation of the themes and a conclusion.

According to Veal (2011) there are five types of literature review methods:

- *inclusive bibliography* aims to identify all things published in a relevant topic and can be a stand-alone achievement without any follow up research;
- *inclusive/evaluative review* is also known as *consensus studies* when there are commentaries on the literature about one specific topic and it can include a series of reports;
- *exploratory review* is the classical type for academic purposes as it aims to study those theories and research outcomes which form the basis of the research questions and/or hypotheses;
- *instrumental review* focuses on a specific idea or methodology to tackle a managerial question;
- *content analysis* and *hermeneutics method* apply precise analysis of one or more texts and documents which at the same time is part of the research itself.

In this thesis exploratory and instrumental literature review methods are utilised. On the one hand relevant theories and previous studies are examined, critically questioned in some cases and unexplored areas are pinpointed. On the other hand applied methods, cases or ideas from practice are considered.

2.2 Emotional Intelligence

The core of this thesis is emotional intelligence. The objective of the research is, to identify the key emotional intelligence traits that characterise Hungarian hotel functional managers, and contrastingly to explore what relationship these emotional intelligence items have with

individual (task- and contextual) performance. First, the concepts of emotion and emotional intelligence are described, followed by the main theories and components (factors and facets) of emotional intelligence. The next section introduces a comparison of the different types of emotional intelligence measurements. This section is followed by an illustration of the roles gender; age and education play in emotional intelligence. Next the applicability of emotional intelligence in contemporary (holistic) leadership and individual performance is described. Some criticism of emotional intelligence studies follows this and finally the issue of whether to train or to exploit certain emotional intelligence competencies is explained.

Emotional intelligence (EI) and its relation to work outcomes and performance have been researched from different perspectives. The main reason of the popularity of emotional intelligence is due to some research results confirming that if other measures such as IQ are taken into consideration, more than 30% of job performance can be predicted while if only IQ measurements are used this figure is between 10-30% (Jensen, 1998). There is a balance between the rational and emotional of the individual and organisational elements which are adjusted to certain situations. The competencies and styles of managers are influenced by their levels of emotional intelligence: the higher their achievement on the career ladder, the more vital emotional intelligence becomes. (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003).

EI studies can be differentiated either chronologically (in the 20th and 21st centuries) by emotional intelligence approaches (EI as ability or as trait) or by disciplines (psychology, sociology, management or interdisciplinary). In the following section, the different approaches, definitions and ways of assessing of EI are presented.

2.2.1 The concept of emotion

The concept of emotion is usually described as a strong personal feeling triggered by actions and moods of others or by circumstances. Scientifically emotion consists of various components and depends on the research approaches what these components are (Fox, 2008). The term emotion comes from psychology; nonetheless the broad disciplines within this field (cognitive, social or clinical psychology) do not support the simplification of the concept. Furthermore if neuroscience (cognitive and affective) is taken into consideration the conceptualisation of emotion becomes more complex. While psychology examines emotions within the behaviour area, neuroscience focuses on the areas of the brain where emotions derive

from (Fox, 2008). There are viewpoints that the core components of emotions such as anger, fear, happiness, sadness and disgust are biologically given and culture independent (Ekman, 1992). These fundamental emotions are visible (facial expression and body language) which initiate other people to react to them unconsciously (a kind of gut-reaction which is natural) or consciously (considering the best way to react which is the base of trait emotional intelligence). In contrast, researchers (e.g. Kitayama et al, 2000) from social science argue that instead of the biologically based universal emotions, the different value systems of cultures determine emotions which are represented in the languages. As the present research is based on trait emotional intelligence it is important to regard emotions both from nurture and nature viewpoints. The key link between the two approaches is cognition: cognition influences emotions and vice-versa (Lewis, 2005).

The term emotion is generally interchangeably used for feelings, moods and affect. In order to distinguish the concept of emotion from the other terms and clear misunderstandings Davidson et al (2003) have defined six components under the discipline of affective sciences within which emotion belongs to:

- *emotion*: a rather short event of brain coordination where automatic and behavioural changes happen to respond to the external and internal occurrence judged significant by the brain;
- *feeling*: the subjective representation of emotions;
- *mood*: a pervasive affective phase which is usually lower intensity than emotion, but significantly longer in duration;
- *attitude*: relatively stable beliefs, preferences and propensities concerning people and objects;
- *affective style*: a stable inclination that influences a person in a way to perceive and respond with emotional dimension or mood to other people's and objects;
- *temperament*: affective styles appearing in the early stages of a person's life therefore it is believed to be determined by genetic factors.

Regarding the lengths of the phenomena these six components can be grouped into two elements: short and long lasting. While emotion and feelings are short events, attitude, affective style and temperament are stable elements. The only in-between phenomenon is mood with medium-intensive occurrence. Emotion is the shortest lasting event embodied by feelings

(Davidson et al, 2003). Thus close attention should be paid to how to control emotions in order to prevent inconvenient situations.

According to Scherer (2001) emotion consists of five interlinking components which each has a function. The cognitive component processes information by evaluating events and objects. The neurophysiological component is a support subsystem regulating emotions through body reactions. It is the motivational component that prepares and directs actions, while the motor expression component is responsible for communicating the emotional reactions and behaviour intentions. The subjective feeling component has the function to monitor the internal emotional state and its interaction with the environment. Although emotion seems a complex concept it can be mainly perceived as an action to inner or environmental (people, objects) happenings. These five components need to be synchronised and coordinated within a short period of time in order to be able to act. The process of coordination can consciously be influenced by the individual's intelligence. Emotion has three unique qualities according to Dolan (2002). Firstly emotions are embedded and recognisable via stereotypical behaviour patterns of non-verbal communication such as facial expressions, attitude and manner. Secondly as they are manifested in globally recognised behaviour patterns emotions are not as individually specifically incurred. It means that when someone is angry, sad or happy it is expressed in a very similar or the same way independently of people's cultures. Thirdly emotions are less sensitive and responsible to individuals' intentions than other psychological states (e.g. mood).

Although emotions seem to be universal, Izard (2007) argues that it is the emotional schema - the mental representation integrating emotional responses - which is individualised. Emotional schemata are based on mixed information including interpersonal interactions, repeated past events and diverse experiences that create a stable ground for unconscious personality and manifest in behaviour patterns. During interactions these emotional schemata are presented. If the memories and information bond strongly to language, during the emotional act the words and non-verbal elements of an individual correspond (Bucci, 1997). Being aware of the emotional schemata and adjusting it to situations and interactions requires intelligence. The scientific area which deals with this phenomenon is emotional intelligence.

2.2.2 The concept of emotional intelligence

Daniel Goleman's publication (1996) on emotional intelligence hit a sensitive but thought-provoking area that slowly but firmly has influenced even the most realistic economic societies. The human factor in business has always been present, however its extreme influence on sustainable competitive advantage was only realised when, in the late 90's research showed significant evidence between the positive relationship of emotional intelligence and performance (George, 2000; Lopes et al., 2006), customer satisfaction (Hochschild, 1983) and individual and organisational success (e.g. Zeidner et al, 2004; Furnham, 2008; Blanchard et al., 2010). However, Dulewicz and Higgs (2000) warn that the results of emotional intelligence research before the 21st century have been based on anecdotal case descriptions rather than scientific measurements. Researchers have found partners in competitive organisations whose managers realised that knowing and managing feelings is a tangible asset that must be paid attention to (Hill, 2010).

The origin of the concept of emotional intelligence perception can be traced back to Thorndike's (1920) idea of "social intelligence" by which the ability to understand and manage individuals' emotions and take sensible actions in human relations are signified. Some 30 years later Eysenck (1958:175) raised the question about whether personality can be measured. He stated that *"the answer depends on what we mean by personality, what we mean by measurement, and, indeed, one might even maintain that it depends on the meaning of the term 'can'"*. In the 90's the theory of multiple intelligences appeared and Garden and Hatch's (1989) research outcome indicated that IQ can unquestionably be separated from other intelligences. The contemporary forms of emotional intelligence only appears in the early 90's when various terms started to emerge (Payne, 1989; Goleman, 1996; Cooper and Sawaf, 1997; Petrides and Furnham, 2001; Bar-On, 2006) Undoubtedly Salovey and Mayer are the first to define emotional intelligence as *"the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action"* (Salovey and Mayer, 1990, p.189) which later is modified to *"the ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth"* (Mayer and Salovey, 1997:10). The modification is more sophisticated and future-oriented and focused on personal growth rather than merely on the identification and immediate reaction to emotions that are present-oriented.

Higgs and Dulewicz (1999) differentiate three basic but interlinking questions concerning emotional intelligence: what is emotional intelligence; can it be measured, and can it be developed? Emotional intelligence (EI) is a concept of collection that combines social, personal, and interpersonal intelligence including capabilities, competences and non-cognitive skills which influence the ability and technique to manage external (environmental) and internal (stress) circumstances (Higgs and Dulewicz, 1999). When it comes to measurement, they suggest using the term emotional quotient (EQ) which resembles the method IQ is measured by. Emotional Literacy refers to the process through which emotional intelligence is developed, although it is often used as a synonym for emotional intelligence. They conclude that emotional intelligence is “*achieving one`s goal through the ability to manage one`s own feelings and emotions, to be sensitive to, and influence other key people, and to balance one`s motives and drives with conscientious and ethical behaviour*” (Higgs and Dulewicz, 1999:20). Bar-On (2000) by combining the predecessors’ approaches uses the concept of ‘emotional-social intelligence’ as it is “*composed of a number of intrapersonal and interpersonal competencies, skills and facilitators that combine to determine effective human behaviour*” (2006:2). Emotional intelligence also bonds numerous fields of psychological science such as human cognitive abilities (brain-based skills such as problem-solving), self-regulation theory (the management of short-term desire) or the neuroscience (science study of the nervous system) of emotion (Zeidner et al, 2004).

At the turn of the 21st century, Petrides and Furnham (2001) to diminish the misconceptions of and to make a clear distinction between different theories examine the existing emotional intelligence theories and measurements. According to Pérez et al (2005) there is a clear conceptual distinction between *ability* (or cognitive-emotional ability) and *trait* (or emotional self-efficacy) emotional intelligence. The former incorporates actual emotional related cognitive abilities and is measured with maximum-performance tests, while the latter concerns emotion-related behavioural characteristics measured via self-report (Petrides, 2009). Petrides et al (2007:26) say that “*trait emotional intelligence is a distinct, compound trait located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies*” which is a collection of emotion-related self-perceptions. It represents people’s confidence of capabilities to perform various tasks and correlates negatively with IQ (Mikolajczak et al, 2007).

Trait and ability distinction are not determined by the facets (elements) but the method researchers apply to measure emotional intelligence (Petrides, 2010). Mayer et al (2000) claim

that the distinction is between ability and a mixed model (and not between ability and trait) whereby for the later they understand the approach that mixes abilities and personal traits also including situational, motivational and dispositional variables (MacCann et al, 2004). However, mixed theoreticians do not take methods of measurement into consideration to which Furnham (2001) calls attention by claiming that cognitive abilities cannot be measured successfully using self-report. In the literature one can find either dividing emotional intelligence theories according to the content (ability or mixed) or to measurement (ability and trait).

2.2.3 Theories and elements of emotional intelligence

According to Zeidner et al (2009), emotional intelligence as science is built on three pillars: theory, measurement and applications. As the present thesis is applied and written in the area of business, the focus is put on those prominent emotional intelligence theories, factors and facets that are relevant, related and researched in business and organisational environment.

Goleman (1996) compiled all his twelve years experiences on brains and emotions in his first book (*Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ*, 1996). According to Goleman (1996, 2002) emotional intelligence are competences that include traits and abilities which have two aspects: understanding individuals' own emotions, intentions, responses and behaviour patterns; and understanding others' emotions, intentions, responses and behaviour patterns. Furthermore he identifies four emotional intelligence elements that can be grouped into two phases: personal competences and social competencies. *Self-awareness* and *self-management* belong to the personal competence phase while *social awareness* and *relationship management* are two elements of social competence. Within these four emotional intelligence elements there are the facets which Goleman (2002, pp.327-332) describes as key leadership competences in the 21st century. Regarding personal competences within the factor of *self-awareness* he distinguishes three items:

- *emotional self-awareness* refers to a behaviour when an individual recognises how his/her feelings can affect them, the environment and performance;
- *accurate self-assessment* means that an individual knows his/her strengths and limitations, and is able to learn from constructive criticism,
- *self-confidence* is a behaviour pattern which exhibits one's own knowledge of abilities, qualities and undertaking judgements.

As for *self-management* there are six elements to consider:

- *self-control* is managing one's own impulsiveness and the ability to transfer the negative energy into a useful task;
- *adaptability* is adjusting to versatile environments, situations and people without losing one's control and energy;
- *optimism* is seeing the opportunities rather than the threats in the future;
- *initiation* is a sense of efficacy in a person to take hold of an opportunity to create something new;
- *achievement* is a high personal drive when the individual's invested effort in a targeted goal has a successful outcome,
- *transparency/trustworthiness* is representing one's values noticeably and, a true openness towards others' actions, beliefs and feelings.

Social-awareness factor within the social competence phase includes three facets:

- *empathy* is a quality to be able to attune various emotional signals of an individual or a group and understand others' feelings and emotional states;
- *organisational awareness* is an ability of a person to identify social networks and key relations within a corporation;
- *service competence/understanding the environment* is the aptitude to foster emotional climates among all stakeholders.

The fourth component of emotional intelligence also within social competence is *emotional management* which consists of the following facets:

- *inspiration* is the ability to initiate and articulate vision and inspire other people to follow,
- *influence* is a persuasive and engaging act to achieve individual support or build a network of alignment;
- *developing others* is a process during which an individual understands others' goals, recognising their strengths and weaknesses and knows how to support their developments;
- *change catalyst* is a person's ability to recognise the need for change, drive change and overcome the barriers,
- *conflict management* is the competence to sense different perspective of others and find a way to resolve it assertively;

- *teamwork and collaboration* ability enables individuals to create a helpful and cooperative atmosphere where members are drawn into an active and enthusiastic process for a common goal.

Emotional intelligence is regarded as a set of competences that can be learnt and transformed into different social circumstances (Goleman, 1996) such as people's workplace. Goleman et al (2013:3) state that "*great leadership works through the emotions*" and that effective managers must have an emotional leadership role.

Contemporary researchers interested in the phenomenon of emotional intelligence appear alongside Goleman. Mayer and Salovey's (1997) concept and later their detailed theory and model, the Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test, MSCEIT, (Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso, 2002) divides emotional intelligence elements into four branches: (1) the ability to identify or perceive emotions; (2) the ability to use emotions to facilitate thought; (3) the ability to understand emotions; (4) and the ability to manage one's emotions and the emotions of others. According to Mayer et al (2002) *perceiving emotions* means identifying others' emotional signals mainly on their face or in pictures. *Using emotions* factor includes individuals' abilities to apply emotions to impact cognitive processes. It means that a person is able to increase effectiveness by matching his/her emotions and moods to others. *Understanding emotions* refers to the competence of enhancing others' emotional states and the complex relationship between the feelings as well as being able to predict future emotional expressions of oneself and others'. Finally the *managing emotion* factor examines how the individual is able to maintain, repair and generate emotions appropriately in various situations which can further influence the decision making process.

Palmer and Stough (2002) have put forward a similar conceptualisation of emotional intelligence which is known as the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Model or Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT). The model has five emotional intelligence components:

- *emotional recognition and expression* is identifying one's own emotions and properly conveying one's feelings;
- *understanding others' emotions* is assimilating feelings and emotional information in reasoning and decision-making;
- *emotions direct cognitions* is identifying and comprehending others' emotions and emotions in external stimuli;

- *emotional management* is managing one's own and others constructive and adverse emotions;
- *emotional control* is controlling potentially unfavourable emotions in the workplace including anger, anxiety and frustration.

The conceptualisation of emotional intelligence by Goleman, Mayer and Salovey Palmer and Stough is built on cognition, affect and conation to work environments. These theories and models belong to the ability approach of emotional intelligence and overlap to a great extent.

The trait-based emotional intelligence theories are also referred to as mixed-model approaches due to the fact that along with some ability elements the majority of the facets are social competencies and personality traits. This stream of EI is best represented by Bar-On's (2000), Higgs and Dulewicz (2002) and Petrides (2001, 2009).

Bar-On (2000) has developed his model based on interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that explore how effectively people understand and express themselves, understand others and relate to them, and cope with daily demands. Bar-On (2000, 2006) has identified 15 facets under 5 factors after analysing the most important emotional and social competencies influencing personal performance. Within the first, *interpersonal factor* there are five elements. *Emotional self-awareness* refers to the identification and understanding of one's own feelings. *Assertiveness* is a way of expressing feeling and defending oneself without applying a destructive manner. *Self-regard* refers to someone who understands, accepts and respects him/herself. *Self-actualisation* is about realising one's potential capacities. The last item in the factor is *independence* which refers to a person who is emotionally independent, has self-control and self-directed. In the second, *interpersonal factor* there are three facets. *Empathy* is defined here as being aware and appreciating the feelings of others. *Interpersonal relationship* is when relationships are established and maintained on mutual affection. The third element, *social responsibility* refers to the cooperation and responsible taking among the social group members. The third factor is *adaptation* with three facets. *Problem solving* is defining problems and generating possible solutions. *Reality testing* refers to an ability to evaluate objective and subjective reality and find the correspondence between them. The *flexibility* facet describes someone's ability to adjust emotions and behaviour to the changing environment. There are two facets within the *stress management* factor. *Stress tolerance* is enduring hostile occurrence with a positive coping attitude. *Impulse control* occurs if one is able to resist or delay an urge feeling or to quickly act on a negative effect. Within the fifth, *general mood*

factor there are two items: *happiness* and *optimism*. The former means to enjoy life and being with others while the latter is a state of maintaining a positive attitude even during hard times.

Higgs and Dulewicz (2002) identify seven emotional intelligence components. The first factor is *self-awareness* which is defined as an ability to manage self-feelings. *Emotional resilience* refers to adaptive behaviour and a consistent performance even under high-pressure. *Motivation* is an inner trigger to work towards a short or long term goal regardless of obstacles. The phenomenon when people show sensitivity and empathy towards others is defined as *interpersonal sensitivity*. The fifth factor is *influence*, affect others to see one's viewpoint or act accordingly. Higgs and Dulewicz considered *intuitiveness* also as an emotional intelligence element, which is explained as an ability to make decisions based on logic and instincts. The seventh element is *consciousness* which is acting according to conventional ethical codes and appearing consistent in both behaviour and communication.

Petrides (2001) argues that true trait emotional intelligence theories drive from mainstream psychological research. The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) (2001, 2009) includes four factors with fifteen facets.

Well-being factor detects a person's level of positivity, happiness and fulfilment. It includes the following facets:

- *happiness* which is a present oriented pleasant emotional state;
- *optimism* is defined as a person's confidence and attitude to see the positive side of life;
- *self-esteem* refers to personal success and confidence.

The second factor is *sociability* which considers relationship building, influence in social settings and networking. The facets are:

- *emotional management* which is how one influences other people's feelings;
- *assertiveness* is defined as being honest and forthright, standing up for one's right without hurting others' feelings and rights;
- *social awareness* is the application of one's social skills and network competence.

Emotionality evaluates one's aptitude to recognise others' emotional states, express own emotions and develop and maintain close relationships with others. This factor includes four facets:

- *empathy* is acknowledging and taking in someone else perspective;
- *emotional perception* is defined as being clear and sensitive about the feelings of others;

- *emotional expression* refers to communicating one's own feelings towards others;
- *relationship* is the competence to fulfil personal interactions.

The fourth factor is *self-control* which is taking control over one's impulsiveness and coping with internal pressure and stress. It includes the following facts:

- *emotional regulation* is defined as a short, medium or long term control of one's own feelings and emotional states;
- *impulsiveness* is the likelihood level of giving in to urges;
- *stress management* is the capability to endure regular stress and pressure.

In addition to the thirteen items there are two auxiliary facets that complete the model:

- *adaptability* means one's flexibility and willingness to adapt to new situations and conditions;
- *self-motivation* refers to one's drive and endurance of a task or activity without other's supervision.

The focus in Petrides's model is on personality traits as emotions which are undoubtedly fundamental domains of personality (Stough et al, 2009).

The above theories differ to some extent; nevertheless the overlapping of emotional intelligent elements is very prominent. The reason is that although the ability and mixed emotional intelligence approaches are claimed to build on capabilities, the factors and facets inclined in some extend by the *Big Five*, the five basic domains of personalities: *openness*, *conscientiousness*, *extraversion*, *agreeableness*, and *neuroticism* (Zeidner et al, 2009). John and Srivastava (1999) describe the Big Five factors and the correlated facets as follows:

1. ***Extraversion*** factor includes *gregariousness* (sociable), *assertiveness* (forceful), *activity* (energetic), *excitement-seeking* (adventurous), *positive emotions* (enthusiastic), *warmth* (outgoing)
2. ***Agreeableness*** factor elements are *trust* (forgiving), *straightforwardness* (not demanding), *altruism* (warm), *compliance* (not stubborn), *modesty* (not show-off), *tender-mindedness* (sympathetic);
3. ***Conscientiousness*** factor contains *competence* (efficient), *order* (organized), *dutifulness* (not careless), *achievement striving* (thorough), *self-discipline* (not lazy), *deliberation* (not impulsive);

4. **Neuroticism** factor comprises the following facets: *anxiety* (tense), *angry hostility* (irritable), *depression* (not contented), *self-consciousness* (shy), *impulsiveness* (moody), *vulnerability* (not self-confident);
5. **Openness** factor consists of *ideas* (curious), *fantasy* (imaginative), *aesthetics* (artistic), *actions* (wide interests), *feelings* (excitable), and *values* (unconventional).

2.2.4 Measuring emotional intelligence

It is assumed by MacCann et al (1993) that valid and adequate emotional intelligent measurements have a variety of purposes in work life such as: help in the selection process and promotion which further influences performance, customizing education and training or coaching. Nowadays, the method for assessing emotional intelligence is highly interesting and debated (Austin et al, 2004, Petrides, 2011). The importance of measuring emotional intelligence is vital when it affects employees' selection, training and development processes not just in the hotel industry but also within the service sector.

Emotional intelligence measurements have been developed either with a firm or vague theoretical background and information on their reliability, validity and factor structure (Petrides, 2011). To create measures, researchers either developed self-report questionnaires (e.g. Schutte et al, 1998) or have evolved test items that are answered on a correct or incorrect basis (Mayer et al, 1999) assuming they all operationalized the same construct which obviously resulted in conceptual confusion and conflicts (Pérez et al, 2005) .

Petrides (2009) clearly indicates that emotional intelligence, when regarded as mental abilities cannot be measured. According to Spain et al (2000) and Watson (2000) ability cannot be objectively scored with perceptible criteria of scoring, and therefore determining the correct responses is biased. Nevertheless, researchers such as Mayer et al (2002) claim that ability tests underwent changes which have improved their validity. *Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale*, (MEIS, Mayer et al, 1999) and its developed descendant the *Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test* (MSCEIT, Mayer et al, 2002) are presently the most extensively used ability tests when recruiting or measuring employees' emotional intelligence, although factor structures and internal consistency of ability measurements still carry some queries (Legree, 1995; Pérez et al, 2005). Brody (2004:237) criticised MSCEIT heavily by claiming that Mayer and his co-researchers "*have not provided us with clear evidence that establishes a*

clear conceptual and empirical distinction between their measure and a latent trait of EI” and that there is no evidence to prove whether the test truly measures individual differences.

Another test co-developed by Mayer (Mayer and Geher, 1996) is the *Emotional Accuracy Research Scale* (EARS) which items include several life and work situations. The test reliability is dubious as it was generated by asking an individual in an interview of their experience in the given situations (Stought et al, 2009). The other situational judgement test developed by Mayer et al (1999) is the *Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale* (MEIS) consisting of stories of a fictitious person. On a 5-point Likert scale among 7 emotional feelings, each feeling needs to be checked as to whether it is present or not. The drawback is again that the situations are subjectively measured as there are good and bad extremes and stereotyped emotional intelligence categories (Petrodes, 2011). The alpha value of the Freudenthaler and Neubauer Emotional Intelligence Performance Test (FNEIPT) is very moderate (0.69) and the managing one’s own and others’ factors have relatively low correlation (0.18-0.51) with the *Big Five*.

Higgs and Dulewicz (1999), based on their research outcomes, identify three quotients with their different personal competencies: emotional intelligence (EQ), intellectual intelligence (IQ) and managerial intelligence (MQ). The description (including alpha and validity) of these and the other three presently available ability emotional intelligence tests (of which one is used with children and the other two are not known to be used in scientific research) are summarised in *Appendix 1*.

Trait emotional intelligence tests’ validity (including those that are regarded as mixed by some researchers such as Mayer et al, 2000) have not been as extensively explored and compared as the ability counterparts. Up until the present, only a few studies have investigated the validity of different trait emotional measurements. Brackett and Mayer (2003), after comparing the MSCEIT (Mayer et al 1997) ability test with two self-report trait-based measures, the *Emotional Quotient Inventory* (EQ-i) and *Self-report Emotional Intelligence Test* (SREIT), have found that the two trait tests are moderately interrelated while neither trait of the trait test has shown any correlation to the ability (MSCEIT) test.

Gardner and Qualter (2010) have studied the concurrent and incremental validity of three trait emotional intelligence tests, the *Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale* (SEIS, Schutte et al, 1998), the *Multidimensional Emotional Intelligence Assessment* (MEIA, Tett et al, 2005) and the *Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire* (TEIQue, Petrides and Furnham, 2001) and

found the TEIQue to be a superior predictor of multiple psychological criteria in all cases, suggesting that out of the three, the TEIQue, should be used by future researchers. Pérez et al (2005:126) claim that hardly any “*trait emotional intelligence measures have been developed within a clear theoretical framework and even fewer have sturdy empirical foundation*”, thus they distinguish and thoroughly examine trait emotional intelligence measurements regarding predictive validity, incremental validity, discriminant validity and factor structure which are depicted in Table 1.

According to Anastasi and Urbina (1997), for individual testing the minimum Cronbach alpha accepted for reliability is 0.80. It is clearly visible that out of 14 only 3 tests’ alphas, *EQ-I* (0.85), *SUEIT* (0.85) and *TEIQue* (0.90) are generally regarded as good, out of which TEIQue has higher convergent and discriminant validity and shows the highest correlation with the *Giant Three* (extraversion, neuroticism and psychometrics) and *Big Five* (openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) which are dimensions used to describe human personality. Furthermore TEIQue has been proved to have the highest loading with multi-level personality hierarchies and is therefore considered a substitute for general factors of personality (Pérez-González and Sanchez-Ruiz, 2014).

Most of the trait EI tests’ convergent and discriminant validity is unclear, low or moderate, again EQ-I and TEIQue present high correlation with Big Five personality domains. Regarding the structures of the tests, only *TEIQue*, *TEII*, *WLEIS*, *TMMS* have clearly distinguished factors and can provide global scores (except TMMS).

Table 1. Summary of trait and mixed emotional intelligence measures (adapted from Pérez et al, 2005)

| Measure | Authors | Alpha | Convergent/ Discriminant Validity | Structure |
|--|---|---|---|--|
| TMMS, Trait Meta Mood Scale | Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey and Palfai (1995) | 0.70–0.85 | moderate correlation with Big Five | 3 factors, but no global score |
| EQ-i, Emotional Quotient Inventory | Bar-On (1997) | Generally good (about 0.85) | moderate to high correlations with the Big Five | unclear |
| SEIS, Schutter Emotional Intelligence Scales | Schutter et al (1998) | 0.70–0.85 | medium-to-high correlations with the Big Five | unclear (3 or 4 factors?) global score |
| ECI, Emotional Competence Inventory | Boyatzis, Goleman and Hay/McBer (1999) | 0.70–0.85 for global score > 0.85 for social skills | unclear (small sample), uncorrelated with critical thinking and with analytical reasoning | unclear (4 factors?) |
| EI-IPIP, Emotional Intelligence-based IPIP-Scales | Barchard (2001) | 0.70–0.85 | unclear | unclear |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|--|--------------------------|
| EISRS, Emotional Intelligence Self-Regulation Scale | Martinez-Pons (2000) | 0.75–0.94 | unclear | unclear |
| DHEIQ, Dulewicz and Higgs Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire | Dulewicz and Higgs (2001) | Low to moderate (0.54–0.71) | unclear | unclear |
| TEIQue, Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire | Petrides (2001), Petrides, Pérez and Furnham (2003) | Generally good (about 0.90) | TEIQue can be isolated in Giant Three and Five-Factor space | 4 factors, global scores |
| SPTB, Sjöberg Personality Test Battery (EI Scale) | Sjöberg (2001) | 0.70–0.85 | moderate correlations with extraversion and neuroticism | unclear |
| TEII, Tapia Emotional Intelligence Inventory | Tapia (2001) | 0.70–0.85 | unclear | 4 factors, global scores |
| SUEIT, Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test | Palmer and Stough (2002) | Generally good (about 0.85) | moderate correlations with neuroticism (-0.41), extraversion(0.44) and openness (0.27) | unclear |
| WEIP-3, Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile (Version 3) | Jordan, Ashkanasay, Härtel and Hooper (2002) | 0.70–0.85 | small to moderate correlation with TMMS | unclear (7 factors?) |
| EIS, Emotional Intelligence Scale | Van der Zee, Schakel and Thijs (2002) | Adequate for “other ratings” (0.70–0.85) Low for self-rating (< 0.60) | low correlations with IQ, moderate to high correlation with the Big Five | unclear (3 factors?) |
| WLEIS, Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scales | Wong and Law (2002) | 0.70–0.85 | small negative correlations with IQ | 4 factors, global scores |
| LEIQ, Lioussine Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire | Lioussine (2003) | 0.70–0.85 | moderate correlations with the Big Five | unclear (7 factors?) |

Day and Carroll (2008) have examined trait- and ability-based emotional intelligence scales and conclude that both are reasonably good predictors of performance and are well-developed to apply for future research in organizational contexts. According to them trait based emotional intelligence measures are becoming more widespread in use in organisation than ability measures. The operational validity of emotional intelligence to predict workplace performance has been found to be similar for trait- and ability-based emotional intelligence measurements.

Since 2000 several emotional intelligence measurements have been developed and validated for the application of different kinds of reasons. Developing a valid emotional intelligence measuring tool can be effective in predicting numbers of effects such as psychological and

work behaviour. Nevertheless it must be noted that the weight of emotional intelligence items are not equally counted in such cases. For instance for psychosocial purposes an average empathy result can be satisfactory while for a certain job (e.g. doctors, teachers, front office managers) higher empathy levels are preferred (Mikolajczak et al, 2014). Therefore it is essential to apply emotional intelligence measurements according to the purpose as well as the target groups. This aspect has been considered when selecting the emotional intelligence measurement for this research.

2.2.5 Emotional intelligence and gender

Studies are controversial regarding gender and emotional intelligence. When the biological aspect is taken into consideration, females are believed to be more emotionally intelligent (Nolen-Hoeksema and Jackson, 2001). In the brain an emotional processing area has been detected which seems to be larger in females than in males (Baron-Cohen, 2003).

Social studies also support this proposal by indicating that women on average spend more time socialising (Nolen-Hoeksema and Jackson, 2001) and also they appear to experience positive and negative emotions more soulfully (Grewal and Salovey, 2005). On the other hand, in some studies men have been found to have higher emotional intelligence compared to women (Ahmad et al, 2009; Petrides, 2009; Khalili, 2011) or no difference between the two gender has been detected (Rahman et al, 2012).

As a consequence researchers propose to examine emotional intelligence on a factorial level to distinguish the substantial gender differences (e.g. Costa et al, 2001; Petrides, 2009; Fernández-Beroccal et al, 2012). Studies so far have revealed that men can manage stress and regulate emotions significantly better, while women have higher empathy and can understand, perceive and facilitate emotion at higher levels (Farrelly and Austin, 2007; Petrides, 2009; McIntyre, 2010). Fernández-Beroccal et al (2012) argue that age has a mediating effect while Sánchez-Núñez et al (2008) warn that culture, method and level of education, abilities and competences need to be considered when examining the gender differences in emotional intelligence.

In the thesis therefore differences between the two genders' emotional intelligence are expected on factorial levels rather than on a global stage.

2.2.6 Emotional intelligence and age

Depending on the conceptualisation (trait or ability), researchers have different views on the relationship between emotional intelligence and age. The ability approach regards emotional intelligence as standard intelligence (IQ) therefore as such it would increase with age (Mayer et al, 1999; Van Rooy et al, 2005). Sliter et al (2013) argue that emotional intelligence competencies (such as understanding and regulating emotions) can be acquired through lifetime experiences. According to them it is especially true within the service industry as employees *“have regular opportunities to practice regulating and using their emotions for performance, as well as to recognize their own emotions and the emotions of customers/clients, and to learn from their experience”* (Sliter et al, 2013:469-470). In Porter’s study (2014) leaders’ emotional intelligence have been found to correlate negatively with age. This means the older a leader gets, the lower the level of his/her emotional intelligence becomes.

The experimental study with more than 500 participants has revealed a significant relationship between age and emotional intelligence (measured with WLEIS, a trait based emotional intelligence tool, see in Table 1). The outcome of this result suggests that the older the employees are, the more likely they are to choose good emotional strategies that are adjusted to both individual and organisational aims (Sliter et al, 2013:476). Bar-On (in Derksen et al, 2002) and later Derksen et al (2002) replicated studies have also indicated that regarding global emotional intelligence the scores have shown a positive relationship to age up till 50 years old, but a decrease for the age of 65 and above. Garder and Qualter (2010) in their study found that older adults are significantly better at understanding and managing their emotions. The trait approach, on the other hand, has found no or a minimal relationship between emotional intelligence and age (Roberts et al, 2001; Petrides, 2009). The reason why emotional intelligence stays stable is that personality traits tend to remain constant across time as explained by Tsaousis and Kazi (2013).

As in this thesis trait emotional intelligence conceptualisation and measurement is applied, no or very little relationship between age and emotional intelligence is expected.

2.2.7 Emotional intelligence and qualification

According to researchers who conceptualise emotional intelligence on the basis of ability, there is a positive relationship between age and emotional intelligence as it has previously been referred to. Mayer et al (1999; 2002) state that emotional intelligence increases with age as

one's cognitive and social skills develop. Devi's (2012) study after examining university undergraduates and graduates has found a statistically significant strong correlation between emotional intelligence and academic qualifications. Emotionality and impulsiveness have been found the most essential factors which hold university students back from better achievement in their academic performance (Devi, 2012). Pastor (2014) has found that the higher the leaders' emotional intelligence levels are the higher their education level and theoretical knowledge stand. On the contrary, Mishra and Mohapatra (2010) have not found any significant relationship between levels of qualifications and emotional intelligence in their studies carried out with executives from different public and private organisations. The research outcome however has revealed a significantly positive relationship between emotional intelligence and work experience. Those with over 15 years tenure have shown higher emotional intelligence globally and emotional maturity at factorial levels (Mishra and Mohapatra, 2010). It means that executive managers with more than 15-year work experience have been found to be more flexible and adaptive to situations as well as being self-aware of their and their employees' emotions in order to develop them (2010:55). This implies that emotional intelligence improves with work experience rather than level of qualification.

Undoubtedly age, education and experience factors overlap as they present at the same time and influence each other in one's life. Yet with research methodology these factors can be examined separately and the present thesis aims to do that.

2.2.8 Emotional intelligence application to leadership and management: The holistic leader

Although the thesis focus is not on leadership, in order to understand the role of emotional intelligence it is relevant to have a brief overview of the concept of leadership, and define the concepts of leader and manager.

There have been thousands of attempts to define the term leadership and what makes leadership effective. The concept may seem too complex to put into one sentence, however it does not seem to have experienced much conceptualisation changes from Moore's first attempt: leadership is "*the ability to impress the will of the leader on those led and induce obedience, respect, loyalty and cooperation*" (Moore, 1927:124 in Rost, 1991:47). Notwithstanding the different leadership approaches have shaped and altered this basic concept. As a contradiction Vroom and Jago (2007) put more emphasis on motivating rather than commanding. This idea

develops further in Kim and Mauborgne's work (1992) by stating that a good leader needs to find and extract the exclusive strengths from all individuals in an organisation. In this thesis functional managers' leadership behaviour is the combination of two definitions according to which leadership is "*a process of motivating people to work together collaboratively to accomplish great things*" (Vroom and Jago, 2007) and an "*ability to create an organization that draws out the unique strengths of every member*" (Kim and Mauborgne, 1992:123).

Although the leadership concept wording is somewhat the same, the twenty-first century leadership process focus appears to shift to consider new aspects. While the 'old' (previous centuries) paradigm was characterised by stability, control, competition, uniformity, self-centredness and hero-like leaders, the key aspects of the 'new' (twenty-first century) paradigm are change and crisis management, empowerment, collaboration, diversity, higher ethical purpose and a humble, post-heroic leader figure (Daft, 2011:8). According to Boyatzis (2009) the three different clusters that distinguish the most effective leaders are *emotional competencies* (self-awareness, adaptability, positive outlook, achievement orientation and emotional self-control), *social intelligence* (conflict management, team work, organizational awareness, influence, inspirational leadership, coaching and mentoring and empathy) and *cognitive competencies* (such as systems thinking and pattern recognition). In order to be a great leader today one needs to apprehend the market, the new technology but first and foremost the people within the organisation (Boyatzis, 2009; Blanchard et al, 2010). Creating and maintaining a balance between the vibrant and developing individuals and a constantly changing organisation is required from an effective leader (Higgs and Dulewicz, 1999; Quatro et al., 2007). Furthermore effective leadership has a spiritual dimension which is rather intrinsic. Again in their work Boyatzis et al (2013) call the attention to 21st century 'resonant' leaders who are "in tune or in sync with others around" them (Boyatzis et al, 2013:19). While extrinsic leadership is determined by other people, intrinsic leadership is our self-leadership with vision and self-awareness (Gill, 2011; Taggart, 2011). These kinds of leaders are the ones who can inspire and strengthen inner motivation in the people working with them (Boyatzis et al, 2013).

According to Kotter (1990), one of the well-established leadership theorists, leaders create the vision and at the top they transform the organisation by applying changes. Managers on the other hand implement the vision, create and maintain the organisation by producing order, time- and budget directives, consistency and predictability. Higgs and Dulewicz (1999) go beyond the idea of the concept that leaders have the vision and managers put it into practice and urge

effective leadership which would be a combination of vision and action by quoting the founder of the Virgin Group, Richard Branson: *“Vision without action is a dream. Action without a vision is a nightmare”* (1999:89).

To lead people effectively is now a common phenomenon (DuBrin, 2013). Higgs and Dulewicz believe (1999 and 2003) that effective leadership depends on leaders' personality and behaviour. A leader with a positive vision inspires people to share and realise the vision. In their recent research, Boyatzis and his colleagues (2012) have examined how the brain neuron reacts in people who recalled moments with their leaders. The experiment with fMRI (= functional magnetic resonance which measures brain activity by detecting associated changes in blood flow) imaging states that on the one hand people experience with resonant leaders activated neurons which play a key role in emotion spreading, while on the other hand the experience with dissonant leaders indicated that free flow of emotion between people was in some way obstructed. Resonant leaders are more likely to activate the positive emotions among the people around them (Boyatzis and Soler, 2012). They conclude that as emotions are transmittable when leaders apply social and emotional intelligence, people around them change to a positive emotional mind-set which then further influences other people (Boyatzis and Soler, 2012:29). These research outcomes imply that resonant functional managers can trigger positive behaviour in their colleagues which can further influence individual performance. The importance of the thesis lies in identifying the emotional intelligence traits that characterise resonant hotel functional managers.

Finkelstein (2003), after the investigation of 51 companies for six years based on nearly 200 interviews, summarizes in six points the reasons that cause leaders' failure (2003:1): (1) chose not to cope with innovation and change; (2) misreading the competition; (3) brilliantly fulfilling the wrong vision; (4) clung to an inaccurate view of reality; (5) ignored vital information; (6) identified too closely with the company (no objectivity). Gill (2011) adds another two areas of flaws: weak or no strategy at all and organisational culture. Leaders are not gods but people, therefore naturally there are 'good' and 'bad' leaders. Kellerman (2007) identifies the following characteristics of bad leadership: corrupt, rigid, incompetent, insular, callous, intemperate and evil any of which can also be coupled with bad followership. She then suggests twelve ways leaders can be ethical and effective (2007:17): limiting the tenure of leaders; sharing the power; not believing in their own hype; getting and staying real; compensating for weakness by choosing experts to rely on; being and staying balanced; focusing and remembering the mission; staying healthy; developing personal support systems; being creative; knowing and

controlling appetite for power, money and success; and being reflective. In the hospitality industry a similar complex study is needed.

Dalton (2010) argues that there is a wide range of literature on defining and debating the differences and similarities between managing and leading. Although, both include duties that require 'hard' and 'soft' abilities and competences, the mutual part of managing and leading is the transition area that means a fragile intangible balance (Sadler-Smith, 2006). As external challenges influence businesses, most of these distinct characteristics move into the overlapping area and leadership qualities are required from managers. Brotherton (1999) also argues that in the past what managers' roles involved may have misunderstood and states that top-down leading is over. Future management needs leadership skills and behavioural patterns (Vroom and Jago, 2007).

The 21st century theory and practice is far from emphasising the difference between leaders and managers, it is rather about turning every manager into a kind of holistic self-leader Quatro et al, 2007) who will inspire and motivate the individuals working with him in a team (Best, 2011). Without enthusiastic followers one can be a manager but not a leader. In order to create an effective leadership atmosphere managers should (Taggart, 2011:45-47) create and nurture a learning environment and be among and care for the followers. Furthermore managers who lead should stay away from organisational manipulation by developing an ability to distinguish fiction from fact and be patient during organisational culture change. It is their responsibility to link training and learning needs to develop job performance. During feedback managers ought to be truthful and respect and value employees' contributions. Popper adds (2004:118) that to be able to inspire and influence are the core phenomena triggered by inner emotive power. Self-development should take place in parallel with organisational development within a learning organisation as Senge suggests (2006).

According to Larkin (2009:50) "*leadership means genuinely seeing your employees as stakeholders in your hotel and acting in a way that reflects that belief*". Managers are effective leaders if they achieve the target results by addressing the *what, how* and *who* questions (Larkin, 2009).

Gehrels (2007) indicates that managers have a high value system and driving power. Among the core values the following traits, abilities and competencies have been defined as vital for hotel employees: optimism, enthusiasm, people-oriented, stimulating a team of people, pride

in work, high motivation, striving for perfection, loyalty, curiosity, highly disciplined, passion for the profession and enjoying the work. Not being aware of the personality traits and values of a good manager can lead to either the risk of appointing, training and supporting someone who does not seem suitable and cannot perform in the expected manner or to prevent an individual from successful 'customised' career development (Akrivos et al, 2007). According to Dalton (2010) managers' career success is influenced by being a master of multi-skilling: thinking skills, political skills, technical/professional skills, social and interpersonal skills, emotional understanding and self-awareness. Wilson (1998) states that for career development a manager needs to be a workaholic, innovative, aware of and informed about the organisational policies and dynamics. Furthermore they can negotiate effectively, especially with fiscal authorities, and have the characteristics of being committed and dynamic.

There are recent studies which argue that emotional intelligence is one of the key competences in 21st century holistic leadership. Holistic leadership is *'a value-based approach to producing optimal outcomes through the collaborative development of all participants in the process, at all levels of functional performance'* (Best, 2011:7). Emotional intelligence provides alternatives to leading people through mutual respect. Nowadays employees do not accept the authoritarian style often adopted by leaders following historical models of leadership as they have far more options and choices (Reldan and Nadler, 2011) It is relevant to put emotional intelligence into the context of present leadership approaches since at the turn of the 21st century a new charismatic leader style has emerged influenced by political, economic and social impacts (e.g. 9/11 or the great recession of 2007). The charismatic leadership effectiveness was questioned when a longitudinal (10 years) study based on Fortune 500 companies CEOs in the USA found no relationship between CEOs perceived charisma and organisational performance regardless of the certainty of the market situation. The *'dark side'* of charismatic leadership already appears in the 1990`s (Conger, 1990), and in 2005 the term *toxic leader* immerges describing those who *'first charm but then manipulate, mistreat, undermine, and ultimately leave their followers worse off than they found them'* (Lipman-Blumen, 2005:3). Two forms of charismatic leaders are distinguished in the post-heroic leadership approach: the *personalised charismatic* and *socialised charismatic* leadership. The formal is manipulative, narcissistic and calculative to build positive images, while the later emphasises social goals and emotional intelligence authentically that all stakeholders can benefit from. Also a socialised charismatic leader is self-confident, pro-social and caring with a pro-active future orientation, in which

openness, curiosity and flexibility are important characteristics. It implies that the twentieth century heroic leader figure is replaced by a twenty-first century post-heroic human and emotionally intelligent leader. One of the directions is the post-heroic leadership paradigm which can be defined as a competency-based, adaptive, ethical and feminine-thinking, emotionally intelligence and cultural approach. The similar features within the post-heroic approaches are:

- flat hierarchies
- decentralisation
- people training and development focus
- collective responsibility awareness
- fostering interactions
- suitable mainly for complex environments

Among others the main post-heroic approaches to leadership at present are: (process) *philosophical approach, servant, complex adaptive, relational, shared, engaging, authentic, system thinking* and *six sigma*. The scope of the chapter does not intend to explain all theories but highlights that which is the most up-to-date and relevant in relation to emotional intelligence. This approach is the *holistic leadership*.

Contemporary organisational climates demand a more complex approach that takes diverse influencing factors into consideration to redefine and expand the field of leadership. Holistic leadership is a recapitulation of the antecedent leadership theories - especially transformational, servant and authentic. Leadership is a living organism where one leads from the heart, mind and soul applying a systematic approach that provides sustainable transformation between the individual, the team and organisational levels. Based on previous theories and interdisciplinary approaches towards leadership a holistic leadership framework has been proposed called the ACES model (Quatro et al, 2007:429). The ACES model stands for *analytical, conceptual, emotional* and *spiritual* - considering a leader as a whole person using his/her mind, body, heart and soul. Leadership skills and behavioural patterns with examples of the model are illustrated in Table 2.

The ACES domains are classified into three categories in order to distinguish their importance and suggest the most applicable in a given environment. Within a *classroom context*

(undergraduate and graduate business programmes) an analytical domain is important for developing effective leadership while in a *job context* the key development setting should focus on the conceptual and emotional domains. *Organisational context* is on a macro level taking culture, core values, vision and human resource strategies into consideration. Therefore besides the conceptual domain, the elements of emotional and spiritual leadership domain must have significant applicability. Naturally an excellent leader disposes of all domains to a high level.

**Table 2. Leadership skills and behaviour examples of the ACES model
(adapted from Quatro et al, 2007:429)**

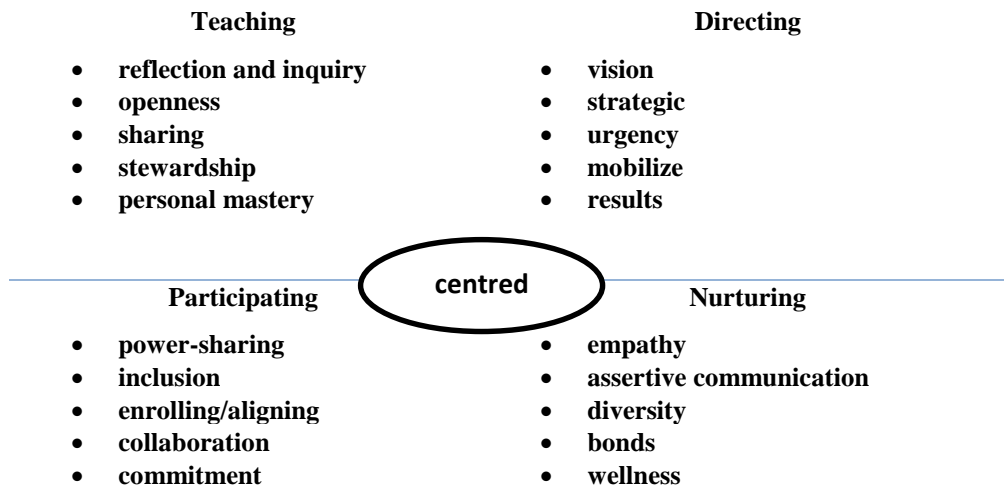
| Leadership domain | Key skills | Representative behavioural example |
|-------------------|---|--|
| Analytical | quantitative analysis logical reasoning decisiveness | calculating a break-even point developing a decision tree choosing one alternative over another |
| Conceptual | qualitative analysis creativity curiosity | weighting and balancing the needs of multiple stakeholders groups developing a new product facilitating a brainstorming session |
| Emotional | persuasive communication empathic understanding self-monitoring | aligning employers around the vision actively listening to an employee grievance avoiding unnecessary confrontation with customer or employee |
| Spiritual | self-reflection integrity meditative thinking | self-assessing a poor decision or behaviour assessing personal/organisational value congruence deeply considering the environmental impact of a new production process |

Taggart's *holistic leadership framework (2011)* also consists of four principle components however, the ideas of *teaching, directing, participating* and *nurturing* used by a *balanced and centred individual* regards only the job context with practising managers and leaders. Table 3 summarises the elements of these four components of holistic leadership. The nurturing quadrant of the framework pinpoints emotional intelligence elements such as empathy, assertive communication, wellness (that is well-being) and bonds (that is relationship) which are considered vital managerial competences.

A manager is usually an appointed person while leadership has to be earned. The 21st century theory and practice is far from emphasising the difference between leaders and managers, it is rather about turning every manager into a kind of holistic self-leader who will inspire and motivate the individuals working with him in a team (department, on a project etc.). Without enthusiastic followers one can be a manager but not a leader.

To inspire and influence are the core phenomena triggered by inner emotive power. A leader's self-development should take place parallel to organisational development within a learning organisation.

Table 3. Taggart's holistic leadership framework (adapted from Taggart, 2011: 25-44)



Pastor's research (2014) has found that professional performance of leadership and emotional intelligence positively and significantly correlate. Those leaders who are aware and are able to control their emotions seem to address problems more effectively and would consider various alternatives during decision-making. Moreover the research has revealed that the higher the emotional intelligence of the leader, the higher the professional performance of the subordinate presents. This suggests that team cooperation also becomes more effective with an emotional intelligence leader which cascades into organisational culture and financial outcomes. High emotionally intelligence leaders work better under pressure and adopt change quicker.

Prati et al (2003) study supports these result outcomes stating that a leader acts as a motivator towards collective action, and facilitates supportive relationships among team members. Matthew and Gupta (2015) empirical research has revealed that the higher the managers' understanding of emotions stands the more effective their inspiration is within the team of employees. Furthermore empathy, identifying, understanding and managing own and others emotions as well as intrinsic motivation has indicated strong relationships with the managers' and leaders' ability to create shared vision and to build effective relationships with employees.

2.2.9 Criticism of emotional intelligence studies

Most of the research outcomes have revealed that emotional intelligence is a competitive advantage both in personal- and working life and has a positive relationship with performance. There are however scholars who question and/or criticise the idea of emotional intelligence. The majority of criticisms are concerned with conceptualisation (Qualter et al, 2007) and measurements (Zeidner et al, 2004). Qualter et al (2007) have compared and contrasted different studies dealing with the development and validation of emotional intelligence and found that both trait-based and ability-based concepts and measurements have pitfalls. Trait emotional intelligence has been accused of overlapping with certain personality traits and therefore it is just like a personality trait theory revival (Bowman et al, 2001). Mayer and Cobb (2001) also argue that optimism, motivation and happiness have nothing to do with intelligence. They are right about these points as most of the research outcomes indicate that emotional intelligence and IQ do not demonstrate any relationship (e.g. Roberts et al, 2001, Derksen et al, 2002; Brackett et al., 2003). On the other hand, ability-based emotional intelligence is criticised as it overlaps the concept and measurement of IQ therefore its construct validity is questionable (Matthews et al, 2002). Considering these criticisms, it is positive in the case of trait emotional intelligence conceptualisation and measurement as clearly IQ and EQ are different, while in the case of ability it is not clear what ability emotional intelligence tests really measure (Ciarrochi et al, 2000). Ciarrochi et al (2000), based on their research outcome, have revealed that although emotional intelligence relates to individuals' ability to manage moods, it is IQ which has shown a relationship to mood prevention. They conclude that emotional intelligence is vital, but IQ is also important in understanding how emotions are processed.

It seems that ability researchers challenge trait studies and vice-versa. Thus it is important for the sake of the thesis to consistently conceptualise emotional intelligence and apply valid measurements in order to carry out credible research and be able to draw conclusions from the analyses.

2.2.10 Can emotional intelligence be developed and trained?

Research should not be carried out just for the sake of the results, but needs to consider the contribution to knowledge and the way it can be integrated into practice. Consequently it is vital to explore, in the light of the research outcomes, what the possible ways are for experts in hospitality or/and HR to act accordingly.

There have been several research studies investigating whether emotional intelligence can be acquired through training to improve performance. Goleman (1998) firmly distinguishes emotional intelligence from IQ and states that “*unlike IQ, which changes little after our teen years, emotional intelligence seems to be largely learned, and it continues to develop as we go through life and learn from our experiences—our competence in it can keep growing*” (1998:7). He uses maturity as a synonym for emotional intelligence. Goleman (1998b) himself declares that emotional intelligence increases with age; however he quickly adds that there is also the nature and nurture dilemma to be considered. Certain genetic components of emotional intelligence are determined by the brain, but with appropriately designed training methods, emotional intelligence can be developed. With incorrect and quick training negative effects rather than positive emotional intelligence development occurs (Goleman, 1998b). Goleman, Higgs and Dulewicz (1999) are also among the first to formally deal with this question. They have clustered the seven elements in their emotional intelligence model into two categories: to *develop* or to *exploit*. Motivation and intuitiveness, the drivers of emotional intelligence and also the constrainer elements that are conscientiousness and emotional resilience are suggested to be deeply exploited. Then to limit future problems, coping strategies are advised to be developed which allow individuals to behave differently. Regarding the enabler elements such as interpersonal sensitivity, influence and self-awareness, coaching and training can help to change and develop these areas. The emotional intelligence development framework suggests following a step-by-step process: (1) identify individuals’ need for development; (2) establish clear development goals; (3) establish priorities, develop an action plan; (4) implement the actions and monitor and review. As a control for each step “*checking with others*” is a must (Higgs and Dulewicz, 1999:66-67). Goleman (1998b) emphasises that the training should not be short (e.g. at least for half a year) and it needs to start with breaking the bad behavioural habits and establishing new ones. Then he suggests three major steps for successful emotional intelligence training outcomes: motivation, extended practice and feedback. Jensen et al (2007) also warn that there is little evidence that emotional intelligence can be taught directly. However they are convinced that a well-developed and prepared long-term program can be effective which, at the same time improves other areas (e.g. social competences) if the emotional intelligence measurement before and after is valid and culturally unbiased (Jensen et al, 2007).

McEnroe et al (2010) have collected and analysed these different kinds of training, the duration time, results and limitations. According to them, adequate and efficient training would be

carefully designed (objective meets outcome), appropriate in length (more than a couple of days) but most importantly focus on emotional intelligence and not related knowledge, skills and abilities. The training investigated by McEnrue et al have varied and most published reports “do not provide any quantitative data at all to support the results described” (McEnrue et al, 2010: 16). They recommend that future research should examine characteristics that foster emotional intelligence development such as: trainees, the nature of the job, organisation, industry and features of the business environment and organisational culture. Most of the 12 training programs/sessions examined in their study do not observe each of the previously mentioned areas. McEnrue et al (2010) however, do not define clearly what they mean by emotional intelligence, whether they opt to support trait or ability track. The training they have summarised regarded and used all three types of emotional intelligence: trait, ability and mixed, but one should be aware that while abilities can be improved more easily (Mayer et al 1997), traits according to psychologists, change slowly (Petrides, 2009). Clarke (2010) has applied the MSCEIT ability model to investigate English project managers emotional intelligence. Six months after a 2-day training their EI abilities were examined. He has claimed that general abilities can be developed, but the results only come later. The study shows that the managers’ *emphatic abilities, teamwork and conflict management* developed significantly after 6 months. Slaski and Cartwright (2003) have used Bar-On EQ-i and the Dulewicz and Higgs Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (EIQ) mixed model to measure 60 retail managers’ EI development. Managers have been tested before and after a 4-day training and the results have indicated that there is a positive outcome concerning stress-control, and improving well-being. Undoubtedly emotional intelligence development equals whole personal development with one’s willingness to undertake a sustainable developmental process instead of a ‘quick fix’ training (Higgs and Dulewicz, 1999:79).

Position-required behaviours can be learnt, but if it is not in the traits ‘playing-a-role’ attitude can lead to frustration and burnout (Stough, 2009). Those who are emotionally intelligent can recognize their own emotions and express them to others, recognize and understand the emotions of others, use emotions with reason, regulate and manage their own and others’ emotions and can control strong emotional states (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997). Culture also creates social and emotional bonds between people through verbal communication where emotional intelligence supports the processing of social and emotional information (Barbey et al (2012). Therefore training should aim to help people realise their traits and aid in career development as early as possible. Gore (1995) indicates that training is task and context specific

and while junior managers have more task-related weaknesses (e.g. knowledge, key decision in their role) middle and executive managers have rather context-specific difficulties (e.g. personal conflict). What training can do is to help them understand their emotions and personality to be able to understand others. Naturally it should not only be a one week's intensive guidance program, but rather customised, individual coaching (Grant, 2007) which according to Greene and Grant (2003) is like a "therapy" combining counselling, consulting, training and mentoring and lead by an experienced psychologist and/or professional coach (Boyce et al, 2010). To personalise coaching, training and mentoring one must be aware of the nature of emotional intelligence as well. In the case of training and learning, the cognitive difference – the way an individual perceives, processes, interprets and uses information (Daft, 2011) – between trainees should be considered. The split brain approach, also known as left-brain (associated with logical thinking and linear problem solving) and the right-brain (associated with intuitiveness and creative problem solving) approach has further been developed by Herrmann (1996). In his whole brain model he conceptualises four quadrants (Daft, 2011:104-106):

1. QA deals with logical thinking, being rational and realistic. These types of people need data they analyse and are interested in logical procedure. Leaders of this type tend to be directive, task-focused and favour facts over opinions.
2. QB is associated with planner behaviour, people of this type like to do things in time and neatly. QB leaders are conservative and rule-followers rather than risk-takers.
3. QC deals with emotions and interpersonal relationships, people of this type like being with and helping others and are very sensitive. QC leaders are empathetic and trusting, they are people-oriented who emphasise employee training and development.
4. QD is associated with imaginativeness and synthesising different concepts. These people take risks even if it means breaking the rules, enjoy experimenting and playfulness. QD leaders are risk takers, flexible with employees and do not mind change and new experiences.

People who are emotionally aware of their positive traits will opt for a position which is satisfying and in which they can perform well or learn how to be better (if the job is worth it) in their present or future position (Martin et al, 2008). Nowadays, as there is an enormous business interest in EI tests and the market is full of commercialised tests, companies should select and apply the one which has a strong scientific background. A trait emotional

measurement such as the TEIQue is a reliable measurement that can explore individuals' personality traits and the relationship between work outcomes and positive and or negative traits.

2.2.11 Emotional intelligence relationship to managers' individual performance

According to Lipman-Blumen (2005) there are two features that influence the long-term outstanding performance of a leader: *strong belief in the company being the best* and *personal humility*. In the following section the most influential personal humility factor, emotional intelligence and its relation to work-related performance is described through relevant studies.

The impact of emotional intelligence is a key influence on business success (Kaufmann et al, 2009). Managers are key figures, whose leadership style should rather be coaching, involving, empowering and supportive (Blanchard, 2010). If a manager does not behave and act accordingly, 'a spanner is thrown into the works' and the high-outcome is dubious. Goleman et al (2002) also refer to effective managers as leaders who coach and rather mentor to create a secure atmosphere for employees in order to "*spread their wings, trying out new styles and strengths*" (2002, p.212). Furthermore they are convinced that as managers work with their employees in teams, emotional intelligence is a key element for performance outcomes. Goleman (2002) indicates that managers with an emotionally intelligent leadership style motivate and challenge team members to be effective and accomplish high-performance, influence interaction, build trust in team members and encourage them to achieve the organisational vision.

Investigating the relationship between emotional intelligence and work related performance started in the early 80's when in the manufacturing industry several research works were carried out to examine the non-financial human factors to work outcomes. The first studies did not investigate emotional intelligence as such but rather personality traits. The focus is rather on the relationship between stress, optimism and financial outcomes such as productivity (Boyatzis, 1982; Lusch, 1990, Seligman, 1990). With the appearance of the emotional intelligence concept by Salovey and Mayer, (1990) studies rather concentrate and investigate a more complex area of personality. Such an example is Spencer's and Spencer's (1993) experimental study which investigates the difference between L'Oréal sales agents who have been either selected in the "usual" way or on the basis of certain emotional intelligence

competences. The results show that those selected on the basis of emotional intelligence have sold more and generated 63% more turnover during the first year than the others selected in the “usual” way. McClellan’s (1999) and Goleman’s (1998) research have similar results. Goleman’s (1998) study goes further to find that those employees hired on the basis of EI are 90% more likely to finish the training required for their job. Spencer et al (1997) in a later research identify 6 emotional competencies (300 top executives from 50 international companies were examined) that distinguish star managers from average and these are: *influence, team leadership, organisational awareness, self-confidence, achievement driven attitude and leadership style*. The criticism of this research lies in conceptualisation and measurement, as these studies apply a mixed method where within the competences abilities, skills and traits are combined.

In the 21st century, besides investigating the relationship between EI and work outcomes, empirical studies methodological bases have come forward. It has begun to be important over time, which test is applied and researchers have tried out their own developed tests to collect data for validation: Spencer (in Goleman, 2001) has applied the Emotional Intelligence Competencies (ECI), Dulewicz and Higgs (2004) the Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (EIQ), Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005), Kerr et al (2006), Carmeli et al (2006) the Schutter Emotional Intelligence Scales (SEIS), Groves et al (2008) the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) and Sánchez-Ruiz et al (2010) the Trait Emotional Intelligence (TEIQue). This research and others (e.g. Ashkanasy and Dasborough, 2003) have studied managers and university students (future managers) and have found that in both generations EI levels show a relationship between individual and organisational performance. Higgs and Dulewicz (1999) in their research have found that regarding performance advancement 36% is due to emotional intelligence, IQ contributed by 27% and managerial intelligence by 16% and the 21% remaining influencing factors included organisational culture, technical skill, special knowledge and those managerial competencies that may only be essential within the workplace but not in everyday life. Wolf et al (2002) in their research indicate that *empathy* is related to selection for leadership positions within self-aware teams, which might indicate that team members’ emotional intelligence levels also influence decision-making. Other important concepts they have found that are accountable for performance are *self-management, creativity, positive personality* and the *ability to develop cohesive and supportive relationships* with people. George (2000) states that emotional intelligence is a key factor both in private life where this ability enables individuals to be socially effective and at

work where emotionally intelligent managers have effective social interactions with co-workers and customers which affect performance.

Managing people is an emotional process (Hochschild, 1983), so managers should recognise employees' emotional states and for efficient performance intervene accordingly. After studying 117 public-service executive managers to investigate the relationship between effective performance and personality ability based emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence, Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) have found that managers with excellent business performance have higher emotional intelligence and bear specific characteristics, such as *high openness*; furthermore they can *manage emotions better*. Schutte et al (2000-2001) have identified that those individuals who scored *low on frustration and helplessness* within emotional intelligence are better able to perform cognitive tasks. On the other hand Kappagoda's (2012) research shows that while three emotional intelligence factors *self-management, social-awareness and relationship management* significantly correlated with both task and contextual performance, only *self-awareness* is found to have a strong relationship with contextual performance. Rajah et al (2011) indicate the positive influence of emotionally intelligent managers on their team. The manager-team members' positive relationship has been found to relate positively to task performance and especially on creative tasks.

2.2.12 Summary and conclusion

The aim of the emotional intelligence literature review has been to explore the concepts, measurements and previous studies in order to learn and compare these results with the objective of the thesis and develop this research accordingly.

Emotion is a factor of affective science referring to a short event that the brain coordinates. When these events prolong they create subjective feelings which can then cascade to mood, attitude, affective style and temperament. Emotion intelligence is a phenomenon that can consciously motivate an individual to prevent or enable a direct action triggered by emotions. What helps people to recognise emotions and feelings are the culturally independent behavioural patterns. Although these patterns are universal each person has an emotional schema which is built on individual experiences embedded in memories and attached by feelings. Therefore one has to be cautious when interpreting unknown people's reactions to certain events. Although the common behaviour patterns allow us to recognise and react generally, once we know someone's emotional schemata it is easier to understand his/her

behaviour. Researchers have identified different facets within emotional intelligence which have been thoroughly described in this part above. These items may overlap and can be divided into two categories: dealing with self-emotions (intrapersonal) and with others' emotions (interpersonal). The word 'dealing' refers to both perceiving and reacting to the occurrences. Moreover the various emotional intelligence facets derive from the five basic domains of personality; openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism. Academics consider three approaches when conceptualising the term emotional intelligence. The ability approach states that people use information to monitor and manage their emotions with acquired competences. On the other hand, the trait approach declares that traits are lower levels of the personality hierarchy which is very complex. While the mixed approach believes that emotional intelligence is a mixture of intrapersonal and interpersonal competencies that determine the behaviour of mankind. Emotional intelligence measuring scales can be categorised into two groups: ability and trait. Ability tests measure emotional intelligence similarly to IQ, which compares results to universally agreed levels. On the other hand, trait tests are self-administrated and the results are analysed and interpreted by experts.

Several emotional intelligence measuring scales have been introduced most of whose validation is questionable. EQ-I (0.85), SUEIT (0.85) and TEIQue have been regarded as the most reliable scales. Studies still debate whether there is a gender difference within global emotional intelligence; however, several research works have indicated factorial differences. Women possess higher empathy levels while men are better at stress management. Social- and stress management, empathy and relationship skills have been found as the most important competences in relationship with task and contextual performance. Considering age and qualifications studies have been controversial: some suggest that emotional intelligence increases with age and the level of education while others have found no or only small evidence. There are debates about whether emotional intelligence is trainable. Certain emotional items (e.g. empathy) are suggested to be exploited while others (e.g. stress-control) are thought to be trained and developed. There has been some criticism of emotional intelligence. On the one hand the existence as a separate researchable area is questioned, and on the other hand the conceptualisation and measurement of emotional intelligence are crabbed. Less negative criticism has been found concerning trait emotional intelligence as it can be clearly separated from IQ. This however is not the case with the ability approach because personality traits, skills and abilities are mixed. Therefore it is difficult to distinguish the IQ and EQ element which makes measuring more problematic. Furthermore during selection and training processes it

would be vital to know if a characteristics lies within a person or it is a learnt behaviour skill as personality takes longer to develop and is less resilient to change. Although IQ is an important contributor to performance, emotional intelligence has been acknowledged as the most significant soft factor that influences people's achievements in the workplace.

The 21st century managers need to be holistic leaders. This means that besides analytic and conceptual skills managers need to have or acquire emotional and spiritual competences. It is not enough to have the four basic managerial processes (planning, organising, directing and controlling), managers need a nurturing role which requires them to be emotionally intelligent. Leadership style are known to change and likely to adjust to business, social and organisational environments and depend on the nature of the industry (production or service). Nonetheless emotionally intelligent managers focus on recognising their own and their colleagues' emotional schemata in order to achieve positive outcomes regardless of the environment.

The literature view has indicated that emotional intelligence is a relatively 'new' phenomenon with much current research available. It has been established by the literature review that although the concept of emotional intelligence seems complex there are two approaches that researchers can follow: trait or ability. It is clearly evident that 'ability' focuses on a work-related behavioural approach whilst 'trait-based' takes the whole person (traits and social competences) into consideration. I would argue with Mayer et al (1999) and Chen and Choi (2008) that situative behaviour can be learnt and displayed at the workplace through short trainings. If certain traits (e.g. emotional perception) are not within a person this can cause stress levels to rise which further influences performance outcome. Nevertheless I do support the views of Higgs and Dulewicz (1999) and Jensen et al (2007) who state that certain emotional intelligence factors can be developed but there are traits which can only be exploited. The literature review has also revealed that although the two emotional intelligence approaches overlap in some conceptualisation aspects, they apply different measurements. Considering this, the thesis intends to apply the TEIQue as the most reliable and valid tool to explore the relationship with performance (Pérez et al, 2005; Petrides, 2009; Gardner and Qualter, 2010).

In the literature review the three influencing factors, gender, age and qualification, have been examined in relation to emotional intelligence and the studies are somewhat contradictory. Regarding gender it would be appropriate to incorporate dissimilarities in the field of emotional intelligence due to the lack of studies which have found differences between females' and males' emotional intelligence on factorial rather than global level (e.g. Costa et al, 2001;

Petrides, 2009; Fernández-Beroccal et al, 2012). There have been few research studies considering age. Scholars who have applied ability emotional intelligence detected significant positive correlation up to the age of 50, which then changed to negative above age 65. Meanwhile trait-based approach studies have found weak or no relations between emotional intelligence and age. These studies mostly examined global emotional intelligence level that would not provide the level of sophistication required by managers, HR and trainers to suggest at what age training emotional intelligence might be appropriate. Moreover there are certain emotional intelligence traits (e.g. emotional regulation, empathy) which can improve with age. Finally there are only few studies (mainly carried out with university students) examining the link between emotional intelligence and qualification and the results are conflicting. Pastor's (2014) recent study indicated positive relationship between managers' emotional intelligence and qualification levels. However it is not clear to differentiate the simultaneous influence of qualification and lengths of work experience. Therefore I propose to exam separately these two factors in relation to emotional intelligence in order to have a clearer view.

The studies focusing on managers have shown convincingly that the level of emotional intelligence can influence not just their performance but the positive reactions and work outcomes of stakeholders (e.g. employees, guests other co-workers) (George, 2000). Emotional management, relationship management and low frustration have been identified as the most important personal traits within managers in relation to excellent task and contextual performance (Schutte et al, 2001; Rajah et al, 2011; Kappagoda, 2012). However there is a gap in the literature examining exactly which emotional intelligence elements show positive (and significant) relation to individual task- and which to contextual performance.

2.3 Individual Performance

This section focuses on individual performance. The thesis will put the focus on individual performance as to determine which emotional intelligence traits and to what extent relate to hotel managers' performance. The previous section has already introduced particular emotional intelligence elements that have been identified as relating to and influencing individual performance. This section puts the emphasis on how to conceptualise and measure individual performance. One of the objectives of the thesis is to distinguish task and contextual performance elements in order to develop the hypotheses of the thesis and the measuring tool. Therefore in the following part the versatile concepts of individual performance are introduced through different approaches. Then the process and framework of performance management

and measurements are briefly described. On the one hand attention is given to critical success factors and key performance indicator theories, and on the other hand to research outcomes and the differentiation of managers' task- and contextual performance. This section ends with a summary and conclusion.

2.3.1 The concept of individual performance

Performance and its related concepts can be defined in many ways, but regarding performance in business and human resources management, the roots reach back to the 19th century when Frederick Taylor's "scientific management" idea suggested that human activities could be measured, analysed and controlled through the activities and tasks carried out by the workers. If tasks are reduced to small units, it is possible to standardise them. This gives the basis of measuring the actual performance against the prescribed and standardised rates (Kaplan, 1990).

Many authors agree that when conceptualizing performance one has to differentiate between a(n) *action/behavioural aspect* and an *outcome aspect* of performance (e.g. Campbell, 1990; Roe, 1999; Poór, 2009; Armstrong and Baron, 2011). The action/behavioural aspect refers to what an individual does in the work situation while the outcome aspect considers the judgemental and evaluative processes. Only actions which can be scaled and measured are considered to be the basis of a performance assessment system (Halachmi, 2005).

Performance involves measuring individuals' actual performance against their objectives and responsibilities (Neale, 1991) and measuring the efficiency and effectiveness of an activity. Efficiency is corresponding to the organisational aims and customers' demands, whilst effectiveness is the utilisation of resources to reach set aims (Neely et al, 1995, Walters, 1995). According to Ingram (1996) performance refers either to successful outcomes or the way business is conducted; however, managers must take both approaches into consideration. In addition, performance is also the supply of goods and services with employees' actions where the results are rated by the customers. Gallwey (1974) states that performance is, simply put, the opportunities minus the obstacles (where the opportunities can only be realised if internal and external conditions are favourable).

Aguinis (2009) takes on Gallwey's ideas and argues that individual performance is not what employees create or the results of their work, but about what employees do and their behaviour. He determines performance to be a multiplicative relation of *declarative knowledge* (facts,

principles and goals), *procedural knowledge* (cognitive-, psychomotor-, physical- and interpersonal skills) and *motivation* (choice to perform, level of effort and persistence of effort). Aguinis reflects Boyatzis' (1982) idea on effective performance. Boyatzis (1982) identifies 3 interlinked elements: *individual competencies*, *job demand* and *organisational environment* (culture). They both agree that job-required declarative knowledge (task performance) and individual competences (contextual performance) are vital.

Biswas and Varma (2007) also assume that though employees' *in-role performances* (workers action to fulfil job requirements, which is again task performance) and *extra-role performances* (activities that are not included in the formal job description, which is again contextual performance) are both important, the latter is hardly ever rewarded and evaluated. Their path model indicates that an individual's perception of the psychological climate influences both organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction, and the level of organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction have a significant positive effect on the employee's performance.

Stiffer (2006: 16-24) goes further and identifies 5 individual performance approaches and describes the related elements with which they can be measured. *Employee performance management* refers to a process which puts the focus on employees' behaviour and efforts in their activities that can lead to organisational success. It measures objectives and progress against each worker, based on feedback and coaching, reviews and ratings. Gartner (2004) explains the main characteristics of employee performance management by adjusting individual employees' goals and objective settings to organisational goals, and where employees are mentored towards higher performance. The second of the five approaches is *enterprise employee performance management* which focuses on employees' goal setting, evaluation and personal development planning which enables the organisation to develop individuals' competencies quickly to meet new strategic objectives. The *employee relationship management approach* claims to offer a solution to enhance employees' performance through organisational flexibility to reduce expenses and create sustainable values. While *workforce performance management* focuses on understanding, optimising and aligning workers with the organisation by putting the focus on enterprise-wide learning- and incentive compensation management. It encompasses the interrelationships among the processes of individual performance management. And finally *human capital management* claims and believes that if the right person is put into the right position by developing and retaining this highly talented

workforce for a long term it would enable sustainable organisational success. This again links back to Aguinis' (2009) and Boyatzi's (1982) differentiation on identifying, considering and measuring task and contextual performance separately within individual performance.

The previous approaches have much in common as all emphasise the importance of the harmonisation of individual and organisational goals, the key competencies, behavioural patterns, talent, development, training, reward system, performance analysis, feedback and continuous support. Performance management is a complex and delicate strategy where a cross-department perspective is needed.

Hutchinson et al (2002) argue that there is a strong relationship between business performance, job satisfaction, employee commitment and motivation. They have developed *The Bath People and Performance Model* which, based on ability, motivation and opportunity to participate, shows how employee attitudes, discretionary behaviour and performance outcome are linked. The key elements are degree of job challenges and level of teamwork where the front-line (functional) manager plays a vital mediating role by appreciating contextual performance and encouraging subordinates to "practice" putting their positive emotions into their work (Hutchinson et al., 2002). Purcell and Hutchinson, (2007) after examining six organisations, claim that good management behaviour and HR practices highly influence employees. Although functional managers have no direct control of some financial outcomes (e.g. pricing) and their jobs are rather standardised, they always have the ability to manage the employees (Hutchinson et al., 2002). Therefore (functional) managers' people/soft skill and traits are vital in cooperating with subordinates to achieve high performance.

As it has been implied previously, individual performance obviously cannot be examined in a vacuum as employees interact daily with each other, either in person or via technological devices. Most of them work in groups or teams where individuals' interactions also have an influence on performance. Furthermore cross-team cooperation is indispensable as it has been identified by McCann and Aldersea (1997). The Margerison-McCann Types of Work Wheel (1997) identifies 9 factors that influence team-performance: advising, innovating, promoting, developing, organising, producing, inspecting and maintaining. Linking is the ninth factor which is placed in the middle as this feature is shared with the other 8 functions.

The results of Savelsbergh et al's (2010) empirical study reveals that team members, team leaders and supervisors equally name team leadership as the most influential factor in team-

performance. Functional managers as team leaders play a pivotal role in making the relationship between employees and the organisation work in motivating and empowering employees to respond to the challenges required. In creating and maintaining trusted relationships with employees, managers are moving from supervisors and controllers to coaches and facilitators (Armstrong, 2005).

2.3.2 Task and contextual performance

Performance is a multi-dimensional concept. To understand individual performance, we need to understand this multidimensional aspect of performance out of which two types are prominent: the *task* and *contextual* dimensions (Borman et al, 2001).

This performance approach can be traced back to Fox's (1974) categorisation of work roles. Task performance refers to an individual's proficiency with which they perform activities that contribute to the organization's 'technical core'. This contribution can be both direct (e.g., in the case of production workers), or indirect (e.g., in the case of managers). Contextual performance refers to activities which do not contribute to the technical core but which support the organizational, social, and psychological environment in which organizational goals are pursued. Contextual performance includes not only behaviours such as helping co-workers or being a reliable member of the organization, but also making suggestions about how to improve work procedures (Sonnentag, 2002).

Fox (1974) distinguishes between the task range role which considers tasks that can vary from specific to defuse, and discretionary content which describes the behaviour needed for specified and dispersed jobs. In recent years, researchers have paid attention to specific aspects of task performance. Innovation and customer-oriented behaviour become increasingly important as organizations put greater emphasis on customer service (O'Fallon and Rutherford, 2011). All jobs contain both task and contextual performance elements, but discretionary factors fall within the individual and cannot be controlled externally as self-control is in charge. It implies that for certain positions, such as for the functional manager post, people with a good command of self-control within emotional intelligence need to be selected (Chen and Choi, 2008).

Borman (2004) warns that task and contextual behaviour need to be regarded separately as although individuals can accomplish high results in their tasks while their contextual performance is under the required level. The research by Griffin et al (2000) also demonstrates that task and contextual performance can be distinguished. Furthermore, they claim that if

individuals understand the situation where they can connect to and benefit from contextual behaviour it would contribute to unit and organisational effectiveness. The two concepts can also be separated empirically (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). According to Campbell (1990) there are five factors which refer to task performance:

- job-specific task proficiency
- non-job-specific task proficiency
- written and oral communication proficiency
- supervision, management (in the case of a supervisory or leadership position)
- administration.

Each of these factors comprises a number of sub factors which may vary between different jobs. Keeping deadlines can be one facet of job specific tasks. Non-job specific task skills include things that indirectly influence task performance such as appearance or language knowledge. As for written and oral communication proficiency assertiveness and negotiation facets can be examples. In supervisory position managerial competencies include facets such as allocating resources and decision making. Administration factors of task performance include for instance keeping records and creating statistics of production or service activities.

The different approaches and key ideas regarding task and contextual performance are summarised in Table 4.

Table 4. Main characteristics of task and contextual performance
(based on Borman and Motowidlo, 1993, Motowidlo and Scotter, 1994, Fisher and Härtel, 2004; Aguinis, 2009)

| Task performance | Contextual performance |
|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • activities that transform raw materials into goods and services • activities that help distributing finished products, services planning • activities that help planning, coordinating, supervising • activities that enable organisations to function effectively and efficiently • following organisational rules and procedures | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • persisting with enthusiasm and exerting extra effort to complete task successfully (e.g. being punctual) • volunteering to carry out tasks that are not part of their formally set job (e.g. making constructive suggestions) • helping and cooperating others • endorsing, supporting and defending organisational objectives (e.g. organisational loyalty) |

Motowidlo et al (1997), Arvey and Murphy, (1998) agree that while task performance is primarily influenced by abilities and skills, it is the personality traits which determine contextual performance. Other major differences between the two performance approaches

show that task performance varies across jobs and is likely to be role prescribed whereas contextual performance is quite similar across jobs and is not likely to be role prescribed (Aguinis, 2009). Besides task performance is more prescribed and constitutes in-role behaviour, whereas contextual performance is more discretionary and extra-role. Additionally Organ (1997) names 5 dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour (defined by Organ as an individual behaviour that is not directly or explicitly recognised in an organisation) as contextual performance indicators which are widely acknowledged and used. *Altruism (1)* is the tendency of employees to help co-workers within the organisation. *Courtesy (2)* refers to the way of treating other co-workers with respect and preventing problem occurrence. *Sportsmanship (3)* is a way of sustaining a positive attitude by not complaining about insignificant issues. *Civic virtue (4)* is employees' interest and response to organisational strategic life while *conscientiousness (5)* refers to employees' compliance to organisational rules and requirements and their dedication to the job. Among these indicators *altruism* and supervisor-subordinate *relationship* have been found to be the top two key values among (hospital) managers by Chen and Choi (2008). Courtesy and sportsmanship are vital in the service industry for overcoming stress, and conscientiousness as a personality trait is an added value of an employee from which management can benefit. As behaviour also depends on personal characteristics, emotional intelligence traits would play a vital role in contextual performance.

One however needs to be aware that individual performance is not stable over time. Individual performance changes as a result of learning and initially increases with time spent in a specific job (Sonnentag, 2002). Murphy (1989) differentiated between a *transition* and a *maintenance stage* in order to identify the processes underlying changes of job performance. The transition stage is when a person is new in a job and the tasks are novel. The maintenance stage occurs when the knowledge and skills needed to perform the job are learned and task accomplishment becomes automatic. While in the transition phase cognitive abilities are highly relevant, during the maintenance stage cognitive ability becomes less important and other dispositional factors such as motivation and values increasingly gain focus.

Performance changes over time and varies among individuals. There is empirical evidence that individuals differ with respect to patterns of intra-individual, which means there is no uniform pattern of performance development over time. Additionally, there is short-term variability in performance which is due to changes in an individual's psycho-physiological state, including processing capacity across time (Kahneman, 2011). Among the reasons there are long working

hours, disturbances to everyday rhythm, exposure to stress that result in fatigue or in a decrease in activity. Interestingly these states have not been found to be the main reasons for performance decrease (Van der Linden et al, 2001). Individuals are able to compensate for exhaustion either by switching to different strategies or by consciously applying their emotional intelligent knowledge (Pastor, 2014). Therefore to manage and measure individual performance it is suggested that task elements be standardised while contextual facets should be customised.

2.3.3 Managing and measuring individual performance

The origin of performance management is diverse as different management techniques and measurements have developed independently (Stiffler, 2006). Two distinguishable roots can be identified: *financial* (especially management accounting) and *personnel* (now HR). The financial segment includes measuring and controlling the financial performance of the organisation focusing mainly on improving manufacturing and service efficiency while the HR segment is concerned with managing employees' performance (Armstrong and Baron, 1998).

Performance management as a term in HR was first used in the 1990's, but there was confusion about its meaning and about whether it refers to the appraisal process, performance-related pay or training and development (Armstrong and Baron, 2011). Today the concept still has different meanings (Stiffler, 2006) varying from the way one measures the outcomes of performance (e.g. balance score-card, six sigma, performance prism) or to the components that influence performance (e.g. performance appraisal, training, competency management). Armstrong and Baron, (2011) agree with Auginis (2009) (2011: 2) who defines performance management as "*a continuous process of identifying, measuring and developing the performance of individuals and teams and aligning performance with the strategic goals of the organisation*". Performance management supports business strategies by setting organisational objectives at an individual level in the phases of career development and training (Neale, 1991).

In the 21st century, managing performance is more complex as organisations perceive intangible assets (e.g. customer relations, brands, organisational flexibility and research) as key sources of competitive advantage (Armstrong and Baron, 2011). Sumlin (in Auginis, 2009) determines 5 major organisational outcomes that are influenced by performance management: financial performance, productivity, product and service quality, customer satisfaction and employee job satisfaction. According to Armstrong (2005:286) the following new perspectives on individuals in relation to business performance must be considered:

- people's view about the way they are managed, their trust in management and their willingness to work with colleagues to raise the collective performance of the organization that employs them;
- people's contributions to shaping and delivering strategies which go beyond those that are adequate today;
- the people assets which are available to the business, particularly the diversity of knowledge, skill, and experience based on a workforce that is continually updated by learning.

Armstrong (2005) goes further, declaring that as intangible assets become more vital in business success, highly customised quality products and services are required from customers who demand a knowledgeable, flexible, innovative and high performing workforce. Suliman's and Al-Shaikh's (2007) research additionally reveal the positive relationship between employees' high levels of emotional intelligence and their readiness to create and innovate.

Performance activities do not take place separately but it is a continuous process with the integration of the involved parties including planning, monitoring, measuring, reviewing, assessing, rating, documenting and improving performance (Poór, 2009; Armstrong and Baron, 2011). By implementing a proper performance management system, employees' motivation to perform better can be improved, self-esteem can develop, self-development is encouraged, job definition and administrative action are clear and fair, organisational goals are described clearly, managers can gain more insight into subordinates and finally commitment and intention to stay can be enhanced (Neale, 1991; Thomas and Bretz, 1994, Clark, 2011). On the other hand, an inadequate performance management system cannot just be described with the opposite of the previous characteristics, but needs to include such segments as damaged employee relationships, wasted time, money and human resources which all lead to burnout and job dissatisfaction (Stough, 2009).

Practice shows that organisations have realised the importance of performance management as the results of the CIPD survey reveals (Armstrong and Baron, 2011): out of the 506 organisations, 87% operate formal performance management. However, line managers' (61%) and subordinates' (37%) view of the importance of performance management systems, lag behind senior managers' and CEO's opinions (74%). One of the reasons, according to Aguinis (2009), can be the missing link or the one way (usually top-down) direction among organisations of unit strategic plans, job descriptions and individual and team performance.

Another explanation can be the different approaches and implementation of the two schemes (Table 5): *procedurally oriented and process oriented* (Neale, 1991). The procedurally oriented approach is a formal, centralised and standardized system focusing on tasks and linked to salary which is more appealing to senior management and presents financial performance. The process oriented scheme, on the other hand, focuses on the individual and team and their behaviours in a given context which is closer to HR performance approach. As the nature of the service industry is rather flexible, performance management should shift towards a more process oriented scheme. Though the more complex the structure of an organisation is, the more procedural elements the performance system would include. These schemes resemble and connect to the concept of task and contextual performance.

Table 5. Procedurally and process oriented schemes (adopted Neale, 1991)

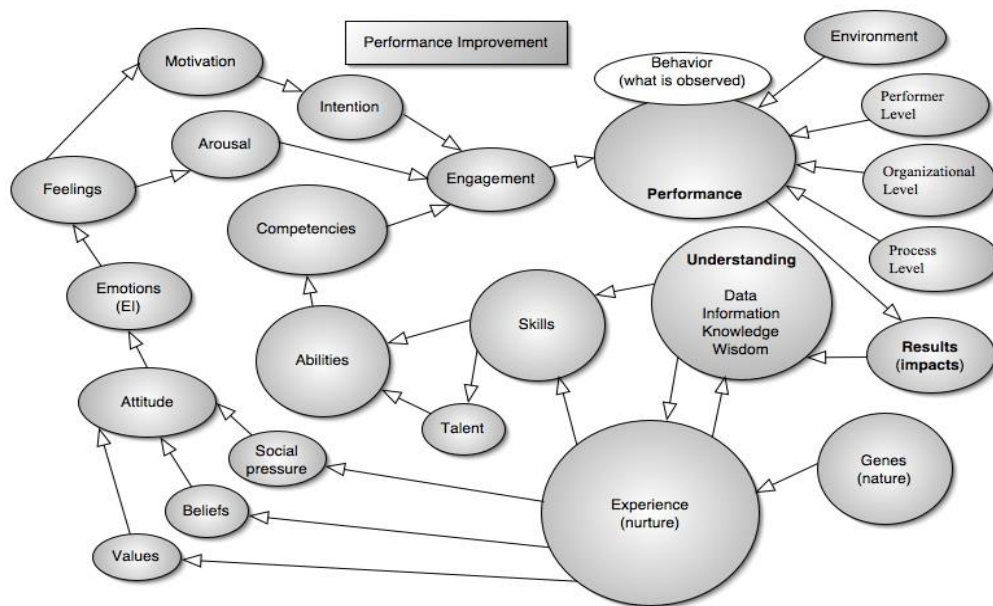
| Procedurally oriented | Process oriented |
|--|---|
| Oriented towards centralised decision making | Oriented towards local communication |
| Task- and performance-oriented | Person- and development-oriented |
| Highly structured appraisal documentation | Minimum of documentation |
| Formal link with salary review | Separate from salary review |
| Formal link with management development system | Development <i>per se</i> , but not formally linked to system |

Philpot and Sheppard (1992) and later Armstrong and Ward (2005:7) identify similar key factors which contribute to thriving performance management. Among others, they emphasise the role of culture and people management capabilities. Waal and Counter (2009:377) also call the attention to these two elements and identify the following major problems as to why managers are reluctant to implement performance management systems: (1) no performance management culture; (2) lack of management commitment; (3) resistance among employees or (4) too many key performance indicators are determined.

Clark, by reflecting on Thackara's (2005) book, argues that the way Taylor regarded performance management is over, one shall go beyond the annual performance review and examine people's daily development. He names four human facets of performance management that can influence employees to concentrate on operational and technical tasks better: *learning, reframing, flowing and viscosity*. Clark's Performance Typology Map (2011) in Figure 2 summarises thoroughly the factors influencing work performance. Some of these factors include emotional intelligence which triggers feelings, motivation, intention and engagement to complete a task. Clark (2011) does not define emotional intelligence but accepts

and relies on the three different perspectives. According to this, emotional intelligence firstly has a *biological aspect* in which intelligent decisions are made by emotions. Secondly, there is a *symbolic aspect* which refers to the ability to express one's own emotions and identify others' emotions. Thirdly the *knowledge aspect* when one is able to manage his/her emotions.

Figure 2. Clark's Performance Typology Map Source: Donald Clark (2011, used with permission from <http://www.nwlink.com/~donclark/leadership/pm.html>)



These items very much resemble Armstrong and Ward's (2005) findings which also reflect the present case of the Hungarian hospitality performance management where on the one hand the manager roles and attitudes are emphasised, and on the other hand the fact that performance management tends to be about the process and administration rather than about personal development (Györfi, 2009).

Measuring individual performance is one way of performance management (Halachmi, 2005). Measuring is important for knowing where an organisation starts and how it operates presently and where it is heading (Armstrong and Baron, 2011). According to Furnham (1996) the problems of measuring individual performance depends on lack of competence of how it should be done. Adams (2005) goes further and states that managers are too scared to give negative or corrective feedback to those they like.

Grote (1996) differentiates three individual performance measuring approaches. The first is the *trait approach* that considers the positive relationship between cognitive abilities and personalities and work-related behaviours. The advantage of the trait performance measure is

that personality is not likely to change quickly. This suggests that with a thorough recruitment and selection process, the employee with the most suitable traits can be selected and retained. This approach suggests that applying a valid trait based measurement can help with finding the best employee for the required position. The second is the *behaviour approach* which is based on how employees do their jobs and disregard traits. Aguinis (2009) claims that this approach should be used when the link between behaviours and outcomes is not evident. For example when there is distance result or when employees cannot control the unfavourable outcomes. The third is the *result approach* which is a bottom-line comprehension focusing only on employees' results regardless of their traits and behaviours. As it is considered cost-effective and takes less time to measure than the previous two most of the organisations in the production industry apply this measurement. There are circumstances when using the results approach is appropriate such as when employees' skills and knowledge are required for a job; when there is a particular time-frame involved (which is somewhat in connection with the behaviour approach); when results show steady long term development, and when there are several methods of doing the job properly (Aguinis, 2009). O'Neill (2007) reasons that although employees' performances are influenced by the organisational context, job requirements and other people's behaviour, undoubtedly the roots lie in individuals' traits. All three approaches have advantages and disadvantages, therefore a good mixture of the three should be applied when individual performance is measured.

In order to measure the differentiated job-requirement elements (hard factors) and the expected behaviour and personality patterns (soft factors), performance needs to be regarded and tested according to task-related and contextual- related aspects. It is essential that these aspects are identified and measuring indicators are adjusted accordingly.

2.3.4 Critical Success Factors (CSFs) and Key Performance Indicators (KPIs)

As the thesis focuses on measuring functional managers' individual performance in the (Hungarian) hotel industry, it is vital to know what and how to measure performance. Although numerous methods can be applied in this work, the emphasis is put on critical success factors (CSF) and key performance indicators (KPI). The reason is three fold:

- most performance measurements start with identifying the daily activities and strategic objectives (CSF) that are to be measured (KPI) (Permanter, 2010);

- CSF and KPI are industry and/or organisational specific (Dickinson et al, 1984; Brotherton and Shaw, 1996; O'Neill, 2007), therefore they are adjustable to the examined area (here hospitality);
- in hospitality CSF and KPI are extensively applied methods (explained later on in this part of the literature review).

To identify what should really be measured within individual performance and where to start when developing a performance management system, the organisation must start to identify its critical success factors and key performance indicators (Rockart, 1979).

Critical success factors (CSFs) are one of the earliest methods developed by Rockhart (1986) from Daniel's (1961) concept of "success factors". CSF can be defined as the source of the success (Rockart, 1979; Permanter, 2010). The benefits of applying CSFs for managers are defined by Rockart, (1979). The process helps the manager to determine those factors on which he or she should focus management attention. It also helps in ensuring that those significant factors receive careful and continuous management scrutiny. Furthermore CSFs process forces the manager to develop good measures for those factors and to seek reports on each of the measures. Additionally the identification of CSF allows a clear definition of the amount of information that must be collected, and limits the costly collection of more data than is necessary.

Dickinson et al (1984) state that CSFs greatly depend on companies' internal and external operating environments. Internal CSF elements derive from particular characteristics of organisational structure, culture products, people and processes which reflect those company's specific competencies and capabilities that are important for competitive advantages (Brotherton and Shaw, 1996).

Key performance indicators (KPIs) are sets of performance measures that are claimed to be vital for the desire of present and future organisational and individual outcomes (Baker, 1995; Permanter, 2010) and linked to core products/services. KPIs help employees to clarify objectives, set goals and targets, focus on key processes for potential improvement, identifying problem areas, measuring success in their action, recognising and celebrating achievement (Meng and Minouge, 2011). Collin (in Chan and Chan, 2004) advises considering that only limited, manageable numbers of KPIs which are working-area specific, simple to collect and measure, accepted and understood by everyone in the organisation be used. O'Neill's (2007:67) opinion identically claims that KPIs and CSFs are different depending on the organisation, but

must reflect organisational goals, be key to organisational success and do not change the way it is defined and measured. Measuring KPIs falls into two groups: first is an objective measurement in which respective values are calculated by mathematical formulation and the other is based on personal judgement and opinion (Yang et al, 2010). Valins and Slater (1996) reflect on the difficulty of measuring subjective elements of KPIs. Therefore it is essential to identify CSFs according to the organisational strategy and develop KPIs accordingly. Hinks and McNay (1999) argue that while there might yet be drawbacks, KPIs provide an excellent foundation for starting from and developing objective metrics.

Permanter (2010), after analysing over 3000 public and private organisations, defines seven characteristics of KPIs (2010:6): (1) KPIs are non-financially measured; (2) KPIs are measured on a regular basis; (3) the CEO or senior managers measure KPIs; (4) KPIs indicate the actions required from employees; (5) the measured KPIs are tied back to the team leader/functional manager whose responsibility it is to act accordingly; (6) KPIs have an impact on CSFs (e.g. which requires amending); (7) KPIs trigger suitable actions. KPIs are appropriate methods for use in the thesis as it focuses on individuals' performance measurements whereby the above mentioned seven characteristics are considered vital.

Harris and Mongiello (2001) warn that CSFs and KPIs are sometimes used as synonymous but the two terms are quite distinguishable. The main differences can be summarised in the following ways:

- CSFs are a cause while KPIs are the effect;
- CSFs are rather general while KPIs are organisationally specific;
- CSFs are more qualitative while KPIs are quantitative;
- CSFs can change but KPIs are rather fixed as they are measured regularly.

2.3.5 Summary and Conclusion

The aim of the performance literature review has been to explore the concepts, measurements and previous studies in order to learn and compare these results with the objective of the thesis and develop this research accordingly.

Individual performance is a multiplicative relationship sharing declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and motivation which provides the base of team, unit and organisational performance. Certain traits, skills, abilities, motivation and opportunity to participate are the key determinations of individual performance. The concept can also be regarded from two

perspectives. When the result of the performance is emphasised, we can talk about the outcome aspect. In this case one is interested in the actual upshot of individual performance, whether the result is according to, higher or lower than the set target. On the other hand in the case of action aspects the process of performance is taken into account which includes behaviour and subparts of the main outcome. A well-developed performance assessment system should interlink the two parts. One however needs to be aware that this can be industry, job or circumstance specific. The concept and framework are the same but the indicators with which they are measured must be industry or even organisation specific. For those very reasons each institute is suggested to develop its own performance assessment system. Another characteristic to consider is whether the performance is required (according to the job description) or above the requirements. When it comes to measurement these two can be divided into task- or in-role performances and contextual or extra-role performances. Considering functional managers' roles, there are undoubtedly certain elements which are present nearly in all job descriptions regardless of the industry, such as keeping deadlines, communication or managing a team. Yet the way these task performance elements are defined and measured can be diverse. Contextual performance elements, on the other hand are viewed as job-role independent and discretionary phenomena (e.g. loyalty, supporting others). Performance dimensions along with critical success factors and key performance indicators have been identified as being able to separately measure these two types of performance. Critical success factors (CSFs) are those daily activities which are essential to complete job-related tasks and these are measured with the adjusted key performance indicators (KPIs). Although there can be several universal critical success factors, their measurements, the customised organisational-specific key performance indicators differ.

The best investment of a company is in those managers who, apart from experience and specific skills, have the inner motivation (which is not for financial compensation) to make an extra effort to achieve high performance. An emotional intelligent functional manager is not just aware of what (task performance) to achieve but how (contextual performance) to do it even better. People reach the peak of their performance when traits, behaviour and result-orientation attitude coupled with motivation are adjusted to the job-role.

Although the concept of individual performance dates back to Taylor (1970) measuring it is a different challenge. From the three individual performance approaches (trait, behaviour, result)

this thesis would take the trait approach (Grote, 1996) which emphasise that the combination of personality and cognitive ability forms work-related behaviour which then influences performance. The reason is that trait approach performance is the most likely to show a relationship with emotional intelligence. The behaviour and result approach does not take the whole person into account and only measures job-related performance. The aim of the thesis to explore both task and contextual performance in relation to emotional intelligence therefore behaviour and result approach would not be appropriate. Considering the measurement tools of individual performance Aguinis (2009) argues that it is rather customised. Though the general framework of Critical Success Factors and Key Performance Indicators provide an excellent base, it seems that each industry and even each organisation develops its own individual performance assessment system identifying what and how to measure. For that very reason the thesis applies CSFs and KPIs and aims to explore the specific elements (Dickinson et al, 1984; Brotherton and Shaw, 1996; O'Neill, 2007) that can measure hotel managers' task and contextual performance. From the literature review it can be concluded that task performance factor includes elements from functional managers' job descriptions whilst contextual performance factor contains extra tasks elements and behaviour patterns that are not required from the workplace but contributes to unit and organisational performance. The objective of the thesis is to develop an individual performance measurement that can be applied in hospitality industry measuring separately task and contextual measurement in order to enable HR and trainers to identify which emotional intelligence element links to which performance elements and to what extent. In this way training can be customised and a personal career profile can be more effective. Permanter's (2010) seven characteristics of KPIs is a well-based, strong and logical framework which is an excellent starting point of the present thesis.

2.4 Organisational culture

This literature review intends to focus on factors influencing organisational culture, highlighting how organisational culture is anticipated by the different structural layers (individual, group/unit and organisational). As an experimental study, the thesis aims to explore functional managers' perception of 'present' and 'preferred' hotel culture and so in this part of the literature review, individual assumption of organisational culture, organisational culture measurements and its relation to performance are accentuated. The thesis does not intend to explore national and international culture.

2.4.1 The concept of organisational culture

Defining organisational culture is at least as challenging as explaining the concept of leadership. Watkins (2013) has compared and contrasted more than 300 collected definitions and offered a synthesised term for organisational culture as being a multiple, overlapping, and dynamic organic system such as the human body.

Organisational culture is embedded and influenced by the culture of the society, country and continent. International companies which operate in a country with a different culture face cross-cultural experience. Hofstede's (2001) four -dimension culture model and analyses are widely applied methods used for identifying and preventing difficulties due to cultural issues. Hofstede's dimensions of power-distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity-femininity and individualism-collectivism are originally applied and explained national culture differences which as Jaeger (1986) has found are dissimilar from organisational culture characteristics. With the exception of three Scandinavian countries (Denmark, Norway and Sweden), four countries in one, fifteen countries in two and eighteen countries in three organisational development value dimensions have differed from Hofstede's country ranking national dimensions (Jaeger, 1986:184). Jaeger, using the dimensions of Hofstede, has defined organisational development values as follows (in Johnson and Golembiewski, 1992:73):

- *low power distance* : minimising social differences and egalitarianism in status as organisational values;
- *low uncertainty avoidance*: organisation puts emphasis on tolerating ambiguity and diminishes extravagant behaviour;
- *low masculinity and high femininity*: feelings and relationships should be focused on and not solely results when developing organisational values;
- *medium level of individualism*: avoid extreme levels of individuality and collectiveness by tolerating individual differences while fostering collaboration and team work.

Although national culture characteristics may resemble and overlap organisational culture features, the two concepts ought to be regarded distinctly. Gahan and Abeysekera (2009) indicate that individual intrinsic values and self-control are the elements that mediate between national and organisational culture.

Organisational culture can be recognised and describe by two related approaches, *historical* and *transformational* (Anthony, 1994:17). From Taylor onward the historical progress of

organisational culture has developed alongside leadership theories. In the late 1970`s, when behavioural theory linked to leadership with a psychological influence appeared, it broke the monopoly of the traditional `hard` approach. The controlled and bureaucratic management style served the mass production era well, but with the new international paradigm of production and the focus-shift to the service industry, the philosophy of organisational culture has appeared (Anthony, 1994). Culture, regarded as transformational process, starts with people in a community with mutual values and beliefs with which reinforced traditions become expected and specified in formal and/or informal organisational rules. If these values trigger employees` commitment through time and are reconsidered and reinforced regularly by the management, then these cultural values can survive and be resilient to external influences (Anthony, 1994:50-51). Brown (1998:9) defined organisational culture as “*the pattern of beliefs, values and learnt ways of coping with experience that have developed during the course of an organisation`s history, and which tend to be manifested in its material arrangements and in the behaviours of its members*”. According to Anthony (1994:28) each organisational culture has unique features and these are glued together by history, language, customs, traditions, social and economic cooperation reciprocal network patterns. Alvesson (2011) extends Anthony`s viewpoint and has a linguistic approach by claiming that organisational culture is connected to communication, it is how symbols and meanings are expressed in and outside the organisation. He also calls the attention to mini- or subcultures within an organisation which can cause fragmentation and ambiguity. Yammarino and Dansereau (2011) offer a *single- and a multiple-level* view of organisational culture. According to their single-level view a particular culture would be conceived differently depending on four levels: individual, group-team, organisation or country-society. At a multiple-level approach (Yammarino and Dansereau, 2011) there is a cross-level analysis focusing on the relationship between low level (individual or group/unit) and high level (organisational as a whole).

As one of the aims of the thesis is to investigate how hotel managers (the individuals) perceive `present` and describe the `preferred` organisational culture, literature and experimental studies on individual-levels of organisational culture have been studied. Overall, it is examined that individual-level assumption of unit- and organisational-level values would aggregate to a collective level; however, when organisational values are forced upon individuals it can result in negative work outcome (Carr et al., 2003:689). Lehman et al. (2004) proclaim that culture and psychology mutually influence each other. With time individuals` values, thoughts and actions create and influence cultural rules and manners which then contrariwise influence

individuals (Lehman et al., 2004). Most of the organisational cultural studies examining the relationship between individuals and organisational value assumptions have been carried out in the field of psychology. A detailed literature list can be found in *Appendix 2*.

Ogbonna's and Harris's (2002) approach regard the organisational culture concept from three angles: the *optimist*, the *pessimist* and the *realist*. According to the optimistic viewpoint, culture can be managed as it is linked to business performance and those who are unable to control culture cannot utilise and develop human resources. The pessimistic perspective is mainly supported by academics and researchers taking the theoretical perspective, and are reluctant to accept that organisational culture can neither be created nor be controlled by managers. Between the two extremes, the realists provide a balanced approach. They argue that on the one hand, organisational culture as society has the nature to change but on the other hand it can also be influenced and controlled by leaders and managers.

Schein (2004:26) differentiates between three levels of organisational culture. The *artefacts*, that describe the visible organisational structures and processes; the *espoused beliefs and values* that are the strategic goals, philosophies; and the *underlying assumptions* which include unconscious (taken-for granted) beliefs, perceptions, thought and feelings, the hidden and largest part of the iceberg. Brown (1998), on the other hand, states that there are two main distinctions in the organisational culture definitions: culture as *metaphor* or *objective entity*. Most organisational culture history used either the 'machine' or 'organism' metaphors (Brown, 1998:8) recent ones use the idea of 'glue', 'compass', 'sacred cow', 'blindness', 'world closure' (Alvesson, 2011:17) or 'immune system' (Watkins, 2013). Objective entity can be further divided into two segments; organisation as a whole (system, policies, procedures and processes) and a set of behavioural and/or cognitive characteristics (Brown, 1998:9).

One of the key terms to consider here is *organisational identity*, how individuals actually describe themselves as members of an organisation (Alvesson, 2011). Organisational identity manifests itself through how members detect and perceive certain key characteristics of the organisation and whether these distinctive features remain over time or if there is intrinsic or extrinsic volition for change (Alvesson, 2011). Persistent organisational culture cannot entirely influence individuals' behaviour as it is dynamic and lives up to changes. Furthermore, according to Anthony (1994), members of organisational culture change when newcomers with different organisational and individual backgrounds join. When a new employee enters an existing organisational culture, he/she undergoes a kind of process of perceiving. It is especially

challenging for a functional manager. The stages of culture formation within a unit or group are always a subtle process with strong emotional loads. Schein`s (2004:70) descriptions of the stages which consist of group formation, group building, group work and maturity is illustrated in Table 6. Zheng et al. (2009), too, propose a dynamic view of organisational culture that includes four stages: *inspiration* (start-up), *implementation* (growth), *negotiation* (maturity) and *transformation* (revival). Management should be aware of the facts of the different stages of the organisational culture life cycle in order to implement changes successfully if need be (Hassan et al, 2011).

One must remember however, that adopting and interiorizing a culture is undoubtedly a long process and heavily depends on the individuals` values, attitude and willingness. To prevent employees` intentions to leave, right from the selection process a gap analysis between a candidate`s preferred organisational culture and the one he/she will work for is needed in order detect and pinpoint possible conflicts (Mitki and Herstein, 2007; Davidson et al, 2010). Bourne and Jenkins (2013) suggest four forms of organisational values that interact and overlap. These values may well be connected to one`s emotional intelligence traits. *Attributed values* are those values that employees are willing to share collectively with the organisation; *shared values* reflect personal values but embedded in the individual and shared with certain members only; *espoused values* lie within the top management that are endorsed to employees; and *aspirational values* are employees` ideas about ideal values. This initiative is also supported by Harris` (1994) *schemata* theory. An individual schema is developed through past experiences, knowledge and behavioural outcomes that influence people to act in similar future situations more effectively. Organisation culture is created through individuals` resembling schemata and developed through interactions and communication (Harris, 1994). Therefore it is suggested that exploring similar schemata in candidates that are within the organisation and the line manager he/she would work with is necessary. Harris (1994) claims that for the organisational culture, five categories of schemata need to be considered: the first is the personal concept of one`s personality, role and behaviour within an organisation; the second is the individual`s impression and expectation of another individual in the organisation; the third is the generalised view of all employees; the fourth is the individual`s own view of the organisation based on his/her knowledge that differs from others; and the fifth is the individual`s perception of the organisation`s social events

The elements of the driving force in developing a personal schema are values. Cameron`s and Quinn`s (2006) *Competing Value Framework* is a measurement tool that can help identify the

dominant organisational culture and whether an individual wishes to stay, leave an organisation or if in a position where it is possible, propose organisational culture change (Cameron, 2008).

Table 6. Group evolution stages of organisational culture changes/development (adapted Schein Table 4.1., 2004:70)

| Stage | Dominant assumption | Socio-emotional focus |
|--------------------|---|--|
| 1. Group formation | <i>Dependence</i> : “the leader knows what we should do” | <i>Self-orientation</i> : emotional focus on issue of inclusion, power and influence, acceptance and intimacy, identity and role |
| 2. Group building | <i>Fusion</i> : “We are a great group; we all like each other” | <i>Group as idealised object</i> : emotional focus on harmony, conformity and search for intimacy where member’s differences are not valued |
| 3. Group work | <i>Work</i> : “We can perform effectively because we know and accept each other” | <i>Group mission and tasks</i> : emotional focus on accomplishment, team-work and maintaining the group in good working order where members’ differences are valued. |
| 4. Group maturity | <i>Maturity</i> : “We know who we are, what we want, and how to get it. We have been successful, so we must be right” | <i>Group survival and comfort</i> : emotional focus on preserving the group and its culture where creativity and member differences are regarded as threats. |

Leaders and managers are regarded as more important in determining culture than founders (Anthony, 1994). They create values with meanings which then shape the organisational image (Bryman, 1992) without which organisational culture cannot develop or survive (Anthony, 1994). Anthony (1994:50) names three reinforcing elements that taken into equal account, help to perceive the notion of organisational culture better:

- culture creates our perception of reality,
- our perception is compared to our experience (might be contradictory)
- our perception of culture is formed by the leader, management, peers

However, Anthony (1994) is cautious about the leaders’ and managers’ own determination of organisational culture as it can be misled through individual charisma if open feedback by stakeholders is not involved. Culture remains latent as an individual is a member of overlapping cultures that influence each other (Anthony, 1994: 96). If leaders are not aware of the culture they are working in, then they would be managed by organisational culture and not the other way round (Schein, 2004). Willcoxson and Millett (2000:93) argue that culture is inseparable from an organisation which is “*not created or maintained primarily by leaders*”. When a leader’s subconscious assumptions are accepted by the employees of the organisation they are hard to be replaced.

Kemp and Dwyer (2001) warn that managers disregard or underrate the importance of organisational culture, forgetting that they equally have an essential role in dealing with, changing or maintaining a developed culture. They need to understand the complex relationship and the influencing factors. Anthony (1994) claims that managing change in core values is more difficult than changing employees' behaviours. Consequently if culture is regarded as a set of values, managers ought to base organisational or unit cultures on mutually agreed values by the members (Bourne and Jenkins, 2013). A manager also has to be an authentic role model for the expected behavioural patterns which gradually and unconsciously create the desired organisational culture.

It is difficult to write a list and define the best ingredients for a perfect organisational culture since some of the culture can be created by the founder of an organisation, some are due to external challenges and some are developed consciously by the management (Cameron and Quinn, 2011). Undoubtedly a strong and unique culture can “*reduce collective uncertainties*”, create social order, continuity, collective identity and commitment, and expose future vision (Cameron and Quinn, 2011:6).

In this thesis organisational culture is defined as values a hotel focuses on when considering long-term strategy and everyday tasks which reveal if an organisation has an internal or an external approach.

2.4.2 Measuring organisational culture

In the following part of the literature review, some relevant organisational culture frameworks and measurements are introduced that are relevant for the thesis.

There are some prominent organisational culture models and measurements. Yammarino and Dansereau (2011) suggest considering the following when measuring organisational culture. First, a clear definition and conceptualisation of the term culture is needed combined with careful analysis. Second, when culture theory is tested, either or both qualitative and quantitative methodology should be applied. Finally, the results should be cautiously interpreted and applied accordingly with concern for a smooth culture change at various levels if necessary.

Similarly Cameron (2008) warns that culture is invisible until an individual or organisation is confronted and experiences alternative modes, therefore measuring culture is a perplexing and challenging issue. The Cameron and Quinn model (2011) has roots in *The Competing Values*

Framework (CVF) by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) which has been developed as a result of an experimental study aimed at evaluating the performance of different organisations. The model dimensions are defined in the following ways (Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983:369):

- *human relation model* (internal and flexible) where the values are cohesion and morale and the focus is on human resource development;
- *internal process model* (internal and controlled) where the values are information management and communication and the focus is on stability and control;
- *open system model* (external and flexible) where the values are flexibility and readiness and the focus is on growth and resource acquisition;
- *rational goal model* (external and controlled) where the values are planning and goal setting and the focus is on productivity and efficiency.

The micro, internal level focuses on the people within the organisation while the macro, external level stresses the importance of the development of the organisation (Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983). Cameron and Freeman (1991) have further developed the model. They have renamed the four dimensions, defined a leadership style for each type, described the elements that bond organisational members and highlighted the strategic emphasis of each. The framework, along with the *Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument* (OCAI) that has been accomplished over several years (Cameron and Quinn, 1999; 2006; 2011; Cameron, 2008), is based on the research results of more than 10,000 items of data. The four types of organisational culture are the followings:

- *Clan* focuses on internal maintenance where employees feel like a part of a family with a mentor/father/mother-figure leader. The emphasis is on teamwork, human resource development and customer care.
- *Hierarchy* focuses on internal maintenance, operating a structured, smooth-running organisation is vital with a coordinator and monitor type of leader. The emphasis is on uniformity and consistency which results in effective outcomes.
- *Adhocracy* focuses on external positioning where innovation, commitment and long-term growth are the key values with a visionary and entrepreneurial leader. The emphasis is on transformation and continuous improvement.
- *Market* focuses on external positioning where competition and profitability are essential along with a hard-driver and competitive leader. The emphasis is on competitive actions and winning market shares.

Table 7 gives a detailed insight into the model. Although all four types of culture can be simultaneously present on an organisational level, there is usually one dominant culture. Nevertheless, this presently dominant culture may differ from the one employees long for. Cameron and Quinn (2006) intend to explore the differences between the present and preferred culture in order to identify discrepancies which will trigger organisational culture change if necessary.

Table 7. Competing Values of Leadership Framework and cultural congruence for organisations (based on Cameron and Freeman, 1991, p. 29. Figure 2 and Cameron and Quinn, 2006, p.46.)

| Organic processes | |
|---|---|
| <p>Type: CLAN</p> <p>Orientation: Collaborative</p> <p>Dominant attributes: cohesiveness, participation, teamwork, sense of family</p> <p>Leader style: mentor, facilitator, team-leader, parent-figure</p> <p>Bonding: loyalty, tradition, interpersonal cohesion (communication), development</p> <p>Strategic emphases: towards developing human resources, commitment, morale</p> | <p>Type: ADHOCRACY</p> <p>Orientation: Creative</p> <p>Dominant attributes: entrepreneurialship, adaptability, dynamism</p> <p>Leader style: entrepreneurial, innovator, risk taker, visionary</p> <p>Bonding: entrepreneurship, flexibility, risk</p> <p>Strategic emphases: towards innovation, growth, new resources</p> |
| Internal maintenance | External positioning |
| <p>Type: HIERARCHY</p> <p>Orientation: Controlling</p> <p>Dominant attributes: order, rules and regulations, uniformity, efficiency</p> <p>Leader style: coordinator, monitor, organiser, administrator</p> <p>Bonding: rules, policies and procedures, clear expectations, timeliness, uniformity</p> <p>Strategic emphases: towards stability, predictability, smooth operations, product process effectiveness</p> | <p>Type: MARKET</p> <p>Orientation: Competing</p> <p>Dominant attributes: goal achievement, environment exchange</p> <p>Leader style: decisive, production- and achievement-oriented, hard-driver</p> <p>Bonding: goal orientation, production, competition, market share</p> <p>Strategic emphases: towards competitive advantage and market superiority, customer focus</p> |
| Mechanistic processes | |

Furthermore, a behavioural based *Management Skill Profile* and *Management Skills Assessment Instrument* (MSAI) have been added to the existing *Competing Values Framework* accentuating the idea that the key individual in developing, managing and changing organisational and/or unit culture are managers (Cameron and Quinn, 2006, 2011). Based on a study interviewing 400 highly effective leaders and managers in order to identify the most essential skills needed to be successful (Whetten and Cameron, 2005), Cameron and Quinn (2006) have clustered the skills and competencies required. The competency categories are

adjusted to the four organisational cultural types. Managing teams, interpersonal relationships and development of others are the main managerial skills needed within a clan culture, while managing innovation, the future and continuous improvement are the skills an adhocracy culture requires (Cameron and Quinn, 2006:120-121). In the market culture managing competitiveness, customer service and energising employees are needed, whereas in a hierarchy culture, managing acculturation, coordination and a control system are the essential managerial skills (Cameron and Quinn, 2006:120-121). Table 8 summarises the detailed definition of managerial skills.

These essential characteristics in many ways derive from or overlap emotional intelligence competences. Interpersonal relationships of a clan leader, for instance, require one to perceive and react to emotions accordingly in order to work effectively with employees. The same is true for an adhocracy leader who can encourage employees' innovativeness if he/she is aware of their inner motivations, impulsiveness and adaptability. A hierarchy leader, for example, needs to be aware of employees' stress management as complying with rules and regulations requires discipline. A market type of leader needs to foster and inspire employees and must know their motivations, assertiveness, social awareness and emotionality to enable them to deal with customers successfully. These emotional intelligence elements however cannot be sharply separated, thus those managers who lead functional areas regardless of the hotel culture perhaps need to have or exploit and develop these competences.

Table 8. Critical managerial competencies clustered in the four organisational cultures (based on Cameron and Quinn, 2006:120-121.)

| | |
|--|---|
| <p style="text-align: center;">Clan culture managerial skills</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managing teams: facilitating effective, cohesive, smooth functioning, high-performance teamwork • Managing interpersonal relationships: facilitating effective interpersonal relationships, including supportive feedback, listening, and resolution of interpersonal problems • Managing the development of others: helping individuals improve their performance, expand their competencies, and obtain personal development opportunities | <p style="text-align: center;">Adhocracy culture managerial skills</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managing innovation: encouraging individuals to innovate, expand alternatives, become more creative, and facilitate new idea generation • Managing the future: communicating a clear vision of the future and facilitating its accomplishment • Managing continuous improvement: fostering an orientation towards continuous improvement, flexibility, and productive change among individuals in their working life |
| <p style="text-align: center;">Hierarchy culture managerial skills</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managing acculturation: helping individuals become clear about what is expected of them, what the culture and standards of the organization are, and how they can best fit into the work setting • Managing the control system: ensuring that procedures, measurements, and monitoring systems are in place to keep processes and performance under control • Managing coordination: fostering coordination within the organization as well as with external units and managers and sharing information across boundaries | <p style="text-align: center;">Market culture managerial skills</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managing competitiveness: fostering competitive capabilities and an aggressive orientation toward exceeding competitors' performance • Energizing employees: motivating and inspiring individuals to be proactive, to put forth extra effort, and to work vigorously • Managing customer service: fostering an orientation towards serving customers, involving them, and exceeding their expectations |

The research applying 360 degree MSAI measurement (managers self-report, peer, subordinates and superiors feedback) has indicated that “*clear discrepancy exists between the way the manager perceives himself and the way he is perceived by his associates*” (Cameron and Quinn, 2006:124). Although at a cluster level significant differences (that is 1.0 or above between the mean of managers and others scoring) within the four cultural types have not been detected, with the exception of the hierarchy quadrant each has managerial skill elements that have differed considerably. In the clan culture, managers` and others (peer, subordinate and superior) scores have significantly differed within the managing team and managing development of other skills. In the adhocracy quadrant it has been the management of the future skill, whereas in the market quadrant, managing customer service skills has exhibited substantial differences (Cameron and Quinn, 2006). One of the reasons for the noticeably different scores is the interpretation of the managerial skills. Therefore Cameron and Quinn (2006) have conceptualised the terms and developed a management-skills profile which enables managers to fully comprehend and improve according to the managerial competencies required within their organisational culture. It is essential to align the various values and aspects in order to create congruence with organisational culture.

Congruence exists within an organisation if strategic emphases, bonding, leadership type and the dominant attributes show dependability and are consistent with each other, otherwise the culture becomes incongruent (Cameron and Freeman, 1991:30). Within an organisation, there is a cultural paradox. This means that several organisational culture types co-exist according to the different functions of the units/departments and each can emphasise different values and show divergent patterns (Cameron and Freeman, 1991; Cameron and Quinn, 2011; Indu, 2011). Research confirms that high performance organisations are more likely to have congruent cultures (Merchant, 2006; Keles and Aycan, 2011; Cameron and Quinn, 2011). Keles and Aycan (2011:3092) argue that managers tend to “*implement practices the way it was congruent with their values and assumptions*” and their sociocultural values can also be associated with performance management. It is relevant in the hospitality industry as back-office work differs from front-office. Back-office culture rather deals with the hard elements of a business (e.g. finance, housekeeping) seemingly focussing on rules and regulations more than front-office culture which has a continuous focus on soft-elements (e.g. care of guest).

This idea evokes in Mars (2008) *Cultural Theory* (earlier known as grid-group theory, Mars and Nicod, 1984). There are two axes presented, the first is the *grid* which stands for the extent to which people are limited by rules to act freely. The second axis shows the *group*, which shows how strong or weak a group is by examining the individuality or collectiveness of the members (Mars, 2008). The four dimensions are named after the four ways of ‘life’ archetypes: *piazzas*, *modules*, *pyramids* and *keeps* (Mars, 2008:189, 191). *Piazza* is defined as a network system of individuals characterised by a weak grid and weak group cohesiveness. This organisational culture values group members’ individualism, risk taking, innovative and competitive behaviour. *Module* is defined as “isolated and atomised” characterised by strong grid and weak group cohesiveness. It is a matrix where members work in isolation either in clusters or on projects and are controlled by externally managed policies and rules. *Pyramid* is defined as “bounded and ranked” characterised by strong grid and strong group cohesiveness. This is a bureaucratic system where rank is respected and authority is accepted. However, risk-taking is calculated in this type of organisation so that if the group interest is in danger, individuals are sacrificed. *Keep* is defined as “bounded and egalitarian” characterised by weak grid and strong group cohesiveness. It works like a family, where rank and authority within the internal structure is respected but not that important and external influencing factors are regarded as a source of danger. Members prefer taking small steps, one at a time and tend to blame each other in the case of conflict and problems. Mars (2008:191) distinguishes his

Cultural Typology from the cultural frameworks from Hofstede and from Cameron and Quinn stating that his model can identify the cultural diversity origin in groups and grids while the others just list these diversities without locating them. Mars (2008) also claims that this model is not just for analysis but is capable of predicting the future of an organisational culture. Organisations are not 'unicultural' of the organisation but rather the symbiosis existence of units and groups (Mars, 2008).

Handy (1993) also describes organisational culture according to four domains. *Power culture* represents characteristics of small organisations where decision making is centrally controlled thus allowing quick reaction to change. It is individual-centred, decision-oriented, where team work and high moral are not supported and staff turnover is significant especially among middle-managers (Machado and Carvalho, 2008). *Role culture* organisation can be described as a bureaucracy where communication, formal rules, procedures and policies rule departments and divisions and where roles are more important than the individuals. It can offer a kind of security, however, due to its bureaucratic nature it is slow to react to changes. *Task culture* emphasises teamwork of expertise that are regarded as main human assets. There is a network within the teams where individuals can easily move when a task is completed. This culture is typical with competing organisations (Machado and Carvalho, 2008). *Person culture* is oriented towards people who share and support a mutual vision. There is a turn taken in power sharing where loyalty is a key characteristic. According to Machado and Carvalho (2008) this kind of culture is hard to identify as the focus is rather on individuals` rather than organisational objectives.

2.4.3 Organisational culture and task and contextual performance

Although there are many theoretical papers on the possible relationship of organisational culture and individual performance, the number of empirical studies is limited (Chen et al, 2012). Previously it has been indicated that organisational culture bares a relationship to individual performance. Furthermore according to Wang and Abdu-Rahman (2010) culture influences and determines organisational and individual performance outcomes. Strong organisational cultures enable managers to fully achieve goals (Emmanuel and Lloyed, 2000). Besides this, Emmanuel and Lloyed (2000) claim that those organisational cultures that have unique qualities and are able to adapt to environmental changes achieve higher performance. Their empirical study reveals that innovative culture has a direct effect on performance while competitive culture has a direct and indirect effect. On the other hand, in bureaucratic and

community cultures, the hierarchy culture does not have a direct effect on performance. The negative link of bureaucratic culture and performance also implies a loss of short term profitability.

After examining 12 referred journals, it can be stated that 24% of the literature reviews have dealt with organisational culture. Chen et al (2012) recommend future researchers not to look at generalised culture and performance studies but rather do specific research with employees' perceptions on hotel culture and their behaviour and attitude as this would contribute significantly to academic and practical knowledge. The present thesis would like to fill this gap.

2.4.4 Summary and Conclusion

The cultural literature review aimed to identify some of the relevant concepts, measurements and previous studies in order to compare these results with the objectives of the thesis and develop this research accordingly.

Organisational culture does not equal national culture. Although the business environment can influence a company, what makes an inner atmosphere of an organisation are the structure, management, values, policies, history, attitude and behaviour of the employees. The majority of the concepts discussed above view organisational culture on the one hand as perceived implicit and explicit values that an organisation has, and on the other hand as a value collection and behavioural patterns of the organisational members. It is interesting to study the interaction and interference of organisational and individual culture. The optimistic and ideal situation is when values and attitudes of the two meet. According to this view organisational culture can be created and managed for performance. On the contrary the pessimistic approach denies this. It assumes that organisational culture slowly develops with time and the behaviour patterns fix in customs and build in the history of the organisation. According to this aspect organisational culture cannot be created and managed as it creates and manages itself. Realism is in between the two: culture either develops or is created but lives as an organ of individuals and can change or be changed due to internal or external influence. It is an on-going evolving process with its own life-cycle: beginning, growth, maturity and either decline or revival. Employees have their own schemata and via communication and interactions the similar values appear on which organisational culture is built. However, managers have the power to develop, influence or alter a present culture of the team they work with either consciously or unconsciously. Researchers apply symbols to describe organisational cultures to illustrate this complex concept. If one hears

that an organisation is like a clan, family, closeness, trust, tradition would be some keywords evoked.

The previously presented organisational culture models and measurements adopt symbols in order to be able to describe the whole phenomena. Four different frameworks and measurements have been introduced, and the similarity is that all of them have identified four types of organisational cultures. The description of the four-element models has many overlapping items that allow researchers to compare study outcomes from different fields. All of them go for a quadrat model. This means using four symbols and the attached theory and measurement to decide which category an organisational culture falls into. Although there are various scientifically valid and reliable instruments such as The Competing Values Framework with the further developed measurement of the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument, the Management Skills Assessment Instrument, and Mars' or Handy's culture theories, they all organise their model into four separable poles. The names of the categories differ from one source to another, yet the concepts resemble. Managers have a challenging role to shift and balance between individual schemata and adjusted to strategy. Although there have only been few studies exploring the relationship between individual performance and organisational culture, all indicated that the two carry a strong influence. To learn the differences and also examine the present and preferred culture, managers should measure organisational culture objectively. One of the most reliable measurements with a research history is OCAI. This model and measurement has been introduced in this part to pave the way to apply it in the present research.

To be able to change culture, managers need to know employees' schemata (Harris, 1994) and see in what culture the employees prefer to work. Among the presented and theoretically overlapping cultural models, only the Cameron and Quinn (2011) OCAI measures and compares present and preferred culture. There is a gap in the literature comparing managers' present and preferred culture in relation to their task and contextual performance. The differences between managers' perceived present and preferred future culture and their performance outcomes may indicate some kind of relationship. Those who indicate the same present and preferred culture are expected to have high performance as their schemata are very similar to the organisation's, while difference in present and preferred culture can signpost lower performance levels as the schemata is much more likely to differ.

2.5 Application of emotional intelligence, individual performance and organisational culture within the hospitality industry

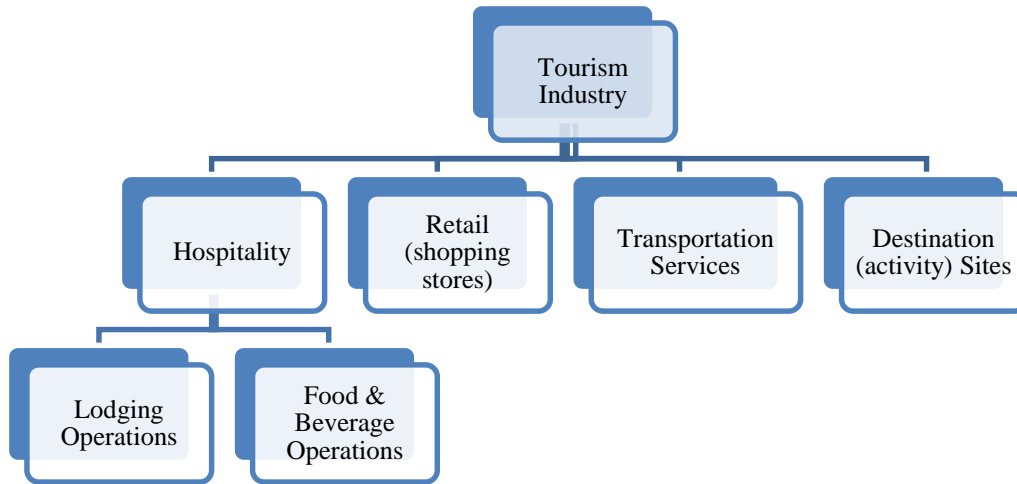
The purpose of this part is to incorporate and depict emotional intelligence, individual performance and organisational culture literature and research outcomes within the hospitality industry focussing on functional managers. First the business environment of the hotel industry is described. Then the hotel as an organisation, hotel management and the characteristics of functional managers are clarified. This part is followed by the application of emotional intelligence, individual performance and organisational culture study outcomes in hospitality.

2.5.1 Tourism and hospitality

The boundary between tourism and the hospitality industry is not strictly separated (Kusluvan, 2003). The tourism industry is referred to as sets of various organisations, firms and facility providers to meet tourists' and visitors' needs (Medlik, 1993). The hospitality industry is defined as a business basically providing lodging, food and beverages (Chon and Maier, 2010) which argued by Brotherton (1999:168) "*can be logically distinguished and separated from its nearest neighbours – tourism, travel and leisure*". Nevertheless today the hospitality industry fulfils the demands of corporate entertainment (recreation, special and business events) and has a strong bond with the tourism industry and therefore academics and business practitioners prefer to use tourism and hospitality within industry as one term (Kusluvan, 2003). Figure 3 depicts the types of organisations in the tourism industry and their relationships.

Hospitality as a managerial science also includes ethical treatment of strangers (Walton, 2000) which is an interaction of guests and hosts for social and economic (commercial) exchange (Brotherton and Wood, 2007). Hospitality has become a social, cultural, ethical and political space where participants learn from each other.

Figure 3. Some segments in the Tourism Industry (adapted from Hayes and Ninemeier, 2006)



The hotel segment is one of the key (economic) legs of hospitality (Chon and Maier, 2010). Hence research carried out in this field contributes to national and international economy, society and culture. The hospitality industry can be best characterised by the HIPI-theory from service marketing according to which service is a non-physical type of problem solving (Veres,1998; Kotler et al, 2010) and differs from physical products in four major aspects :

1. *H- heterogeneity*: The performance of the service provider (hotel) and claimant (guest) vary in time and place. Heterogeneity is a consequence of personal factors. Therefore the quality of a service depends on people’s independent abilities which vary. The higher the ‘personal ratio’ in service compared to material ratio, the higher the risk of heterogeneity. Hotel managers’ ability to perceive and control emotions concerning heterogeneity plays a vital role. One of the aims of the thesis is to identify whether functional managers have these emotional intelligence traits.
2. *I- intangibility*: The guest must experience the service as it is, there is no means of gaining sensory perception. It is a disadvantage that the future guest can only test the service when they “buy” it. However, today the Internet (forums, opinion walls etc.) provides subjective and informal views on different hotels in an attempt to make services tangible. This offers basic quality information to future guests. Each previous guest has had a different experience of the hotel services and the same attitude is needed from future guests in order to experience the hotel in the same way as their predecessors, of which the chance is quite little.
3. *P - perishability*: A service which is not utilised today means lost turnover as it cannot be replaced. The provider (hotel) misses the opportunity and the claimant (guest) lacks

the availability of the service. It also means that the outcome of the service cannot be stored. Therefore for hotel staff it is essential to sense guests' feelings about the service on the spot so as to avoid unsatisfied individuals spreading a bad reputation about the hotel.

4. *I- inseparability*: Service providing and usage cannot be separated in time and space, service and consumption takes place simultaneously in the presence of the user (guest) and provider (hotel staff). The challenge for managers is to provide a quality performance at the point that 'service' occurs. If the service is faulty, the experience of the customer cannot be replaced. That is why it is vital to select managers with appropriate competencies in sensing the emotional perceptions and reactions of guests.

Hospitality is a guest-driven industry which needs to ensure that guests'⁶ needs come first. The major determiner of service quality and customer satisfaction is the guest-employee relations during production and consumption (Kusluvan, 2003). Guests are productive resources who can contribute to quality, satisfaction and value and as a competitor, hence if the delivered service does not come up to the guests' expectations they are dissatisfied and evaluate the service as poor which heavily influences business outcomes (Bitner et al, 1997).

Heskett et al (1994) argue that satisfied, productive and loyal employees create value which results in guest satisfaction and satisfied guests are loyal which further stimulates profit and growth. The root lies in employee satisfaction which is elicited by hotel organisational quality which is realised in workplace design, job design, employee selection and development, employee rewards and recognition and tools for serving customers (Heskett et al, 1994). Previous surveys in the service industry (hotel and finance) examining guests (customers) and employees' relations have found that guest satisfaction correlates negatively with employee turnover (Schneider and Bowen, 1993), employee morale can be related to subsequent business performance indicators, customer satisfaction sentiments, and turnover ratio (Ryan et al, 1996), while employee's good quality performance increases customer satisfaction (Bitner et al, 1990).

⁶ **guest**: in hospitality customers and guests have different meaning, as in service philosophy guests are treated not as a customer "whose relationship with the property is based upon the exchange of money for product and services provided", but as a friend who is visiting our home, (Hayes and Ninemeier, 2006:11); in the thesis the term guest is used as an alternative term for customers/consumers.

Besides guest and employee relations the hospitality industry has further characteristics. Firstly it is labour intensive, working conditions are not ideal, and the levels of education, qualifications and cultural backgrounds of the workforce are diverse (Raub et al, 2006). Moreover it is characterised by a weak internal labour market: unspecified hiring standards, multiple points of entry, low skill specificity, no or rare on-job training, no or rare fixed criteria for promotion and transfer, weak workplace customs and pay differentials vary over time (Riley, 1996). The career 'ladder' is rather horizontal (within department or similar position in another hotel or abroad) than vertical: after reaching a certain level (e.g. back office agent to desk agent to front office manager and then GM) the further development for managers is restricted to different functional manager positions or changing hotels (sometimes within a chain in big hotels) (Hayes and Ninemeier, 2006) or managers have an intention to leave the industry for good or to start their own businesses (small lodging place, restaurant etc.) (Carbery et al, 2003). The continuous high pressure leads to high levels of burnout and intention to leave (Watkin, 2000; Johanson et al, 2008) therefore it creates a labour shortage and an ongoing demand for good employees (Hayes and Ninemeier, 2006). The hotel industry involves cultural, ethnic, and religious diversity of guests and employees, which requires high interpersonal skills and emotional intelligence (Testa 2004; Baum 2006). Additionally there are a number of external factors such as increased competition, market segmentation, specialised and sophisticated guest's demand (Chon and Maier, 2010). For that reason it is vital to carry out more research that explores the situation of hotel employees' soft skills.

Glomb et al (2004) claim that in emotional demanding, highly intensive interpersonal contact jobs, such as in tourism, emotional intelligence is a positive indicator which according to them can be learned and successfully developed. According to Rojek (2010) interpersonal skills converted into cultural capital (that is the combination of emotional intelligence and emotional labour) in the service sector offer a new aspect to the study of leisure. Hochschild (1983) first used the term emotional labour which "*requires one to induce or suppress feeling in order to sustain the outward countenance that produces the proper state of mind in others*" (Hochschild, 1983:7). She puts emphasis on the challenges managers have to meet when showing emotions in front of customers. Unusual demands on managers not just in the hospitality industry are likely to cause stress and affect emotional and physical health. Johanson et al (2008) after examining 211 American hotel managers' most frequently reported stressors in 2008 comparing them with the 1998 results, draw the following conclusion: while ten years ago holidays, business adjustment, outstanding personal achievement, vocation and change in

responsibilities at work were the top five stress-factors in 2008; marriage, death of a close family member, worry about a mortgage, vocation and holidays were indicated as prominent stress factors. Personal and family feelings influence work and vice versa therefore those working with people all the time must learn to understand and manage their own feelings in order to lower levels of frustration and lead a happily balanced combination of work and life (Spink, 2006). Employees with high emotional intelligence can contribute to their organisations significantly (Blank, 2008) while those entering the labour market who are emotionally unaware of the demanding and tense situations of their intended job are likely to be the cause of increased turnover, absenteeism and reduced service quality (Watkin, 2000).

A consciously organised hotel which places the focus on the employees' and guests' needs and intends to remain profitable must create an emotionally safe working environment where loyal and satisfied staff remain and guests return. The above research outcomes regardless of nation and industries indicate that soft skills are essential in order to maintain effective performance. Despite the continuous changes to the business environment the value of a multitasked workforce with strong and relevant skills and stable emotionality are demanded. Hospitality is not an exception either, as it has been referred to in this section.

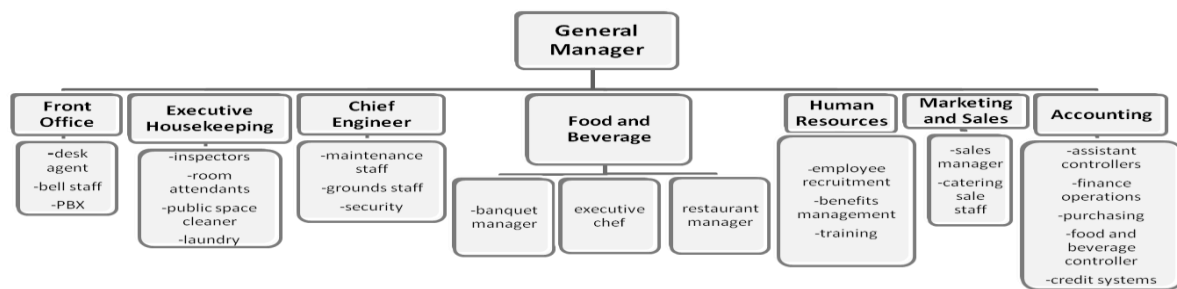
2.5.2 Hotel as an organisation

The organisational structure of a hotel can vary according to objectives, purpose and size among other things. These objectives consider internal and external issues in order to meet the goals set by appropriate personnel (Lee-Ross, 1999). Hotels can vary in size which influences their organisational structure and management. In small (generally less than 25 rooms) and average (between 25-99 rooms) hotels the owner can be the same person as the general manager where departments are usually limited to executive housekeeping and staff, front office manager and staff and maintenance chief and staff with a typically part time accountant (Hayes and Ninemeier, 2006). With the increase in hotel rooms, the organisational structure becomes more complex. 100-500-room full service hotels (a lodging property which provides comprehensive food and beverage products and services, Hayes and Ninemeier, 2006) can have several departments, namely: front office, food & beverages, human resources, marketing and accounting, executive housekeeping and a chief engineer each led by a separate functional (department) manager as Figure 4 illustrates (Stutts, 2006). The organisational structure of a full-service hotel with over 500 rooms is even more complex and hierarchical, with the increase in size more department heads/functional managers are hired in many specialised positions to

supervise and coordinate strategic and operational tasks of the employees (Hayes and Ninemeier, 2006). The hotel size increase also entails “facelessness” (standards rather than personal contacts dominate) therefore it becomes an essential function to work well within a team where employees know, understand and help each other, and the functional manager acts as a positive role model.

The structure of a hotel influences employees’ role in the organisation; the more departments a hotel has, the more standardized a job or task can be (Lee-Ross, 1999, Gyurácz-Németh, 2015). Both the owner and the management have a responsibility to create a transparent organisation with a clear vision, policies and requirements through modelling values and demonstrating the expected attitude and behaviour (Dalton, 2010).

Figure 4. Departments of full-service hotels under 500 rooms (adapted from Stutts, 2006 and Hayes and Ninemeier, 2006)



The size of the organisation is one of the control variables in this thesis as a difference can be proposed between small, medium and large hotels. The larger the hotel the more likely they are to have a performance assessment system and emotional intelligence measurement is built in from the stage of selection.

2.5.3 The importance of human resource management (HRM) in the hospitality industry

Human resource management (HRM) is not simply a synonym for personnel, personnel management is only one part of it. HRM is a strategic organisational function which manages activities related to people such as (Leopold and Harris, 2009): recruitment and selection, pay and reward systems, training and motivation, performance management and appraisal, employees’ health, welfare and safety in the workplace, managing diversity and equal

opportunities and disciplinary and grievance procedures. Therefore it is inevitable that HR in hospitality must be introduced as one of the topics of the thesis. Most of the independent and small hotels either lack an HR system and manager or has HR 'built-into' the functional managers' roles unconsciously. In this way HR activities become inseparable from functional managers' tasks requiring certain soft skill competencies.

Gómez-Mejía et al (2010) state that by applying appropriate HR policies and practices an organization can employ, train and keep the most suitable employees and with them can deliver excellent results. According to Leopold and Harris (2009) the key challenge for companies in the 21st century is competitiveness in keeping talented, motivated, skilled individuals whose traits and behaviour fit in with the organisational culture and with their excellent performance in order for the business to prosper sustainability. This especially applies to businesses which are customer-driven and the hospitality industry is such a segment (Goldsmith et al, 1997). The role of HRM in hospitality is vital due to the challenges that lie in long antisocial working hours, low pay, unstable, seasonal employment, and low job status which make employment within the industry appear unattractive (ILO, 2001).

Goldsmith et al (1997) argue that the hospitality industry neglects the importance and justification of human resources, however, since the turn of the 20th century in line with mega international chains more and more small and medium size hotels realise the importance of strategic human resources and have introduced HR departments as an individual functional area in their properties (Hayes and Ninemeier, 2006). In Hungary such a realisation is currently slowly taking place, however even international hotel chain subsidiaries can neglect the non-financial role of HR.

The D'Annunzio-Green et al (2000) survey based on interviews with senior hospitality human resource specialists indicates that the highest priorities would be an emphasis on the following areas: employee recruitment and selection; managing labour turnover; training; employee attitudinal commitment; employee relations; financial/business awareness and control; service quality; team-building; management of multi-cultural teams; and management competencies. To take these issues seriously and build in the strategy of the organisation HR managers' viewpoints must be heard and acted upon by cooperating with other functional managers, but unfortunately "*many organizations still fail to include HR managers in strategic decision-making processes and reduce the role of the HR manager to mere implementation*" (Raub et al, 2006:136). Storey (1995) claims that functional managers need to be directly involved in

the process of HR policy making both drivers and deliverers as cooperative action is vital for prosperous business (Györfi, 2009).

The very first step is to provide HR managers with place, resources and authority in order to enable them to create strategic alliances with the stakeholders (owners, general and functional managers and employees). Nevertheless the trends of the 21st century indicate that HR is embedded in rather than separated from the hotel organisation. This means that although the policies and frameworks are set by HR, line managers hold a great responsibility for applying the directives to all guest-related activities. Managers should develop peer relationships with HR in order to learn more about the employees, and when HR is absent or outsourced (functional) managers have more responsibility to take over the on-sight HR activities (Hutchinson and Purcell, 2002). Baum (2007) also calls attention to this problem. In the last 20 years while large (usually chain) hotels have become more professional in HR practices and provide new skills to front-line managers, middle- and small size hotels (usually independent) either neglect to invest in the existing HR or totally lack HR managers. In these hotels the general and functional managers deal with such HR issues hence they should be endowed with HR competences. The present thesis aims to learn more about these competences by identifying those emotional traits that might play a vital role in performance. The research outcomes may give hotel functional managers seeds of thought as to what and how to do things differently.

Taking these issues into consideration, the functional managers' role grows and becomes more versatile. Thus in the following section the hotel manager and leadership tasks, roles, competencies and expected behaviour patterns are discussed.

2.5.4 Hotel managers with leadership competences

The presence of effective leading and managing in hospitality is essential to survive (Kusluvan, 2003) and to cope with the demands of the changing environment and the difficulty of recruiting and retaining loyal and highly performing hospitality employees (Tracey and Hinkin, 1998). Leadership style can be heavily culturally determined (Hofstede, 2001) which influences organisational behaviour and financial outcomes (Armstrong, 2003). Brodbeck et al (2000) in their study also indicate that managers from similar cultures have similar cultural values and also similar views of leadership. Nevertheless as Robie et al (2001) research indicates effective leadership does not depend on which country a manager works but rather on his/her personality traits, emotional intelligence and competences such as being persistent, able to plan, careful, responsible, hardworking, smart and motivated.

As the 21st century workforce becomes multicultural and the organisational behavioural patterns in (not just) hospitality industry become standardised, Robie et al believe a personality traits approach seems to be more relevant. Among the previous theories and approaches (Bryman, 1992; Blake and Mounton, 1964; Fiedler, 1967 and Evan, 1970) that examine and measure different leadership styles, contingency theories and path-goal theory, most believe that leadership style depends on two factors: personal characteristics and environmental characteristics. Worsfold's (1989b) research reveals that hospitality managers' leadership style is rather autocratic, dictatorial, highly critical and controlling; altogether managers have paternalistic attitudes. According to Sheraton Skyline research (2006), a more participative and open leadership style would create a more positive and stronger culture. Worsfold's study is more than 25 years old, and there is a research opportunity within the thesis to observe whether the case has changed.

Morrison et al (1999) along with Olver and Mooradian (2003) also agree that the success and effectiveness of hotel managers depend on two strongly interrelated phenomena: *personality traits* such as emotional stability and intelligence, health and capacity to inspire which are stable throughout adulthood; and *personal values* which are learned characteristics formed by the environment and organisational culture. Hotels must reconsider their decisions and recruit and select managers with certain personality traits, competences and experience with which they can deliver the criteria that leads to high performance and leadership effectiveness (Akrivos et al, 2007). Notwithstanding, Guilding (2003) warns that one must be aware of the important influence of a hotel owner in managing and leading which can heavily determine managers' functions, roles and behaviours as "*with the exception of the General Manager and sometimes the Financial Controller, it is normal for all hotel staff to be employees of the owner*" (Guilding, 2003:181).

2.5.5 Hotel general and functional managers' characteristics

Wood (1994) supposes that hotel managers differ from other industrial counterparts as they undertake a much wider range of activities and spend less time alone due to their interactions with guests and staff. Hotel managers hold key roles in shaping an organisation. Hayes and Ninemeier (2006) proclaim that hotel managers cannot "fake" the guests. A manager "*must*

have a genuine enthusiasm to please people who are visiting” the hotel (2006:2) and be a role model of his/her subordinates to feel and do the same.

Hotel managers are disturbed according to tasks and activates in different departments which can be divided according to function, product or service, geography, customers and process (Barrows and Powers, 2009). The former two are the most common types of departmentalisation at an operational level with geography and customers at a corporate level.

Although managerial functions have very similar elements within the industry, hotel manager functions have the following distinguished features. There are different career roots through which managers come into the hospitality industry and for career prospects the amount of time a manager has spent in this industry makes little difference. Managers may leave the hospitality industry if they do not see long term values in their qualifications. While young managers are likely to be more committed if they are given opportunities to achieve a functional manager position within the short term, sooner or later, all managers are required to be mobile for their careers (Guerrier,1987; Baum,1989; Wood,1994; Hayes and Ninemeier, 2006; Barrows and Powers, 2009). A carefully developed performance assessment system which considers both task- and contextual achievements linked to individual career portfolios may help to plan a manager’s path in the long term.

The General Manager (GM) is the head and leader of the hotel manager team who is responsible for the hotel’s short-term profitability and final decision making in policies and procedures regarding hotel specific operations (Hayes and Ninemeier, 2006). Dalton (2010:19) states that a general manager’s position has a *“helicopter view of the organisation”* anticipating and conceptualising problems and finding ways to solve them with functional managers’ cooperation. In a full service hotel, the GM job description includes specific duties (e.g. lead the revenue effort of the hotel by maximizing the revenue per available room/RevPar), minimum qualifications (e.g. strong interpersonal/leadership skills and caring behaviour towards both guests and team members) and desirable qualifications (e.g. previous department head experience) to serve as a positive model to subordinates (Hayes and Ninemeier, 2006). Nebel et al (1995), after examining American hotels GMs, find the following characteristics: 80% of GMs had previously worked in a functional manager position for about three years spending nearly 88% of their time in only one hotel, mostly in the Food and Beverage, Front Office and Housekeeping departments while only 20% of the GMs worked in Sales and Marketing, Accounting and Finance; 69% of the GMs reported that experience in one of the

operational departments (Food and Beverage, Front Office and Housekeeping) was extremely important in gaining a GM position.

Apart from the work experience, soft skills (e.g. interpersonal skills), contextual behaviour and desirable traits (e.g. sociability, self-control) helped in winning the GM position. Worsfold (1989a, b) also identifies the personal characteristics necessary for successful (general) managers. He sets up 5 categories (1989a:58):

- *people skills*: this category includes the characteristics related to understanding people, leadership skills, ability to motivate, caring for people, interest in people and the ability to communicate;
- *resilience (mental and physical)*: including courage, stamina, energy, the need to be thick skinned and in good health;
- *motivation*: including dedication, drive, self- motivation and the need to succeed;
- *personality characteristics*: including personality, style, flair, extraversion, tolerance, aggression concerning the willingness to take risks and the need to be stable;
- *intelligence*: including intelligence, common sense and the necessity of a good memory

GMs are hard to be observed, as they wear different ‘hats’ every day (*‘I’m wearing my sale manager’s hat today’*) (Barrows and Powers, 2009:567).

As Nebel’s et al (1995) research indicates that 80% of the GMs previously had a functional manger position it is therefore relevant to examine what features make a functional manager (FM) win this position. According to Hayes and Ninemeier (2006:64) the skills required from functional managers can be divided into four main categories some of which overlap GMs skills.

- *conceptual skills*: the ability to collect, interpret and use information in a logical way;
- *interpersonal skills*: the ability to understand and interact well with people, including guests, employees, owner etc.,
- *administrative skills*: the ability to organise and direct required work efforts,
- *technical skills*: the ability to perform the hotel management-specific job

O’Fallon’s and Rutherford’s (2011) findings identify similar key manager competences for the hospitality industry in the following order of importance: self-management, strategic positioning, implementation, critical thinking, interpersonal, leadership and industry knowledge. Table 10 summarises these key traits and competencies with the factors and their dimensions.

**Table 10. Leading Competencies Model for Lodging Industry
(adapted O’Fallon and Rutherford, 2011:108)**

| Factors | Dimensions |
|------------------------------|--|
| Self-management | ethics and integrity time management flexibility self-development |
| Strategic positioning | awareness of customer needs commitment to quality managing stakeholders concern for community |
| Implementation | planning directing others reengineering strategic orientation decision making analysis |
| Critical thinking | risk taking and innovation speaking with impact facilitating open communication active listening written communication |
| Interpersonal | building networks managing conflicts embracing diversity |
| Leadership | teamwork orientation fostering motivation fortitude developing others embracing change developing versatility |
| Industry knowledge | business and industry expertise |

It can be observed that certain items of these competencies overlap emotional intelligence characteristics, such as managing conflicts, fostering motivation, developing others, flexibility and self-development.

After examining 25 hotels Yang et al (2015:167) experimental research claims that there are four skill dimensions that should already be possessed by entry-level hotel staff. *Job performance and self-management* seems to be the prior skill of hospitality graduates, followed by *organization and time management, creativity and innovation*, and finally *problem solving*. It indicates that much more focus should be on higher education to develop these skills in future hotel managers-to-be.

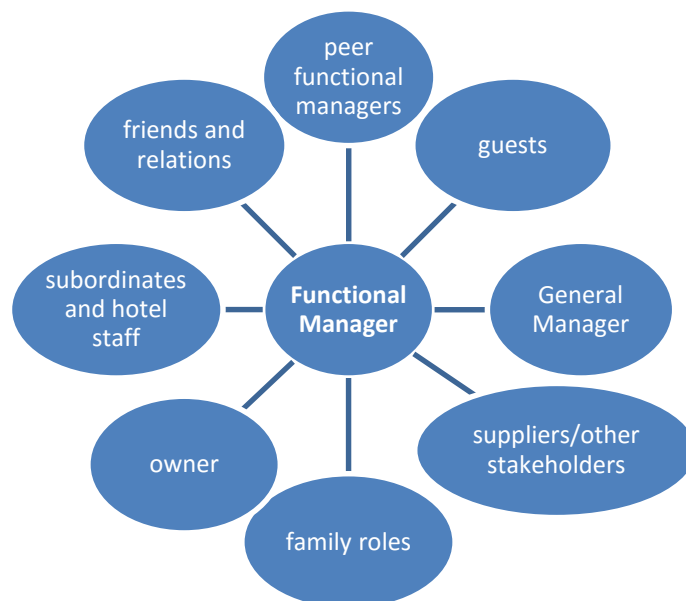
As hotel managers are responsible for units, subtle harmony, smooth operational work and cooperative relationships between the sections would result in excellent outcomes as Murphy and Murphy (2004: 361) explain: "taking a collaborative approach to tourism management strengthens the abilities of diverse people to work together and to create something greater than they can produce on their own". Thus the engine of this can be functional managers on whose emotional intelligence levels not just the sections' but the whole hotel performance depend (Langhorn, 2004). Functional managers, as being intermediates between the manager director and subordinates, play essential roles (Conway, 2010). With responsibilities towards guests and subordinates, as well as towards owner(s), hotel functional managers are key figures who try to play—and balance—several roles in order to satisfy this triple mandate. Cleveland et al (2007) confirm that those with high emotional intelligence can deal with stressful and unexpected incidents more successfully while less emotionally intelligent managers' stress levels increase during these situations, especially if they are coupled with long work hours, unpredictable weekend and holiday work schedules.

Functional managers as unit heads have different roles, liabilities and responsibilities (Barrows and Powers, 2009). Mintzberg (1973) believes that it is impossible to separate and categorize the different role functions as all performances including informational and interpersonal elements appear to be very influential in hotel and catering. Nevertheless, each functional manager has a main role within the unit and that is to lead it effectively and efficiently (Larkin, 2009). According to Wood (1994) roles are sets of behaviour patterns in an organisation, and 'multiple role holder managers' experience the burden of stress. Figure 6 presents a functional manager's possible role-expectations of work and life. Functional managers make organisational contributions to the guests, the general manager and the peer managers, the staff, the owner, the suppliers and other stakeholders and private contributions to family members, friends and indirectly to the whole society.

Role-expectation can lead to conflict, stress, overload and role bargaining that are the major factors of unhappiness, poor performance and an intention to quit (Macaulay and Wood, R.C. 1992). Brymer (1979, 1982) calls the attention to the fact that at some point every hotel manager encounters stress in their careers. He divides stressors into 4 categories: *individual*- (type A is a workaholic as are most of the hotel managers and type B is the laid back personality type 1979:62), *family*- (e.g. relocation affects all family members), *organisation*- (e.g. high responsibility and unit interdependence) and *social and environmental stressors* (e.g. economic changes or public distrust). According to Drummond (1990) stress can have 3 groups of

symptoms: *psychological symptoms* (low self-esteem, depression etc.), *physiological symptoms* (headache, high blood-pressure etc.) and/or *performance symptoms* (ability to make decisions, avoiding guests, tasks and situations etc). Stress heavily influences individual and organisational performance therefore hotels have to create an environment which minimise pressure (Kusluvan, 2003). Mullins (1992, 2005) states that it is the hospitality management's responsibility to reduce and control stress and there are 3 ways to do this. The first step is to manage the role stress plays in the *structure of the hotel*. Most hotels, in order to cut costs employ candidates with less adequate competencies and then ask them to perform at a high level which according to Riley (1996) is impossible. The second lies in the *information and communication approach* within which roles must be defined and specified clearly in order to prevent inter-department conflicts. The third is *HR and personnel solutions* to control role conflicts and stress. To do this hotels need to implement a recruitment strategy to enable them to employ individuals who may not be geniuses but they “do an emotionally great job” (Wood,1994:79).

Figure 6. Possible role-expectation of a functional manager (adopted Wood's theory, 1994)



Stress is not the only, but the primary cause of intention to leave and labour turnover (Macaulay and Wood, 1992). Johnson's research (1985) also shows that in higher hotel ratings turnover is less and this could be due to the employment of more and carefully recruited staff (Riley,1996), clearly specified roles and effective communication (Kusluvan, 2003) and a good working environment (Brymer, 1982). Further factors influencing managers' turnover are the high ratio

of part-time and young, especially female employees, low payment and limited amounts of training (Deery and Iverson, 1996, Jackson and DeFranco, 2005) and organisational culture (Deery and Shaw, 1999). Garavan's et al (2006:671) research reveals that the "*combination of demographic, human capital, psychological attributes and hotel characteristics, explain significant variance in the turnover cognitions of hotel managers*" and the most significant feature explaining managers' turnover is their perceived commitment (loyalty) to the organisation. When employees leave the hotel it certainly has financial drawbacks and the more 'investment' that is put into a manager, the higher the financial loss (Guilding, 2003, 2009). These costs include leaving costs, replacement costs, training costs and indirect costs (e.g. customer satisfaction) which most of the time hotels are not aware of (Lashley and Rowson, 2000). Kaufmann et al (2009) counsel that if a hotel does not train managers (and staff) it also leads to lower customer satisfaction and productivity as well as high staff turnover. Hotels have only recently begun to comprehend the inter-relationship and link between recruitment, training, and retention of managers and staff (Jackson and DeFranco, 2005). These relevant issues are also present in the Hungarian hospitality industry. Although there is a continuous demand for qualified and emotionally stable employees, the ratio of staff turnover is high due to low payment and long-working hours which triggers stressful circumstances (Györfi, 2009).

2.5.6 Emotional intelligence studies in tourism and hospitality

In hotels there is a "Have a nice day" culture where employees are required to smile even when they are angry and upset (Kaufman et al 2009). Despite the frequency of jobs loaded with emotional experience, studies in tourism within the service sector have only recently begun (Min et al, 2011). Carvelzani et al (2003) have interviewed 7 tour operators to assess their attitudes, opinions and observations. The findings show that tour operators make use of *emotional intelligence to offer personalised travel solutions*. Min (2012) examines the relationships between tour guides' emotional intelligence and demographic variables and discovered that individuals' *gender and length of service show relationship* with emotional intelligence. Scott-Halsell et al (2008), after examining the hospitality managers' particular socio-demographic roles and emotional intelligence levels, have found that the average emotional intelligence scores for *professionals are above the norm*. Although the study *cannot support a relationship between emotional intelligence and qualifications* it is interestingly those, especially women who spend less than 20 years in the hotels, restaurants and private clubs, who are identified as expressing their feelings better. Pub restaurant general managers

have been studied by Langhorn (2004) to see what the relationship between their emotional competences and performance needs are to manage business. The findings indicate that (general) managers' performance depends on their ability to *be aware of and understand their emotions*, furthermore overall emotional intelligence levels of managers indicates a positive profit performance and impacts on employee and customer satisfaction. Sy' et al's (2006) study carried out with a national restaurant chain confirms this as well. The study supports the fact that employees' emotional intelligence is positively associated with performance and job satisfaction. Furthermore Cha et al's (2008) study also reveals that food service industry executives' emotional intelligence show a relation to *social and stress management* skills. Those with low level emotional intelligence have been found to have appalling *social skills and managed work-related stress* much less competently than managers with high emotional intelligence. Scott-Halsell et al's (2008, 2011) comparative study investigates significant differences between university students and hotel industry professionals. Professionals' overall *emotional intelligence, behaviour, empathy, knowledge and motivation* abilities have been explored and found to be higher than students' which may imply that traits can change with years or be developed (Roberts and Mroczek, 2008; Dulewicz and Higgs, 2004). The results also show that those in the industry for less than 20 years had a *higher ability to express emotions* which may be due to the Baby Boom generation since they had been raised to express emotions differently than the younger generation (Scott-Halsell et al, 2011). This seems to contradict the research outcomes of Mishra and Mohapatra (2010) where managers with more than 15 years of work experience have higher emotional maturity.

Sheila et al (2008) explore hotel professionals' emotional intelligence in relation to their *age, gender, experience, hospitality segment and education*. The limitations of the study are that the emotional intelligence test they used (Emotional Intelligence Test, 2nd Revision, developed by Plumeus) mixes abilities and traits. The test comprises 70 multiple-choice questions and is analysed as an IQ test. Furthermore, the sample size is considered relatively small (65) and therefore cannot be analysed reliably with quantitative methodology in order to generalise. Unfortunately, the study does not examine emotional intelligence's relationship to performance. Hanzaeaa and Mirvaisi (2013) survey the impact of emotional intelligence, organizational citizenship behaviours and job satisfaction on employees' performance in the Iranian hotel industry and have found that *emotional intelligence influences individual performance*.

Wolfe and Kim (2013) examine hotel supervisors and managers job tenure and loyalty and the results indicated that the higher the managers emotional intelligence level are, the more years they stay in the hospitality industry. Furthermore supervisors with higher empathy levels and other interpersonal skills are better in trust building and also stay longer in hospitality. On the other hand weaker relationships have been pinpointed between managers' emotional intelligence levels and their tenure to stay in the same hotel. This calls the attention to owners to further investigate the reasons behind and prevent high levels of turnover through appropriate methods.

Other studies in hospitality examine emotionally intelligent managers in relation to selecting and training. According to Vance (2006) high priority should be placed on keeping and training skilled employees for customer satisfaction and to elicit organisational commitment which would evidently lead to high performance (Rosete and Ciarrochi, 2005; Rojek, 2010). Mann (1998) claims that there are 3 emotional states when dealing with customers: emotions felt, emotions displayed and the job-role required emotional performance. Kim (2008) has found differences between surface and deep acting hotel managers. When dealing with guests the surface-actor managers are likely to counterfeit their emotional expressions while the deep-actor managers call forth the suitable emotions. Surface actors seem to exhaust and become cynical more quickly than deep actor managers which influence the individual performance and quality of the service. The result of this study implies that deep emotional applicants might be preferable for application.

Draft (2011) suggests that to select, train and develop managers, organisations and recruiting agencies nowadays requires the application of more sophisticated soft-factor measurements such as personality, psychometric and emotional intelligence measurements along with ability and skills tests in assessment centres. Personalities are sets of traits and although there have been many traits identified and claimed to describe an effective manager and/or leader, they all belong to the Big Five personality dimensions identified by researchers (e.g. Tupes and Christal, 1961; Goldberg, Norman and Schwartz, 1980; Goldberg, 1993; O'Connor, 2002; Grucza and Goldberg, 2007; Cattell and Mead, 2008). Al-Refaie (2014) claims that besides traits, hotel managers' loyalty and performance depend as much on their satisfaction levels and organisational cultures (Al-Refaie, 2014).

The above-mentioned studies have applied diverse emotional intelligence methods (e.g. interview, Likert scale) and tests (ability, trait, mixed) which makes it difficult to generalise the outcomes. However, it indicates that when emotional intelligence is in the spotlight, there are various ways to measure and conduct quantitative research in relation to performance. The present thesis therefore aims to be firm on emotional intelligence measurement by applying a reliable trait-based tool.

2.5.7 Emotional intelligence training studies in tourism and hospitality

Up until the present, studies examining the outcomes of emotional intelligence training among employees in tourism have been limited. Min et al (2011) have been among the first to study undergraduate students of tourism in Taiwan by providing training to investigate if emotional intelligence can be learnt. Based on their findings, they state that some emotional intelligence competence can be acquired via special training. The self-assessed experiment has shown that a *commitment ethic, time management and drive strengths* seemed high while *change orientation, assertion and stress management* were relatively low. Students have deemed themselves to have *difficulties in stress management and communications* which are essential in emotional jobs (Miller and Koesten, 2008). Nevertheless it is important to mention that Min et al (2011) have applied Nelson and Low's Emotional Skills Assessment Process – Condensed Version (ESAP-CV) which predictive validity is questionable (Baliey and Chi), and several of the ESAP-CV scales measure more than one concept. However, one strength is that the test has been developed specifically for use with adolescents and college/university students.

The question of whether emotional intelligence is trainable depends on the track one takes when defining the concept. Petrides (2009, 2011) argues that emotional experience cannot be objectified like an IQ category. Basic traits claim to be stable over time (McCrae and Costa, 1994), and if they change it has a reason. Roberts and Mroczek (2008) longitudinal and cross-sectional aging research has found that *personality traits change in adulthood especially between the ages of 20-40* and show increases especially in *self-confidence, warmth, self-control and emotional stability*. They claim that the important *influencing factors are life experience and life goals*. Roberts et al (2007) have found that those people who experience more success and satisfying careers early in their working years will have higher emotional stability and consciousness. They also state that some personality traits (e.g. *assertiveness*) can be regarded as work experience outcomes. According to Dweck (2008:392) the concept of

changing personality depends on a person's point of view. Some opt for "*fixed (or 'entity')*" theory, believing that their qualities, such as their intelligence, are simply fixed traits while others have a malleable (or incremental) theory, believing that their most basic qualities can be developed through their efforts and education." Training individuals only has a meaning if the training is customised since standardized "recipes" of how to be a "different person" is a long and expensive process.

Recent interest of the study of hotel managers' and employees' emotional intelligence (Kaufman et al, 2009) calls attention to the fact that it is necessary to carry out more empirical research in the field that could help in identifying the problems and provide effective choices in selection and training processes. Apart from the Sheila et al (2008) study, there has not been any research carried out examining hotel functional managers' trait emotional intelligence and its relation to task and contextual performance within organisational culture.

2.5.8 Hotel managers' performance studies

The concept of individual performance has been presented in chapter 2.3. In this part the studies regarding hotel managers and individual performance are discussed. Unfortunately the number of these articles is limited as there is more focus on organisational- and team output than individual performance of a hotel manager.

In hospitality employees do 'real time' service delivery which means the interaction with guests is continuous and interpersonal (Williams and Buswell, 2010). In these circumstances managers are unconsciously matching the potential and actual output which can cause stress especially if one's personality and experiences are not adjusted to this kind of job role. Williams and Busell's study (2010) indicates that there are three possible patterns in this case:

- There are *negative relationships* between role ambiguity and role conflict with job performance: this means the clearer the job role is described the less the role conflict becomes which influences individual performance in a positive way.
- There are *positive relationships* between role overload and self-esteem with job performance: this means, in the case of role overload managers with higher self-esteem, better performance than their lower self-esteem colleagues is possible.
- Predictably *role ambiguity generates more role stress* than conflict or overload.

The study concludes that precise job role description can prevent stress, at the same time high self-esteem and self-control can combat role stress. Agut et al (2003) study has also found that self-control and social relationships are the key generic managerial competencies needed in job performance efficacy.

A research by Wong and Huang (2014) has identified four types of managerial coping behaviour to job stress that has either been generated by surface or deep-acting in Hong Kong hotels. Basically there are three approaches to coping with stress in order to perform well: *problem-focused or emotional-focused; cognitive reappraisal or symptom management; and fight or flight*. In other words a hotel manager has three options. First to control his/her emotions and behave according to the situation, second is to swallow or let out emotions and soon 'escape' from the workplace, or thirdly consciously develop a coping strategy. The more experienced managers are about their own and others' emotional reactions, the more likely they are to develop stress-coping strategies. The four types of coping behaviour to stress based on the analyses are (Wong and Huang, 2014):

- *sharing with people*: Communication and socialising with colleagues have been found to be the most common stress release coping method in hotels, the problem however is that this is rather present-focused and cannot provide effective long term strategy and pattern behaviour.
- *individual behaviour*: The majority of people have indicated handling stress by eating, spending money, or sleeping. This is destructive behaviour as this is a passive ways of dealing with stress that shifts a person's focus to other things.
- *emotional release*: This coping strategy includes crying, gambling or smoking which can lead to addiction, which is also distractive.
- *organisational initiatives*: can be a progressive way to handle stress as it means that hotels organize activities, exercises, or courses during work time, thus employees can find a release passage for work-related pressures.

Based on the outcomes Wong and Huang (2014) recommend several methods of stress relief to hotel professionals. Among others in-house or outsourced counselling services for employees where they have a direct hotline to a specialist to talk about stress factors has been suggested. Moreover hotels have been advised to consider stress management policies and procedures and create possibilities for positive methods (such as using hotel sport and

recreation facilities for free) for coping with job stress. These could on the one hand be preventative methods against employee turnover and burnout and on the other hand elicit better performance.

Stress management is a soft competence that has been identified in other studies as one of the main factors of good performance. Among others according to of Murphy's data (2006) the top ranking work dimension which comprises the high performance people system in hospitality is training and skills development. There are primary core competencies that need to be trained and developed in order to trigger high performance from the employees. Those managers who perform outstandingly are rare, value-adding, imitable and difficult to replace. Therefore Murphy (2006) suggests *taking the time to select the most appropriate candidates*, taking *soft competencies* such as *people and emotion management, empathy, stress-management* and other leadership skills. He also argues that a manager's individual performance has implications for his/her unit which further influence hotel performance. Moreover this conscious or unconscious soft competencies knowledge transfer among colleagues can create or change hotel organisational culture.

Williams and Buswell (2010) emphasise that managers' high individual performance in hospitality depends on whether they have a *quality-value attitude* towards the service they provide for guests. Among the key competences they name conflict management, proactive problem solving, communication, willingness to learn from mistakes, empowerment and staff development, *empathy* and *self-esteem*.

Al-Refaie's (2015) quantitative research, applying structural equation modelling to investigate what influences hotel performance, has found that there are complex relationships between the factors. The outcomes indicate that efficient human resource management in hotels positively relates to employee satisfaction which cascades to *loyalty of employees*, service quality, individual and organisational performance. Furthermore employees' loyalty has an impact on customer loyalty.

Karatepe' (2014) study goes further by finding that hotel employees' high *hope* also plays a key role. He has found that front office managers with *positive feelings, optimism* and attitude towards the future are energetic and enthusiastic and they also take advantage of alternative paths to achieving their tasks. These employees feel engaged and devote their work. Therefore, they have better performance than non-engaged employees. The implication of this study suggests paying more attention to the recruitment mechanism and employing candidates with

future related optimism and willpower. Karatepe (2014) underlines that existing employees should also have continuous personality training and that the reward system should be linked to the positive application of the training outcomes.

Employees' performance is influenced by various personal and social factors as indicated above. The next part introduces the different ways hotel managers' individual tasks and contextual performance is measured.

2.5.9 Methods applied to measure individual performance in hospitality: Critical Success Factors and Key Performance Indicators

There have been a few performance measurement ideas, models and systems developed for hotels (e.g. Mattsson, 1994; Phillips, 1999; Denton and White, 2000; Doran et al, 2002) most of which are based on the balanced score card theory and focus on financial performance. In hospitality when financial measurements are generated, size, location, category, type, market segment and economic growth are taken into consideration (Mia and Patiar, 2001) while within the operational measurements, business functions and strategy are regarded (Ingram, P. 1996). These two dimensions are jointly used in most of the cases (Hu and Cai, 2004). The third dimension, organisational measurements, mainly includes financial elements (RevPAR=revenue per available room, occupancy rate, customer satisfaction) and puts less importance on involving HR dimensions of employees' contributions such as job satisfaction, training, loyalty, turnover etc. (Øgaard et al., 2008). The recent research of Sainaghi (2011) has found that hotel location and the number and attitude of employees have a significant correlation with RevPar, which may suggest investigating the employees' roles and considering the added value they contribute to the business. Studies exploring hotel functions and functional managers' performance in HR have come into focus again after the economic crises of 2007 (e.g. Murphy, and Murrmann, 2009; Zigan and Zeglat, 2010). The majority of this research has shed light on soft skills (such as employees' rewards, selecting and retaining staff, and training competencies with regard to personality etc).

CSFs and KPIs are extensively used in hotels to help identify and set the relevant (financial, organisational, operational) performance measurements including intangible indicators. KPIs are quantifiable measurements reflecting hotels' CSFs (Brotherton and Shaw, 1996). In some studies however, these terms do not seem clear as there are overlapping categorisations where the two are sometimes mixed (Harris and Mongiello, 2001; Melia and Robinson, 2010).

The CSF approach was first used in hospitality by Geller (1985) in designing hotel information systems within the American hospitality industry. Since then several studies have identified CSF and KPIs in different fields of hospitality researched by Griffin (1995), Hinkin and Tracy (1995), Collie and Sparks (1999), Ottenbacher et al (2005) and DiPietro et al (2007). In addition, seven research works have attempted to explore and identify CSFs and KPIs in different hotel sections. Brotherton and Shaw (1996), in their exploratory study, identify CSFs and their associated KPIs (they call them Critical Performance Indicators) in different UK hotel functional areas (front office, F&B service, F&B production, conference and banqueting, leisure operations, back of house, marketing and sales, human resource management, accounting and control and guest accommodation). They also make a distinction of KPIs as to whether they belong to Technical/Hard (concerned with economy and efficiency) or Human/Soft (concerned with effectiveness, staff attitude, skill, moral and training/development) categories. Brotherton (2004) has tested these outcomes in larger numbers (154 hotels) and the empirical results show that 56 out of the 59 original CSFs from the 1996 study have been found to be statistically significant. In a comparative study (Brotherton et al, 2002) investigating UK and Dutch budget hotels on a cross-cultural basis, internal and external CSFs are identified. In European hotel properties, Harris and Mongiello (2001) have identified KPIs based on research with hotel general managers. The study explores the match between the KPIs used by general managers, their interpretation of the indicators and the use made of the indicators for decision making. *“The most surprising evidence is that, even where the finance indicators are the most used, they are not so prominent as to dominate the general managers' behaviour”* (2001:122). Wu's (2006) study explores CSFs for Taiwan international tourist hotels. The results indicate that internal CSFs comprise departmental/functional CSFs which relate to hotel operations whereas external CSFs connect to organisation, marketing and sales, customer and finance, and human resource management. Melia's and Robinson's (2010) study with 134 hotel operators in small and medium size Irish hotels indicates that the most important CSF is the infrastructure and products of the hotel, the second is the location of the hotel, the third is the high rate of customer care and satisfaction and the fourth is the staff providing the products and services of the hotel. The most recent study of Wadongo et al, (2010) has examined the impact of managerial characteristics of KPIs in the Kenyan hotel industry by randomly selecting 160 hospitality managers from six hotels in Nairobi and Mombasa. The results show that hospitality managers focus on financial and result measures of performance and ignore non-financial and determinant measures. Also

managers' age, education, current position, functional area, and performance appraisal influence their choice of KPIs. Table 11 illustrates a synthesis of the most significant CSFs and their related KPIs that have been found important in hotel performance measurements by Brotherton and Shaw, (1996); Brotherton et al, (2003); Brotherton, (2004); Harris and Mongiello, (2001); Melia and Robinson, (2010) and Wadongo et al, (2010). A more detailed summary is provided in *Appendix 3*. These kinds of analyses have not been carried out in Hungary which makes the present thesis relevant and distinctive.

Table 11. Summary of the most significant CSFs and their associated KPIs which were found important in hotel performance measurement (author's own)

| The CSFs | The KPIs |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| employees' attitude | customer feedback |
| effective recruitment and selection | staff turnover |
| increase market shares | benchmark against competitors, volume of sales |
| strategic plan/management | performance assessment (financial and non-financial) |
| customer relationship | customer feedback, customer payment time, number of returning customers |
| quality service | mystery shopping, awards |
| innovation and investment | ROI, RevPar, training and development |

To develop criteria in order to evaluate functional managers in different types of job categories is a complex task and difficult to measure. Traditionally, in the hotel industry, the focus has been on short-term results, therefore hotel managers have been mainly assessed on control expenses and profitability measures (Umbreit, 1986). Concerning manager's behaviour in relation to performance, Smith and Kendall (1963) have developed the behaviourally-anchored rating scale (BARS) which has been applied in the service industry in different defined forms for more than 40 years now (Campbell et al (1973). Umbreit (1986) refines BARS by validating hotel managers' performance dimensions via a thorough process during which 7 independent criteria and the behavioural statements of each criteria for appraising hotel manager performance are defined (Table 12). After management-by-objectives (48%) BARS is found to be the second most used (37%) appraisal format by hotel managers. Umbreit points out that hotel performance appraisal system other than BARS might include the following dimensions: business strategy, customer relations, communication, team building, employee development and change development (2003:589). Siddiqui's (2003:149) research has also found that most university faculty members agreed that BARS should be applied as an appraisal system in their performance measuring system. Hauenstein's et al (2010) study on the other hand questions the methodologically appropriate application. The anchoring scale has been found successful if the

full-range is applied but not with the shorten version of BARS. Therefore careful attention needs to be paid to who applies the BARS method and how.

Table 12. Performance dimensions of hotel managers (adopted Umbreit, 1986:5)

| Performance Dimensions | Description |
|---|--|
| Handling guest complaints and promoting guest relations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provides assistance to guests • handles guest complaints either in writing or by visiting with guests personally • provides restitution or instructs staff to correct service |
| Developing market strategy and monitoring sales programs | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • evaluates and approves sales strategies • alters strategy and market mix and shifts sales emphasis when necessary • monitors sales, public relations, and advertising efforts |
| Communicating with employees | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • attends departmental staff meetings and involves subordinates in discussions • visits with executive committee regularly on personal basis • uses memos to communicate special instructions and policies to departments • disseminates financial and other operating information to subordinates • conducts periodic meetings with employees |
| Motivating and modifying behaviour | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • establishes motivational programs • congratulates staff on a job well done when warranted • provides encouragement • modifies behaviour when appropriate |
| Implementing policy, making decisions and delegating responsibility | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • implements corporate policy and guides policy development • prepares fiscal plans and budget documentation • establishes controls • makes decisions • modifies organization structure • initiates purchase orders and signs contracts • delegates authority and responsibility to subordinates |
| Monitoring operations and maintaining product quality | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • monitors daily operations • assures established standards and product quality are consistently maintained • institutes inspection programs • tours the property and notifies department heads of problems • attends to the safety and security of guests and their possessions |
| Handling personnel responsibilities | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • develops an effective wage administration program for all positions • implements and monitors a systematic performance review program • approves promotions • terminates subordinates when necessary • engages in coaching and counselling of subordinates • supervises the training and development of managerial employees |

Umbreit’s performance dimensions implies a good foundation to the present thesis as it assembles those CSFs and KPIs that can measure hotel functional managers both on task-

related and contextually related performance levels (Harris and Mongiello, 2001). In the next section task- and contextual performance are introduced and explained.

2.5.10 Task and contextual performance of hotel managers

Naturally both task- and contextual performance are important in performance management and measurements. Kuslavan (2003) however, implies that in the hospitality industry where there is a continuous interaction with guests and co-workers, contextual performance plays an even more essential role. Contextual performance also influences guest satisfaction, team effectiveness, intention not to leave (Chen et al, 1998) and indirectly organisational financial outcomes (Cohen, 1999). Measuring contextual performance explicitly is equally vital as if assessment is not cautiously designed compared to task performance it can be subject to bias (Bolino et al, 2006). Consequently identifying CSFs and then measuring them with appropriate KPIs are inevitable in developing an effective performance management system.

Behaviour directly relates to what managers do which further contributes to team and organisational success or failure (Boyatzis, 1982). Hotel managers can be more effective if certain behaviour outcomes are realised and opportunity is given to correct weaknesses (Umbreit, 1986). Hutchinson and Purcell (2002) believe if managers are able to build an effective team by helping and supporting their employees through a good working relationship, it then encourages discretionary behaviour which is associated with high performance. The roots of behaviour either consciously or unconsciously are deep down in personality traits and attitudes (Ajzen, 2005). According to Zeidner et al (2004) emotional intelligence is claimed to influence various work behaviours, such as employee commitment, teamwork, development of talent, innovation, quality of service, and customer loyalty. When hotel managers understand and can manage their own and others' emotions it is likely to influence job attitude, behaviour and contribute to effective performance (Rozell et al, 2004). Boon et al (2014) in their research have found that more time is devoted to extra effort if there is less task requirement.

2.5.11 Hotels' organisational culture

The tourism industry and within it especially the hospitality sector, can be described through the diverse organisational cultural theories and experimental studies.

In their four-cultural typology model Deal and Kennedy (2000) describe tourism within the service sector (especially restaurant) as a 'work hard, play hard' industry. The characteristics

of this culture are to give rapid feedback and reward, where workload rather than uncertainty is the stress source. High speed actions and reactions are vital. Hospitality can also claim to exhibit a task-culture described by Handy (1993) as organisational units with highly skilled specialised people who are motivated by problem solving. Natural, factors such as the history, function, goals and objectives, size and location of a hotel as well as the business and political environment influence hotel's organisational culture. Kemp and Dwyer (2001) use Johnson's (1992) 'cultural web' framework to describe hotel's cultures. The cultural web actually explains how culture influences employees' behaviour and what impact it has on the organisation (Kemp and Dwyer, 2001). In the web, different information about the culture lie in diverse paradigms such as in documents, annual reports, informal discussions, people actions, signals etc. To observe a hotel organisational culture, one needs to be familiar with both the artefacts and underlining assumptions (Kemp and Dwyer, 2001). The experimental study with The Regent Hotel in Sydney has revealed that decentralised power structure, goals shared by employees` and the organisation, organisational stability and growth and careful resource planning are the elements that create a successful organisational culture (Kemp and Dwyer, 2001:90). A decentralised structure focus is external which in Cameron and Quinn's (2006) framework would characterise 'adhocracy' and 'market' organisational cultures. On the other hand organisational shared goals, careful resources planning and stability values collide with internal focus such as 'clan' and 'hierarchy' culture. It would suggest that the four Cameron-Quinn cultures each have significant elements that can trigger successful culture. Therefore the question is not whether which hotel culture is better but rather if the culture, management's strategy and employees' values are in harmony to enable effective work and business success.

Glover (1988) argues that in the hospitality industry, organisational culture is viewed as an expected behavioural "cult" which is often ineffective and the cradle of problems. According to him (Glovers, 1988) a proactive organisational culture has to be created where the focus is on quality service. It includes both employees' compliance with the standardised rules (set by organisation and managers), and managers' proactive behaviour. The characteristics and contrast of proactive and reactive organisational culture in the hospitality industry is summarised in *Appendix 4*. The proactive elements show similarities with transactional and transformational leadership where values are in focus, either provided by the leader or individuals recognizing their values via the inspiration of the leader (Bass and Riggio, 2008).

Proactive hotel culture is concerned with the cooperation of the stakeholders, two-way communication, a consensus method of decision making, teamwork, induction and further training, giving quality service to guests, using information and feedback from guests and employees, consistent delivery according to expected standards, a focus on having the product or service delivered correctly the first time, supporting and appraising employees, keeping good people in the organisation and focusing on long-term performance (Glover, 1988:10-14). The British Hospitality Association '*Excellence Through People*' program likewise requires good employment practitioners to recruit and select employees with care, offer a competitive employment package, develop skills and performance, communicate effectively, and recognise and reward staff (Mullins, 2001:453).

Based on the experimental study using in-depth interviews, document analysis and observations Ogbonna and Harris (2002:48) conclude that culture change in hospitality must be regarded as a '*continuum rather than as a dichotomous event*'. The research findings have identified key and loyal core workers with whom managers should design future cultural changes in order to secure changes for longer periods. The other outcome of the study suggests that with insightful value changes the common misbelief about the characteristics of the hospitality industry (such as low payment, long hours, gender inequality etc.) and emotional dissatisfaction of employees might be remunerated (Ogbonna and Harris, 2002). While managers and front-line staff have seemed aware of the concept of organisational culture and difference that cultural change can bring, peripheral staff have appeared unwilling to adapt to an established cultural value system (Ogbonna and Harris, 2002).

Davidson (2003) claims that there is a relationship between service qualities of hotels and good organisational climate where employees are the key success of the business. He calls attention to the need to differentiate the two terms culture and climate which are interchangeably used at times. Although both notions describe the working environment of the organisational culture (anthropological approach) describe how one culture is unique and distinct from another, climate (psychological approach) identifies the way organisational members interact (Davidson et al., 2001:445). While climate is based on attributes, it may change quicker than culture which is more about the organisation's implicit aspects and core values (Cameron, 2008). Organisational culture is rather about the interpretation of the implicit, what and how something happens, whereas climate is about the explicit and noticeable elements (Cameron, 2008).

Davidson et al (2001) have developed and later (2004) revised and shortened *Tourism and Hospitality Organizational Climate Scale* (THOCS). Through seven dimensions they are able offer a reason to employees' turnover intention and explain staff perception of customer satisfaction. The seven components are: leader facilitation and support; professional and organisational spirit; conflict and ambiguity; workgroup cooperation; regulation, organisation and pressure; job variety, challenge and autonomy; and job standard (Davidson et al., 2001:453-454). The revised and developed instrument (THOCS-R) contains the first 4 dimensions as it has been found to explain employee turnover intention and perception of customer satisfaction the most (Manning et al., 2004:86). The THOCS has not been applied in other studies as far as it is known. Although it would be interesting to repeat this study in Hungary, for this thesis it would not be applicable as THOCS is about organisational climate and not about culture.

Kemp and Dwyer (2001:91) urge researchers to carry out studies that explore the subcultures in hotels focusing on "*the role of individual elements of culture on organisation performance of hospitality organisations*". Cameron's (2001) study supports the phenomena of subcultures existence within organisational culture. His research has investigated chief occupational culture and has compared it to organisational culture of the hotel chain. The study has found that the two may have overlapping elements but "*often managers fail to link issues of occupational culture to organisational climate*" (Cameron, 2001:112). Cameron (2001) has applied Douglas' original (1978 in Cameron, 2001) and Mars and Nicod developed (1984) grid-group analysis in hospitality to depict the relationship between occupational culture and chefs' behaviours. Figure 7 exhibits the four dimensions of the model applied to hotels. The *entrepreneurial hotels* value independent and competitive individualists who may network more with external stakeholders than peers (mid-size boutique hotels), while in *craft hotels* (individual hotels) employees are more isolated and controlled, there is hardly any autonomy. In *bureaucratic hotels* the division of labour is managed by formal and standardised regulations (mainly hotel chains) while in *traditional hotels* (small and independently run family hotels) there is a family kind of atmosphere where togetherness is important, rules, orders and standardised procedures are minimised (Cameron, 2001; Mars, 2008). The majority of hotels can be described as having a weak grid and strong group culture, which is the traditional (clan) culture. Cameron's (2001:110) research challenges this idea stating that occupational culture is more extensively diffused through the quadrants. It implies a warning to management to take occupational culture, which is a functional area in a hotel, into consideration instead of focusing only on a single-culture organisation.

**Figure 7. Grid-group four-dimension classification defined and applied to hotel structure
(Based on Mars and Nicod, 1984:126-127 and Cameron, 2001: 110)**

| | | |
|-------------|--|--|
| GRID | <p><i>strong/high</i></p> <p>Craft hotels</p> <p>Grid:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • precisely defined roles • limited individual scope • autonomy and entrepreneurial activity <p>Group:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • corporate and occupational groups • organisational group engage in selective screening • no ambiguity, behaviour schemata is defined by group | <p>Bureaucratic hotels</p> <p>Grid:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • precisely defined roles • limited individual scope • autonomy and entrepreneurial activity <p>Group:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • individuals are subordinated to group • control and high sense of belonging are expected from the group |
| | <p>Entrepreneurial hotels</p> <p>Grid:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • individuals free in competitions with others • status judged chiefly by merit <p>Group:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • corporate and occupational groups • organisational group engage in selective screening • no ambiguity, behaviour schemata is defined by group | <p>Traditional hotels</p> <p>Grid:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • individuals free in competitions with others • status judged chiefly by merit <p>Group:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • individuals are subordinated to group control and high sense of belongingness is expected from the group |

GROUP

weak/low

strong/high

It could be stated that the Mars and Nicod's (1984) grid approach revives in Cameron's organisational framework where the entrepreneurial hotel is an equivalent to adhocracy culture, craft hotel to market, bureaucratic hotel to hierarchy and traditional hotel to clan culture. Gyórfi (2009) describes the Hungarian hospitality culture as a non-competitive thinking arena where untruthfulness and conflicts are present within and outside the hotels. In others sectors, previous research indicates that the majority of Hungarian organisations have clan or hierarchy dominant cultures, both of which are characterised by internal focus (Bogdány, 2014).

Based on the introduced organisational culture frameworks Table 13 synthesises the similar dimensions that have been named differently.

Table 13. Comparing organisational culture frameworks (author's own)

| Author | culture dimension 1 | culture dimension 2 | culture dimension 3 | culture dimension 4 |
|--|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| Mars and Nicod (1984) and Cameron (2001) | traditional | bureaucratic | craft | entrepreneurial |
| Cameron and Freeman (1991), later Cameron and Quinn (2006) | clan | hierarchy | market | adhocracy |
| Handy (1993) | person | role | power | task |
| Mars (2008) | keep | pyramid | piazza | module |

2.5.12 Summary and conclusion

This part has introduced the application of emotional intelligence, individual performance and organisational culture within hospitality putting the focus on functional managers. Regarding service industry there are four major aspects that have been described: heterogeneity, intangibility, perishability and inseparability. There are many external and internal factors which influence hotels. For the sake of the thesis the focus has been on human (resources)-influenced inner elements. Hospitality is a labour intensive emotional workplace where physical and psychological demand is constant. Hospitality functional managers might have similar roles and are expected to have similar competencies as managers in other industries. However, there are a couple of industry and role specific characteristics that have been identified. Hospitality is a 24-hour guest-driven business with perishable and inseparable product and service. This means consumption takes place simultaneously and if a service is not consumed on the spot it is lost. This heavy burden requires functional managers to be alert and act positively regardless of their inner feelings or leadership competencies. Hotel employees are emotional labour from whom proactive work is required. The different role-expectation entails functional managers to come up to the expected behavioural pattern. A 21st century holistic approach towards managers is expected, which means emotional, cognitive and social competencies are required from hotel functional managers in order to achieve high performance. Several skills, abilities and traits have been identified most of which belong to interpersonal and emotional intelligence competences (e.g. perceiving and reacting to emotions). Functional managers nowadays are encouraged and expected to think and act as leaders because of the continuous immediate impulses which require quick action-taking, adaptability and firm emotional- and stress –control, in order to achieve positive personal and financial performance. Several studies in hospitality have confirmed that hotel managers are required to have above average people skills in order to lead their units effectively as well as to complete task- and contextual performance exceedingly. Other hospitality research has indicated that empathy, self-esteem and stress-management contribute significantly to

individual performance. Individual performance in hospitality has been measured by applying Critical Success Factors and Key Performance Indicators applying mainly the BARS model which has been built on Umbreit's performance dimensions of hotel managers. There have only been a limited number of studies which separately explore task and contextual performance in hospitality, and even fewer researches which have dealt with examining hotel managers. In Hungary, the performance of a hotel is only measured annually according to financial indicators (e.g. RevPar) by the Central Statistics Office but no reports or studies exist which have explored hotel employees' individual performance. Emotional intelligence study outcomes in hospitality have been found rather contradictory. Some have found that tenure (life-experience) and qualification can influence emotional intelligence level, while other studies have not found any evidence. Though all agree that there are gender differences, female managers are likely to have higher empathy levels, while their male counterparts have higher stress-control. These results resemble studies with other managers from different industries, which indicate that gender differences are not industry specific. The amount of research dealing with emotional intelligence training outcomes in hospitality are limited and restricted to mainly university students. The present research aims to broaden the studies with hospitality management. . In hospitality Cameron's study (2001) identified the four hotel organisation cultural types similar to the Competing Values of Leadership Framework and named them: craft, entrepreneurial, bureaucratic and traditional. Between 1985 and 2010 there have been 107 journal articles published about culture in hospitality (Chen et al, 2012). The majority deal with national culture (27%) while 24% examine organisational culture. These have either studied individual hotels or one functional area, but neither have examined functional managers across national hotels. Chen et al (2012) recommend that future research should focus on the relationship between organisational culture and employees' intention to stay (loyalty), performance and reward system. More specific research that investigates specific hotel culture perceived by managers should be carried out. Hotels are living organisms where there is continuous interaction between management, employees and guests. It is like a cultural web, where different information and people interact. It is also viewed as a cult where behaviour patterns are expected from employees which can trigger problems. As the majority of hotel studies have identified traditional clan and hierarchic cultures, the thesis presumes to find similar results in Hungarian hotels.

In the hospitality industry hardly any studies have been carried out to explore the internalisation of functional managers' emotional intelligence, individual performance and organisational culture. The thesis aims to fill this gap.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH THEORY, DESIGN, PROCESS AND APPLIED METHODS IN THE THESIS

The literature review identified the knowledge gap related to a robust, methodologically based emotional intelligence and its relationship to individual performance within a hotel culture study among functional managers. Before displaying the outcome of the present research, the methodology part introduces some theories and methods and the way they have been applied in the thesis. Table 14 illustrates the interrelation of methodological theories, definitions and their applications in the present research which is then described in detail below.

Table 14. Summary of methodological theories, their definitions and realisation in the thesis (author’s own table based on the theories of Bryman and Bell, 2011; Easterby-Smith et al, 1991; Gilbert, 2008; Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2010; Veal, 2011:143).

| Methodological terms and theories | Definition | The thesis |
|-------------------------------------|---|---|
| Concept of the research | It explores an area of interest which was previously unknown with an original contribution to an existing knowledge with a new aspect. | Examines the relationship between hotel functional managers’ emotional intelligence and their performance level within organisational culture. |
| Deductive and inductive | <i>Deductive theory</i> is transforming general ideas to particular ones via hypotheses that are empirically tested. <i>Inductive theory</i> focuses on observing empirical reality from which a theory is developed. | Deductive: setting hypotheses to test Inductive: developing performance measurement tools based on interviews with hotel managers |
| Positivism and phenomenology | <i>Positivism</i> is an epistemological focus that is connected with the study of social reality, what we accept as valid knowledge. <i>Phenomenology</i> is an ontological position dealing with the nature of reality and social entities | The thesis uses a positivist approach taking an epistemological view by objectively measuring emotional intelligence, performance and organisational culture and separating the researcher from the research concept. |
| Quantitative and qualitative | <i>Quantitative</i> methods adopt a deductive approach which has a main objective testing or verifying a theory. <i>Qualitative</i> research seeks to offer insights into deep levels of human beings by capturing people acts and the way they interpret their world. | The research applies both methodologies: Qualitative to gain data to develop facets to measure performance. Quantitative to explore the relationship between the three (EQ, performance, organisational culture) variables. |
| Triangulation | Triangulation exploits the strengths of the quantitative and qualitative approaches. | The thesis makes use of triangulation as both quantitative and qualitative methods are used (see above). This includes action research with one of the hotels. |
| Research design and process | It describes a plan of how a research is carried out differentiating among exploratory, descriptive or casual approaches. The process includes a set of activities that are systematically built upon each other such as : | The thesis is an exploratory research investigating the relationship of the variables which has not yet been depicted this way. The research process of the thesis is illustrated in Figure 9. |

| | | |
|--|---|--|
| | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. identifying a research topic, problem and purpose 2. reviewing literature 3. specifying research questions and/or determining hypotheses (if applicable) 4. collecting data 5. analysing and interpreting data 6. evaluating and reporting research | |
|--|---|--|

3.1. Research theory

3.1.1 The philosophy and concept of the research

Although the concept of research has been defined in various ways all embrace the key idea of “*making known something previously unknown*” (Veal, 2011:5). It is a process of gathering and analysing information to enable people’s understanding of a particular issue or area. Regarding Veal’s (2011) idea of a concept of a research the thesis aims is to explore an area which has only been partly researched, but not as a complex phenomenon. There have been studies examining hotel managers’ emotional intelligence in relation to demographic and personal data (e.g. Sheila et al, 2008; Devi, 2012; Sliter et al, 2013) and also to individual performance (Hanzaeea and Mirvaisi, 2013) but these studies are limited either because the sample size (smaller than 90), or area of research (mainly students or hotel unit or subordinates). Examining hotel functional managers’ trait emotional intelligence in relation to their task and contextual performance has not been studied yet. In this sense the thesis reveals some connections of the factors that have previously been unknown.

According to Kerlinger (1986) people can gain information by authority, by institution or by scientific method. The last appears to be the most informative, especially if it is well founded and characterised by control and replication. Veal (2011) argues that replication is a requirement in scientific research (mostly in the physical and natural sciences) but in social sciences which deal with people, the scientific approach and methods must be tailored or rejected. In the present thesis methodologically founded and tested measurements have been applied which enable replication. The trait emotional intelligence test (TEIQue, see in part 2.2.4) is valid and has been applied in more than 24 countries independently of national culture, likewise the organisation culture measurement (OCAI, see in part 2.4.2) is a methodologically firm and widely applied test. The task and contextual performance measuring tool has been developed and validated according to statistically and methodologically based requirements.

Most methodology books and doctoral schools require a piece of research to be ‘original’ or to make an ‘original contribution to knowledge’, but one needs to be careful not to misunderstand the term ‘original’. Ghauri and Grønhaug (2010) describe originality as a new aspect of already existing knowledge. Research can be carried out by different groups having diverse interests and motivation such as academics, students, governments, commercial and non-profit organisations, managers and consultants (Veal, 2011). The originality of the present thesis is the examination of the relationship between the three variables (EQ, individual performance and organisational culture) in the geographic and specific samples (Hungarian hotels’ functional managers).

According to Creswell (2008:3) research consists of three steps: posing a question, collecting data to answer the question and presenting an answer to the question. Research triggers an understanding of sometimes even evident individual or organisational phenomena. In this respect the present thesis aims to pose research questions on which research hypotheses are based. Then research hypotheses are tested and results are analysed and linked back to previous study outcomes.

3.1.2 Deductive and inductive theory

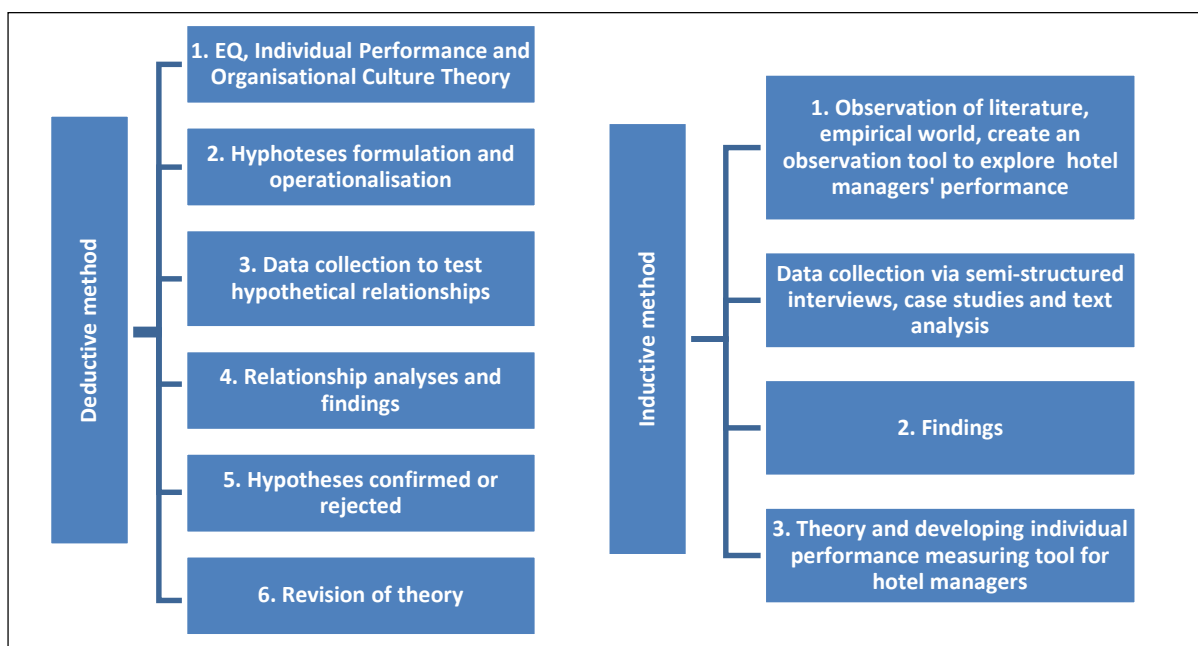
Deductive theory presents the relationship between theory and research, it transforms general ideas into particular ones (Collins et al, 2003; Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2010). It deduces a hypothesis (or hypotheses) that is/are subjected to empirical investigation. The hypothesis illuminates concepts that are further broken down into researchable units. It must then be followed by data collection, which leads researchers to interpret findings to confirm or reject the hypothesis. As a final step findings are linked back to theory (Bryman, 2011, Finn et al, 2000). In this linear process one step clearly and logically follows the next step. The deductive process has numerous vital features (Saunders *at al.*, 2009:117-118):

- a search to explain causal relationship between variables
- control to allow the testing of hypotheses
- involves the use of highly structured methodology
- enables high level of objectivity
- operationalized concepts allow facts to be measured quantitatively
- problems are better understood due to reductionism
- allows generalisation as an outcome

Inductive theory, on the other hand, follows a reverse outline, after observing empirical reality, a theory is developed (Collins et al, 2003; Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2010) which is the outcome of the research. It is argued that in social sciences inductive theory is gaining wider acceptance due to the fact that it aims to investigate small samples of specific human behaviours in certain circumstances. The inductive approach is associated with qualitative research methods while deductive theory is linked to quantitative research methodology. However, one needs to be careful to draw the conclusion that there are clear cut boundaries between the two theories. Bryman suggests they be regarded as “*tendencies rather than as hard-and-fast distinctions*” (2011:14).

This research work applies both approaches: inductive process is used as a form of exploratory study in order to develop the performance measurement tool. This instrument acts as a basis of the deductive method in which the theory is tested by hypotheses. Inductive method is the best in a case to discover the specific KPIs and CSFs of hotel managers’ individual performance. Deductive method in the thesis allows to examine proposals about the relationship between emotional intelligence, individual performance and organisational culture. Figure 8 illustrates the process of inductive and deductive approaches in the present research.

Figure 8. The way deductive and inductive methods are applied in the thesis



3.1.3 Assumption of the main paradigms: positivism and phenomenology

Two main paradigms can be clearly distinguished: *positivistic* and *phenomenological* paradigms. Positivism is an epistemological focus that is connected with the study of social reality, what we accept as valid knowledge, while phenomenology is an ontological position dealing with the nature of reality and social entities (Bryman, 2011, Collins et al, 2003).

The positivistic paradigm is referred to by Creswell (1994) as quantitative and the phenomenological paradigm as qualitative. Reményi et al (1998) argue that phenomenology and positivism are not totally different when it comes to generalising their findings. The phenomenological approach is holistic while positivism adopts a reductive approach which allows simplification of the real world. The two approaches should not be regarded as extremes and separate approaches but as an opportunity for this thesis to opt to combine them.

Creswell (1994) deals with the three paradigms of research considering the positivist and phenomenological approach. Ontological assumptions intend to find the answer to the question whether the nature of the research is objective or subjective. The epistemological assumption regards the question as to whether research acts as an expert or rather as a participant. Finally the methodological assumption implies whether the research is deductive or inductive in nature. Table 15 illustrates the characteristics of these assumptions in detail.

Table 15. Moulds of the three paradigms (adapted Creswell, 1994:5)

| Assumptions | Question | Positivism/Quantitative | Phenomenological/Qualitative |
|------------------------|--|--|---|
| Ontological | What is the nature of reality? | Reality is objective and singular (except the researcher). | Reality is subjective and interpreted differently by participants in a research. |
| Epistemological | What is the relationship of researcher to that research? | Researcher and research concept(s) are independent from each other. | Researcher interacts with what is being researched. |
| Methodological | What is the process? | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - deductive process (cause and effect) - static design - context-free (generalisation leading to prediction, accurate and reliable through validity and reliability) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - inductive process (mutual simultaneous shaping of factors) - emerging design - context-bound (theories developed for understanding, accurate and reliable through verification) |

The thesis takes a positivist approach with an epistemological view by objectively measuring emotional intelligence, performance and organisational culture and separating the researcher from the research concept.

3.1.3 Quantitative and qualitative approach

Although the quantitative method has been regarded by some as more ‘scientific’ and better, a growing number of academics (e.g. Gilberts, 2008) have argued that a method cannot be better just because it is quantitative. Procedure and not quality is the major difference between the two approaches (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2010). According to Bryman and Bell (2011) the major difference is that while quantitative researchers apply measurements, qualitative researchers do not. Quantitative research dates back to the late 19th century coming from the physical and social sciences. In research methodology literature three trends have developed: statistical procedures, test and measurement practices, and research designs (Creswell, 2008). The characteristics of quantitative research derive from these trends and put the emphasis on the following:

- collecting and analysing information in figures form
- collecting scores that measure different individual and organisational aspects
- the process of comparing clusters or factors about individuals and groups in surveys, studies and experiments

Regarding the research process the quantitative method adopts a deductive approach which has a main objective of testing or verifying a theory (Bryman and Bell, 2011). The main research is objectively constructed, precise and reliable, the experimentation leads to explanations of causation and aims either to describe a trend or explain the relationship among variables (Creswell, 2008). Literature review plays an essential part in quantitative research firstly to justify the research problem and secondly to provide purposes and research questions (Creswell, 1994). According to Gilbert (2008) one of the problems of the quantitative approach lies in its technicality which may exclude choice and freedom.

Qualitative research developed in the late 1800s, early 1900s in the field of social sciences such as sociology and anthropological reports. Similar to the quantitative approach three paths have been developed: philosophical ideas, procedural developments and participatory and advocacy practices (Creswell, 2008). The main features of qualitative research are that, as a researcher, one:

- has to recognise the importance of paying attention to the participants taking part in the investigation
- collects data from people in their living and working environments

- needs to recognise that the aim of the research is to support change to improve individuals' lives

Qualitative research seeks to offer insights into deep levels of human beings (Gilbert, 2008) by capturing people acts, utterances, behaviour and the way they interpret their world and understand viewpoints (Easterby-Smith et al, 1991). Research is set in a 'real world'; it is subjective and involves fewer participants than quantitative approach (Finn et al, 2000). There are among others two major limitations of this method: on the one hand, that data collection, analysis and interpretation are time-consuming (Creswell, 2008) and on the other hand, reliability and validity standards are difficult to apply (Gilbert, 2008, Creswell, 1994).

3.1.4 Triangulation

Triangulation exploits the strengths of the quantitative and qualitative approach, as it *"involves the use of more than one approach in a single study to gain a broader or more complete understanding of the issue being investigated"* (Veal, 2011:143). Triangulation allows the researchers to use different methods to gain diverse information of the same topic as well as to analyse data in diverse ways and to check how robust those findings are. Furthermore, it allows for a higher degree of reliability and validity to produce a holistic, more complete representation of the investigated issue and to develop a report that is accurate and credible (Creswell, 2008; Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2010, Veal, 2011).

Although the triangulation technique enables researchers to provide a broader understanding of an examined phenomenon, it has some limitations and pitfalls. Bryman (1988) for instance warns that inconsistent results can emerge due to the fact that triangulation may not suit every issue and it is difficult to replicate. Nevertheless triangulation can provide a more in-depth and multi-dimensional perspective of a matter if researchers pay careful attention to the drawbacks. Easterby-Smith et al (1991) differentiate four types of triangulation which enable researchers to apply the combination of quantitative and qualitative methods in either some or all stages of their research:

- data triangulation
- investigator triangulation
- methodological triangulation
- triangulation of theories

The present research applies a methodological triangulation by combining the quantitative and qualitative approaches to understanding and investigating functional managers' emotional intelligence, individual performance and organisational culture relationship phenomena more thoroughly.

3.1.5 Quality of research

Researchers must also think of the quality of the study which can very much depend on the method applied. Validity means that the research has been carried out accurately and reflects the phenomena investigated, the result is meaningful and enables researchers to draw appropriate conclusions (Veal, 2011). The three different forms of validity are (Creswell, 2008):

- *content validity*: the questions and the scores from the questions are representative of the investigated area
- *criterion-related validity*: determines how well the scores on the instrument either relate to an outcome or predict a future outcome
- *construct validity*: verify if scores from the instrument have a purpose, they are useful, significant and meaningful

Reliability means consistent and stable scores from the instrument, testing is standardised and participants do not misunderstand questions; furthermore the test and the whole research produce similar results if it is repeated (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Veal 2011). Out of the five presented procedures, researchers can use any (Creswell, 2008):

- *test-retest reliability*: the same test is used twice but at different times with the same participants at an adequate interval
- *alternative forms reliability*: two instruments measuring the same variables used with the same group of people
- *alternate forms and test-retest reliability*: is a mixture of test-retest and alternative forms of reliability
- *interrater reliability*: is an observation of individual's behaviour
- *internal consistency reliability*: individual's scores are reliable and accurate across the items on the instrument

Besides the merits, Saunders et al (2008) also call attention to some of the threats. Reliability can be exposed to subject or participant error, subject or participant bias, observer error or observer bias. As for validity it is essential to take the following into account. The testing may not reflect the phenomenon measured as participants may drop out of the study or are exposed

to an event or change with time. Another issue is generalizability for quantitative research. However, a valid but not generalizable outcome is useful for informing practice in the setting in which it was carried out.

The reliability tests of the thesis variables are describe later in this chapter.

3.2 Research design and process

Research design is “*the overall plan for relating the conceptual research problem to relevant and practicable empirical research*” (Ghuri and Grønhaug, 2010:54). Based on the problem structure three research designs can be differentiated: exploratory, descriptive and causal. Exploratory research aims to investigate a problem or situation which is less understood. In descriptive research the problem is clear, its main purposes are to describe, explain, and validate findings. Causal research investigates the effect of one subject or variable on another and tells to what extent it results in effect(s). (Saunders et al 2009).

Depending on the field, aims and circumstances, research can be carried out by academics, field experts, and specialists from the public/political sector or private companies. Researchers need to take into consideration if the study is carried out individually or with collaboration since apart from the aim, the stakeholders’ purpose can also influence research design and outcomes.

Research is regarded as a process including a set of activities that are systematically built upon each other. Hardly any outline of the research process differs from the following steps (Creswell, 2008; Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2010):

1. identifying a research topic, problem and purpose
2. reviewing literature
3. specifying research questions and/or determining hypotheses (if applicable)
4. collecting data
5. analysing and interpreting data
6. evaluating and reporting research

In the following each step is elaborated.

3.2.1 Identifying a research topic, problem and purpose

To identify the research problem a distinction of research topic, problem, purpose and question has to be made (Creswell, 2008; Saunders et al, 2009; Bryman and Bell, 2011):

- *research topic* is a broad subject matter, a phenomenon or theme to be studied
- *research problem* is a general issue retracting from the topic
- *research purpose* is the objective of the study to address a problem

3.2.2 Literature review

A good literature review is a written and critical summary of relevant books, journals, documents, conference papers. Creswell (2008) argues that quantitative research requires substantial cited literature that provides a rationale for the direction of the study which in the end confirms or disconfirms prior predictions from the literature while on the other hand qualitative research requires a minimal amount of literature. One needs to be careful to select reliable resources; libraries and international databases can provide essential help.

3.2.3 Specifying research questions and/or determining hypotheses (if applicable)

Both the quantitative and qualitative approaches use research questions but only the quantitative approach develops a research model and hypotheses. Hypotheses are statements deriving from research questions and predict the outcome of the relationships among the investigated elements (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2010).

3.2.4 Collecting data

First, the term data needs to be categorized into primary and secondary. Primary data are first-hand information collected by the researchers while secondary data are facts collected by others previously (Reményi et al, 1998). There are advantages and disadvantages to both types, but undoubtedly applying both in a research project provides a holistic and valid view (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2010). Table 16 reflects on some major advantages and disadvantages of both methods of data collection.

Table 16. Advantages and disadvantages of primary and secondary data collection (based on Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2010)

| | primary data | secondary data |
|----------------------|---|--|
| Advantages | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - collected for the particular study - consistent with the research questions and objectives - gathers information which might not be available other ways - gives insight into personal issues (such as behaviour, attitude etc.) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - highly qualified and reliable as collected by national/international organisations and governments - cross-cultural sources enable international comparison - can suggest suitable methods to handle a particular research problem |
| Disadvantages | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - takes a long time to collect - difficult to access - problem of which tools and methods to use - researcher has less degree to control data collection - quality and scope of information gathered | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - collected for another study with different aim - it can be biased |

Taking data types into consideration, primary data can relate to status, state of affairs (e.g. demographic, socio-economic), psychological, lifestyle, attitude, awareness, knowledge and behaviour, whereas secondary data can be either internal (e.g. company report, invoices) or external which can further be divided into published (e.g. research report) or commercial (e.g. in-shop research) (Collins et al, 2003). As the nature of the thesis is an exploratory study it takes the path of collecting primary data.

Quantitative and qualitative methods apply different data collecting techniques. Case studies, group discussions and historical reviews are mainly qualitative research methods using conversation, unstructured or semi-structured interviews as qualitative techniques to collect data. Survey and experiment are rather quantitative methods using structured observations, structured interviews, structured surveys, attitude scaling and field equipment (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2010).

Performance measurement has to be developed for this thesis. Therefore interviews with hotel managers are regarded the best way to collect primary data, which then serve as case studies to collect KPIs and CSFs to measure functional managers' performance.

Case studies observe a single case or cases intensively at a point in time investigating individuals or small groups (Veal, 2011). A case study can be both used for exploratory purposes, but it can also provide a firm base for further quantitative research (Yin (2009). There is a differentiation between a case study that consist of one or a few cases and cross-case studies including many cases (Veal, 2011). Yin (2009) defines the four basic designs of four case

studies. A case study can be single or multiple depending on the number of cases carried out. Furthermore single and multiple cases can be holistic (an examination covers the whole organisation, e.g. strategy) or embedded (examining a particular area of an organisation, e.g. performance assessment). As described by Veal (2011:347) there are four types of case study selection method: purposive, illustrative, typical/atypical and pragmatic/opportunistic. Purposive method can be applied when there are multiple cases from different industries to compare and contrast similarities and differences. When there is a purpose to show likelihood and cases are deliberately chosen then an illustrative method is applied. If a research aim is to focus on the best and worst cases a typical/atypical method is used. Pragmatic/opportunistic case selection occurs when the researcher has access to a company that otherwise would be difficult to approach.

According to Ghauri and Grønhaug (2010:114) there is no upper and lower requirements on the numbers of cases needed to be in the research. Flyvbjerg (2006) also calls attention to the misconception that if a researcher cannot generalise from a single case it cannot be regarded as a valuable research outcome. Additionally he warns about 4 other misunderstandings of case studies:

- practical knowledge has less value than theoretical knowledge
- that case study is the most useful to generate hypotheses
- it is biased
- it is difficult to summarise

There are among others however, two major limitations of the case study method: on the one hand, the data collection, analysis and interpretation are time-consuming (Creswell, 2008) and on the other hand reliability and validity standards are difficult to apply (Gilbert, 2008, Creswell, 1994)

Reliability of case study methods is therefore dubious as it is impossible to do a replication. Nonetheless it has the merit of being flexible in data collection and can be applied as pre-research (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2010). Yin (2009) recommends considering three main methods to analyse case studies:

- *pattern-matching logic*: expecting and identifying similarities with the results from the case study(s) with previous theories or research that have been carried out either in the same or different fields of study/population;

- *explanation building technique*: starts with an open-ended research question where the aim is to develop an explanation as to what has been found and compare these findings to the theory/previous outcomes;
- *time-series analyses*: by examining key events in chronology clarification of the pattern and might indicate possible relationships

According to Veal (2011) all three can be applied simultaneously in a case study. Bonoma (1985) also suggests a process model for case research. The drift stage is early in the research to learn the concept and terminologies. The design stage is when the needed data is collected to develop research questions. The prediction stage is a middle-stage and is when the researcher understands and groups the information accordingly. The last stage is disconfirmation to test the research outcomes.

Case studies are based on interviews in the research. Interviews should be constructed carefully and researchers are expected to take the following into consideration (Creswell, 2008):

- identify interviewee(s)
- type of interview
- how to record interview
- setting of the interview
- obtaining consent from interviewee(s)
- have a plan, but be flexible
- use probes to obtain additional information
- be courteous and professional when the interview is over

The advantages and disadvantages of the three main interview types - structured, unstructured and semi-structured - are depicted in Table 17. The semi-structured interview type has been regarded as a golden mean (Finn et al, 2000).

The research literature (e.g. Bryman and Bell, 2011) also mentions in-depth interviews which have the advantage of providing a more accurate picture of the respondents. This type of data collection is suitable for exploratory and inductive research. Nevertheless there are two major disadvantages: a skilled and expert interviewer is required and can be time consuming. Interviews are basically carried out either personally, by phone (online as well) or by mail (e-mail too) and can be a pre-interview, post-interview or the interview itself.

**Table 17. Advantages and disadvantages of three types of interviews
(adapted from Finn et al, 2000:75)**

| Types of interview | Advantages | Disadvantages |
|------------------------|---|--|
| structured | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - same questions are asked from the interviewees to enable response comparability - statistical techniques used to analyse data easily | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - little flexibility, standardised wording may restrain responses - some pre-determined questions can be irrelevant |
| unstructured | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - interviewer is flexible about the questions asked - interviewer allows interviewee to freely express his/her ideas with own words | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - data analysis is difficult as comparability is much reduced - communication skills and listening influence data quality |
| semi-structured | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - combination of flexible unstructured style and key questions which are used to enable comparability | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - possibility of bias as interviewer deliberately chooses responses and may delete responses |

The questionnaire is a method applied both in analytic and descriptive surveys (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2010). Information collected for the questionnaire can be grouped into three categories: activities/events/places, respondent characteristics, and attitude/motivation (Veal, 2011). Basically there are two types of questions, open and closed. Open questions are used to explore respondents' feelings, but have disadvantages when analysing the results. On the contrary closed questions are quick to answer and easy to analyse but respondents can feel forced into an answer (Finn et al, 2000). Nevertheless closed questions are believed to be objective and if questions are cautiously developed they can support research purpose(s) (Cohen et al 2000). Closed questions can be presented as either yes/no, scaled (such as Likert, semantic differential, rank-order) or multiple-choice questions (Veal, 2011).

Before and during data collection and publication researchers must be aware of the ethical concerns such as insuring participants' anonymity, protecting participants from physical and mental perils, asking permission from an authorized body and the participants themselves (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2010).

3.2.5 Analysing and interpreting data

Analysing and interpreting data depends on the applied research type. Quantitative data analysis can further be subdivided into three research types: descriptive, explanatory and evaluative. Descriptive research presents information in a simple form either utilizing frequencies or means analytical procedures. Associations, cross-tabulations and regression are processes for explanatory research while evaluative research type is analysed by frequencies, cross-

tabulations and means (Veal, 2010). Beside graphs and tables, statistical ways of analysing data are useful devices (Finn et al, 2000; Saunders et al, 2009,). Qualitative research analytical activities are summarised in Table 18.

**Table 18. Qualitative analytical procedures and their explanations
(based on Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2010: 200-203)**

| Analytical procedure | Explanation |
|---------------------------|---|
| categorisation | classifying units of data, identifying a chunk or unit |
| abstraction | groups previously identified categories into general classes |
| comparison | explores similarities and differences within collected data occurrence |
| dimensionalisation | identifying properties of categories and constructs |
| integration | mapping the relationships between conceptual elements |
| iteration | moving through data collection and analysis (simultaneous data collection) |
| refutation | deliberative subjecting a researcher's inferences to omit confirmation bias |

3.2.6 Evaluating and reporting research

At the end when the researcher evaluates the study they should consider the followings (Bryman and Bell, 2011):

- the purpose has been stated explicitly
- the data have been relevant to the purpose
- the data have been gathered properly using appropriate method(s)
- the data have been studied and analysed appropriately
- interpretation makes sense and properly represents the result(s)

Reporting the results depends on the purpose of the study whether it is a management/project report, academic article or a thesis (Veal, 2011).

3.3 Applied theories and methods

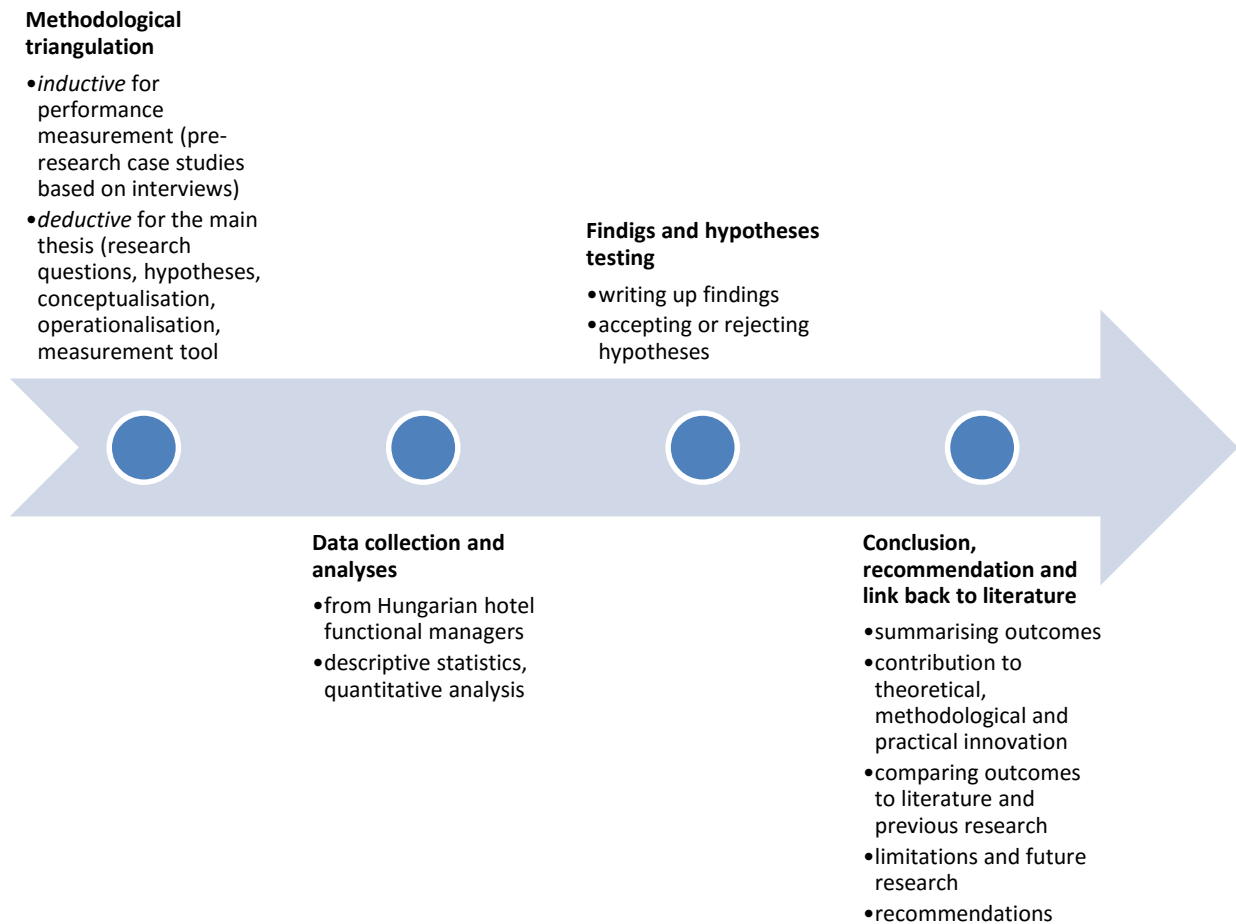
The present thesis takes Ghauri and Grønhaug's approach of the basic purposes of carrying out research which is to "*work systematically and critically to analyse issues/matters before believing in them or acting upon them*" (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2010:9). It takes a positivist approach with the ontological assumption that the reality is objective, with an epistemological assumption that the researcher is independent of the researched subject and methodologically that it is (mainly) deductive research.

The thesis applies triangulation in the following way. The deductive method is used by formulating hypotheses based on previous theories and research outcomes followed by data collection to test and confirm/reject hypotheses which is again linked back to previous findings. Notwithstanding, it is necessary to identify critical success factors and key performance indicators in order to develop the individual performance part of the questionnaire, and the phenomenological paradigm also has to be considered. The thesis applies embedded multiple-case design in the pre-phase of developing the questionnaire performance part where six different types of hotels have been explored. Case studies are based on semi-structured interviews in the present research. After synthesising the cases, pattern-matching logic and explanation building techniques are utilised for data analysis. Furthermore, a disconfirmation case is applied to compare the quantitative outcomes with practice presenting a longitudinal cooperation with a hotel in the form of a case study.

The quantitative method is applied to test the hypotheses. In research methodology literature, three trends of quantitative methods have been developed: statistical procedures, test and measurement practices, and research designs (Creswell, 2008). Within quantitative methods the thesis applies t-test, multiple regression analysis, correlation analysis, principle component analysis and ANOVA analysis.

A research summary has been conducted in order to illustrate the thesis research process (Figure 9).

Figure 9. Research process (own)



3.3.1 Validity and reliability of the applied methods

It was vital to apply measurements that are valid and reliable in the thesis.

Validity refers to the fact that the information exhibited in the thesis reflects truly the claims of the researcher. Validity has two types. External validity refers to the representativeness or generalizability that the result can be generalised to the population among which the sample is collected. Internal validity means the phenomena measured with the relevant variables in the applied instrument is done by the thesis. In the hospitality industry external validity must be handled with caution as employee turnover is high, so the population and sample size may fluctuate rapidly. Internal validity must be guaranteed by a carefully selected method that is adjusted to both the population and the research questions.

Reliability denotes the guaranty that the research findings would be similar if the research was to be repeated. Again it depends on the instrument applied in the research. Nonetheless, even if the measurement is valid and reliable, one must remember that in hospitality and social science research is carried out with human beings at a given time. Results of a study (unless it is longitudinal) are a snap-shot and if it is repeated numerous influences (e.g. environmental, business, social changes) can alter the repeated results. The responsibility of a researcher is to consciously apply a measurement that is valid and reliable at the time when the research is conducted (Veal, 2011). Reliability is calculated with the Cronbach's Alpha co-efficiency that measures the internal consistency of an instrument. A measurement is considered reliable if the scale is above 0.7 (DeVallis, 2012), however according to Anastasi and Urbina (1997) the minimum Cronbach alpha accepted for reliability should be 0.8. Furthermore to test reliability each time a measurement is applied its Cronbach's Alpha scale should be tested (Streiner, 2003).

The technique that groups the variables to confirm whether the variables belong to the initially labelled groups is called factor analysis. The exploratory factor analysis method, which is inductive in nature, indicates the assumption of all variables applied in a study. On the other hand, confirmatory factor analysis, which is deductive in nature, validates the existence of the hypothesised factors (Veal, 2011:42). There are two main technique types within factor analysis: principle component analysis and factor analysis. The two techniques are similar as they aim to reduce the number of original variables in order to group them in a combination where correlated items with similarities belong together (Pallant, 2013). Although both methods give similar results they differ in the following way. Factor analysis is carried out by

using mathematical models where the original variables are determined through a linear combination of factors and explains the correlation between the variables. This technique is applied to understand the theoretical background and solutions of the underlining data and if the researcher is not clear about the variables. Conversely, with the principle component analysis, the original variables linear combination is used to calculate the different groups, where the main aim is to reduce the data into small sections. The goal is to explain the total variance of the variables as fully as possible where variables are identified by the researcher (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013:634).

The process of validation of the developed individual performance scale and the emotional intelligence Hungarian version was applied in the thesis. To confirm that the identified variables belong to the two hypothesised performance categories (task and contextual), the principle component analysis was applied. To test if the distributions of the scores are dependent variable and if correlation analyses are conductible, a normality test was assessed. To test the hypotheses, correlation analysis was applied. A detailed description of the applied methods can be found in the *Analyses and results* (Chapter 4).

3.4 Design and process of the thesis

In the following the design, process and methodology applied in the thesis are described by exhibiting the research questions, the research model and the hypotheses. Furthermore the process of conducting the OCEQP questionnaire for data gathering (it is a mosaic word given to the applied questionnaire and it stands for **O**rganisational **C**ulture, **E**motional **Q**uotient and **P**erformance) is explained in detail, and the participants and data collection procedures are clarified. The chapter finishes with the description of data analyses methods applied in the thesis. Table 19 illustrate the process of the thesis.

Table 19. Process of the thesis (author's own)

| Process | Steps | Details |
|---------------------------------|---|--|
| Conceptualisation | Define: - trait emotional intelligence - organisational culture - individual performance | how the terms are applied in the thesis |
| Hypotheses | H1, H1a, H2, H2a | based on research questions |
| Operationalisation | measurements: - TEIQue- trait emotional intelligence - OCAI-organisational culture - hotel functional managers' individual performance developed | - questionnaire to measure individual performance was developed: - interviews - case studies analyses: patter-matching and explanation building technique - develop questionnaire |
| OCEQP Questionnaire | - TEIQue part - OCAI part - performance part - individual characteristics - organisational characteristics | - gender, age, qualification, tenure, number of employees a functional managers work with - hotel category, size, occupancy rate, Hotelstar Union membership |
| Data collecting | population/sample | - hotels who are members of the Hungarian Hotel and Restaurant Association - telephone, e-mail, Limesurvey online |
| Analyses | -reliability of measurements | -TEIQue (Hungarian version): Cronbach's Alpha -individual performance (own): Cronbach's Alpha; principle component analyses |
| | -descriptive analyses | -individual and hotel |
| | -testing hypotheses | -assessing normality -testing the correctness of hypotheses |
| Research outcomes and novelties | outcomes compared with previous research | regarding EQ, individual performance and hotel culture |
| Applying theory | pilot case | with a Hungarian hotel |
| Contributions and limitations | theoretical, methodological and practical | possible future research |

3.4.1 Conceptualised research model

In the literature review the various theories, concepts and research outcomes have been presented. Studies have confirmed among others that:

- individual performance can be assessed according to the task and the context (Griffin et al, 2000; Borman, 2004; Biswas and Varma, 2007);
- managers' hard competences (skills, experience and knowledge) are as important as soft competences (traits, behaviour and attitude) (Worsfold, 1989; Sadler-Smith, 2006);
- employees in the hospitality industry do emotional work (Hochschild, 1983)

- emotional intelligence bears a relationship to workplace outcomes (Goleman, 2002; Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003; Roselet and Ciarrochi, 2005; O’Neill, 2007);
- employees recruited and selected by applying emotional intelligence tests perform better than those selected in a “usual” way (Zeidner, 2004; Gehrels, 2007; Draft, 2011);
- different types of organisational cultures can be identified according to hotel size, category and being an individual or member of a chain (Mars and Nicod, 1984, Cameron, 2001; Kempt and Dwyer, 2001; Mars, 2008);
- organisational culture can affect performance (Wang and Abdu-Rahman, 2010)
- organisational culture bears a relationship to personal characteristics (traits, values, attitude, behaviour etc) (Emmanuel and Lloyed, 2000; Al-Refaie, 2014).

As it has been referred to previously, although there are studies exploring emotional intelligence and its relationship to work outcomes, thorough research that investigates hotel functional managers’ trait emotional intelligence and their relation to individual task and contextual performance and organisational culture in Hungary has not been carried out, and internationally the amount of this research is limited. Furthermore, studies thoroughly investigating which traits exactly enable high performance are rare in hospitality. The organisational culture of the hospitality industry as perceived by managers is a research area which has little empirical study (Kemp and Dwyer, 2001).

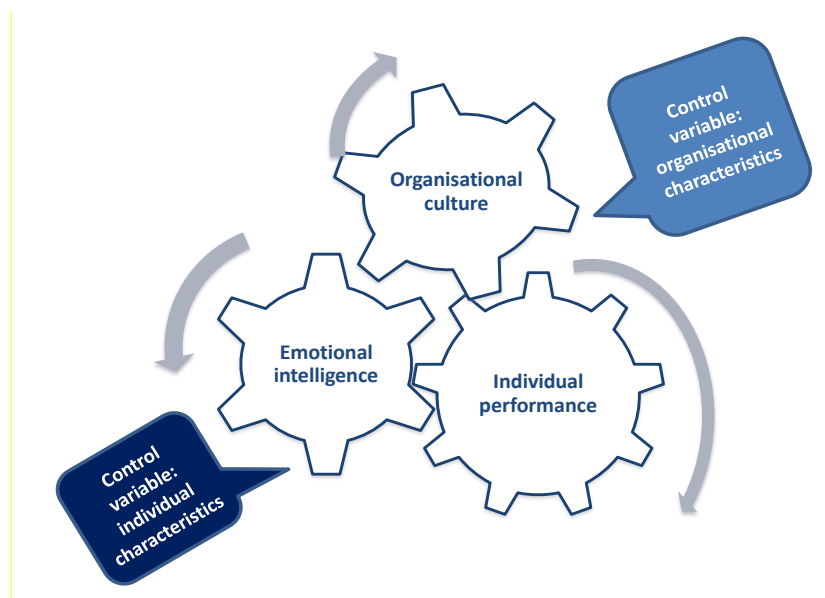
The research therefore aims to study hotel functional manager’s trait emotional intelligence in relation to their task and contextual performance. Managers’ gender, age, tenure in the industry and education, as well as hotel size, categories, and membership of the hotels are considered as control variables. It must be emphasised that the thesis focuses on the relationship of hotel managers’ emotional intelligence traits and individual task and contextual performance. The concept of organisational culture is regarded as a possible performance influencing factor. The thesis scope does not consider the exploration of other factors (e.g. higher payment) that affect performance.

In the *Introduction* (Chapter 1) the three research questions have been illustrated. The first research question targets the relationship between hotel managers’ trait emotional intelligence and individual performance and whether the two performance types show a relationship to different emotional intelligence traits. Research question number two seeks to identify the proposed relationship between present organisational culture of hotels and individual

performance. The third research question aims to explore the organisational and individual influencing factors in relation to emotional intelligence and functional managers' individual performance.

Furthermore, the thesis aims to gather descriptive statistics of hotel functional managers' individual performance and emotional intelligence levels regarding individual and organisational variables. Among the individual variables managers' gender, age, tenure, qualification, and number of subordinates are considered. Organisational variables include hotel category, size, chain membership/independent hotel, occupancy rate and Hotelstars Union membership. Hotel present and preferred dominant cultures are also examined. The conceptual research model in Figure 10 illustrates the elements and the possible interaction between them.

Figure 10. Conceptual research model (author's own)



3.4.2 Research questions and hypotheses

The conceptual research model is a mental map that is further developed into a research model by following four steps according to Veal (2011:64):

1. explore/explain the relationship between the variables by research questions
2. identify/list the concepts
3. define the concept/conceptualisation
4. operationalize the concepts

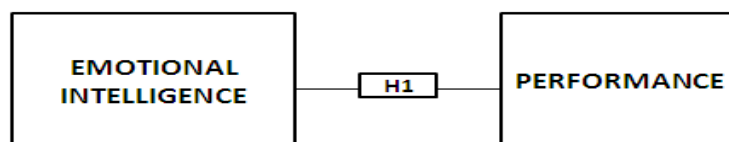
Research questions that are drawn from the literature review provide the foundation of the hypotheses.

Q1. What is the relationship between hotel function managers' trait emotional intelligence and their individual performance? Are there explicit emotional intelligence elements that relate to task and contextual performance?

According to Rosete and Ciarrochi, (2005) managers whose individual performance is claimed to be excellent have high emotional intelligence. In the tourism industry only a few studies have been carried out to measure this phenomenon. Langhorn's (2004) and Sly's (2006) research outcomes indicate a relationship between pub and restaurant general managers' performance and their emotional intelligence, while Prentice (2008) shows a relationship between emotional intelligence and self-perceived performance rating among casino key account representatives. Studies carried out with tour operators (Min, 2012), students of hospitality and professionals, (Scott-Halsell et al, 2008; 2011) and hotel managers (Sheila et al, 2008) show a positive relationship between the roles of individual characteristics in emotional intelligence, although the latter received the criticism of working with small samples. Studies examining the interaction of emotional intelligence and the performance of hotel employees and managers have only started to emerge recently (Hanzaeea and Mirvaisi (2013), however most of the studies are still being carried out with students of tourism and hospitality, tour operators or travel agents and not with hotel (functional) managers.

Based on the previous research, the following relationship between emotional intelligence and performance is presumed (Figure 11):

Figure 11. The proposed relationship between hotel managers' trait emotional intelligence and individual performance



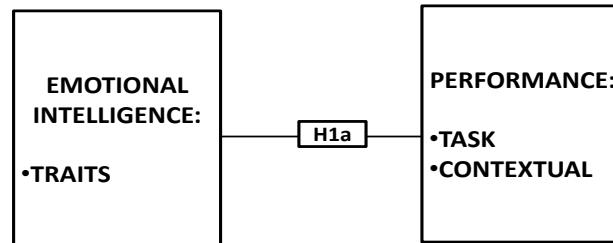
The following hypothesis is formulated according to the research question and the presumed research model:

H1. Hotel functional managers' trait emotional intelligence positively relates to their individual performance.

Research works that identify and differentiate the emotional intelligence elements in relation to task and contextual performance separately are rare (Kappagoda, 2012). Managing itself is an emotional process (Rajah et al, 2011). Managers with outstanding high performance have been studied and shown higher emotional intelligence compared to their counterparts who perform on an average level (Rosete and Ciarrochi, 2005). In the hospitality industry, considering the different emotional intelligent characteristics (such as optimism, high openness, being aware of and understanding one's emotions, better emotional and stress management, empathy, perceiving and expressing emotions, relationship management), among others, have been identified as key emotional intelligence facets that trigger high performance (e.g. Seligman, 1990, Langhorn, 2004; Cha et al, 2008; Roberts and Mroczek, 2008; Kappagoda, 2012; Hanzaeaa and Mirvaisi, 2013;). Scutte et al (2000-2001) presented findings that individuals with high emotional intelligence, especially with a low level of frustration and helplessness, can perform better on cognitive tasks. Kappagoda (2012) identifies self-awareness, social-awareness, self-management and relationship management as an influencing factor of high performance and indicates that self-awareness correlates significantly with contextual performance but not with task performance. The majority of the studies examine task performance in relation to general emotional intelligence, only a few separate the task and contextual performance and in correlation with facets of emotional intelligence. The aim of this sub-hypothesis is to detect whether different emotional intelligence items influence task and contextual performance.

Based on these the relationship between emotional intelligence and performance at a factorial level is presumed (Figure 12):

Figure 12. The proposed relationship between hotel managers' trait emotional intelligence and individual performance at factorial level



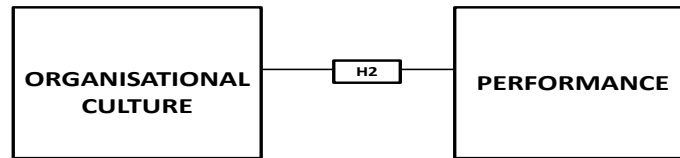
The following hypothesis is formulated according to the research question and the presumed research model:

H1a. Hotel functional managers' trait emotional intelligence and performance relation shows a difference at factorial and facet levels.

Q2. Which is the dominant present and preferred organisational culture in Hungarian hotels? Is there a relationship between organisational culture and individual performance?

Organisational culture can be regarded as one of the most influential factors in hotel and individual performance (Solkhé, 2013). Organisational culture can be regarded as the promoted values and beliefs embodied in visible institutional goals, structure and processes and invisible personal assumptions (Schein, 2004; Cameron and Quinn, 2011). When organisational values are forced upon individuals it can result in negative work outcomes (Carr et al., 2003). The hospitality culture is regarded as one that requires behaviour where customer oriented attitude, quality service, proactive actions are both task and contextual performance obligations (Glover, 1988; Handy, 1993). Hotel organisational culture should be regarded as a continuum (Ogbonna and Harris, 2002) where hotel managers' attitudes, values and behaviour initiate their own and employees' high performance (Davidson, 2003). Based on these ideas, the relationship between organisational culture and performance is presumed (Figure 13):

Figure 13. The proposed relationship between organisational culture hotel managers' performance



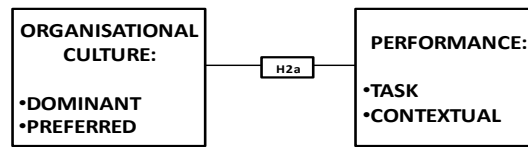
The following hypothesis is formulated according to the research question and the presumed research model:

H2. There is a relationship between the present organisational culture and hotel functional managers' performance.

According to Cameron (2001) and Mars (2008), the majority of hotels have a traditional (clan) culture where both organisation and the functional area have control over the individuals and high sense of togetherness is expected. Handy (1993), on the other hand, found hotels to have a task (in Cameron it is adhocracy) culture. Therefore it is assumed that the present dominant culture of the Hungarian hotels generally have clan and/or adhocracy cultures. In Hungary, hotels' organisational culture has been featured as being full of conflicts, fear, deception where trust, competitiveness and care were missing values. One of the reasons behind this cultural view was identified as being due to inadequate performance assessment and rewards (Györfi, 2009). The present organisational culture can also activate employees either to be loyal or show intention to leave the hotel (Manning et al, 2004) Furthermore, the strong organisational culture influences managers' performance (Emmanuel and Lloyed, 2000; Wang and Abdu-Rahman, 2010). These behavioural signs can be learnt if appropriate research is conducted and applied. Therefore, difference is expected when comparing present and preferred organisational culture and its relation to task and contextual performance. As there are only a few studies exploring the characteristics of hotel culture, it has been urged for research in this field to take place (Kemp and Dwyer, 2001).

Based on the above, the relationship between organisational culture and performance at a factorial level is presumed (Figure 14):

Figure 14. The proposed relationship between hotel managers’ task and contextual performance and organisational culture

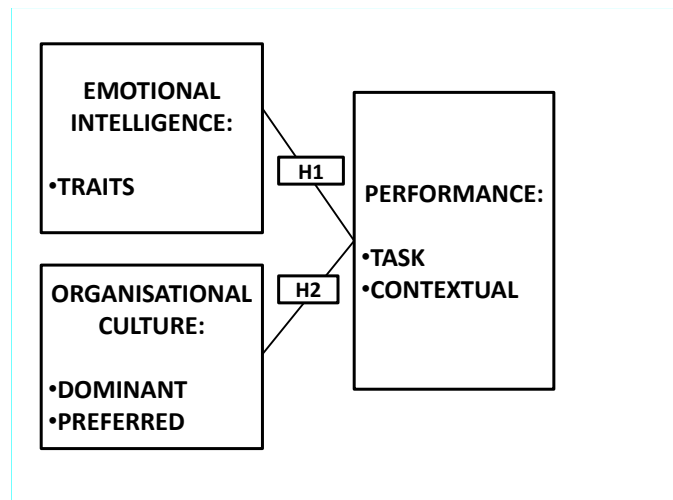


The following hypothesis is formulated according to the research question and the presumed research model:

H2a. The present dominant organisational culture shows differences in functional managers’ performance at factorial and facet levels.

The research model in Figure 15 presents emotional intelligence and organisational culture as two independent variables and performance as dependent variables.

Figure 15. Research model with the variables



There is an additional question to these main thesis questions. To measure hotel managers’ performance, either the individual performance assessment results from each participant need to be possessed or performance measurements must be conducted. To define a performance measurement that can be applied mutually to all hotel functional managers in this research, an exploratory study prior to the deductive analyses of the thesis has been completed. The following question is proposed: *How is hotel functional managers’ individual performance*

assessed? Regarding the qualitative nature of the first research question, there is no hypothesis developed but a presumption: *Hotel functional managers are assessed formally and regularly by taking task and contextual performance into account.*

The research question is to be answered via applying an exploratory study. Within the range of qualitative methodology, semi-structured interviews have been compiled and the answers are summarised in case studies. Outcomes and the analysis of the interviews are tracked back to previous research results and the framework introduced in the literature review (e.g. Brotherton and Shaw, 1996; Harris and Mongiello, 2001; Umbreit, 1986; Borman and Motowidlo, 1993; Motowidlo and Scotter, 1994) to develop performance measurement for the main thesis.

The following parts detail the variables and the methods applied in the thesis, describing the conceptualisation, and the operationalization and the measurements of the variables which are applied.

3.4.3 Conceptualisation

The variables in the research need to be clearly defined in order to apply appropriate measurements. In the *Literature review* (Chapter 2), the various approaches have been presented. In this part the precise clarification of each concept in the thesis is defined.

3.4.3.1 Hotel functional managers

Hotel functional manager is defined in the thesis as the *head of an organisational unit* who is responsible for profitability, procedure, decision making and the employees' well-being of that functional area. In the research and analysis part, the functional manager and managers are terms that are used interchangeably but have the same meaning.

3.4.3.2 Performance

Individual performance is understood under the concept of managers' performance. Individual performance in the thesis is described as *a process to complete required organisational objectives by applying key declarative and procedural knowledge* (Aguinis, 2009). Declarative knowledge consists of the task required elements that is usually in the job descriptions (if the organisation has such documents) while procedural knowledge includes extra efforts made that are in addition to the required job related tasks and behaviours. Therefore within individual performance, task and contextual performance are differentiated. *Task performance is conceptualised as carrying out task-required activities in a hotel and generalizable for all the*

functional areas. Contextual performance is defined as putting in extra effort and applying a behavioural method in the hotel.

3.4.3.3 Emotional Intelligence

The various emotional intelligence notions have been introduced in the *Literature review* (Chapter 2). Scholars regard emotional intelligence either as a trait-based or an ability-based phenomenon (Pérez et al, 2005). In this thesis the trait-based approach is applied following Petrides' (2007:26) definition which conceptualises emotional intelligence as *a separate and complex trait which is activated by the collection of emotion-related self-perceptions and lies within personality*. Trait emotional intelligence is based on the *basic five* domains of personality which are openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism.

3.4.3.4 Organisational culture

It is challenging to define organisational culture with one sentence due to the various approaches. In the research organisational culture is defined based on Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2006) as *a collection of the values and norms that influence and shape an organisation presently and in the future*.

3.4.4 Operationalisation and measurements

The term operationalisation refers to the process through which the research concepts are formatted into measurable variables. It is a way to consider how the information needed for the concepts are collected (Creswell, 2008). There is a differentiation between quantitative and qualitative operationalisation which needs to be addressed. To determine an individual performance measurement tool, the thesis opts for qualitative operationalisation in the form of case studies based on interviews. For the main research in the thesis a quantitative operationalisation applying questionnaire is applied.

3.4.4.1 Measuring performance

This part of the thesis explains the process of developing the individual performance self-report measurement for hotel functional managers applied in the thesis. Hotels use various ways to measure their employees. This tool has been developed to measure hotel functional managers' task- and contextual performance objectively in the same way within the sample. To detect individual performance indicators, *Critical Success Factors* (CSFs) and *Key Performance Indicators* (KPIs) have been studied in the relevant literature and research focusing on the hotel industry and have been presented in the *Individual Performance* (in Chapter 2). After the study

of the relevant research outcomes, the emphasis has been put on Brotherton and Shaw (1996); Harris and Mongiello (2001); Melia and Robinson (2010); Wandongo et al (2010) research outcomes, and mainly Smith, Organ and Near (1983); Umbreit (1986); Borman and Motowidlo (1993) and Al-Qurioti and Freih (2009) frameworks and measurements when compiling the measurement for the thesis.

To determine how to measure individual performance homogeneously in different hotels, a qualitative research first carried out to collect primary data to accomplish three aims. The first aim is to survey how individual performance (focus was on functional/unit managers) is measured in hotels. In the cases where the Performance Assessment System (PAS) is applied, the aim has been to collect the KPIs. In those cases where PAS does not exist, the intention has been to identify KPIs. In both cases, the purpose has been to identify and classify items into task and contextual performance categories found in previous research and develop new items in the scale for the self-assessment performance measurement in the final quantitative questionnaire. Secondly, the intention has aimed to detect which competences are important and taken into consideration during functional managers' selection and performance assessment processes. The third aim has been to use the opportunity to learn about the interviewees' notion of emotional intelligence and its role in hospitality. To identify the elements of individual task and contextual performance measurement, a semi-structured interview was constructed and carried out with 3 Hungarian and 3 British hotel managers in 2011-2012 (see *Interview questions in Appendix 5 and b*). The outcomes of the interviews are elaborated in case studies where task and contextual performance elements are adjusted to Umbreit's performance dimensions of hotel manager. Then task and contextual performance CSFs and KPIs are identified to determine the sub-categories and develop the individual performance assessment questionnaire taking previous performance measurements into account. This process is demonstrated in the *Developing the OCEQP Questionnaire Performance* part.

3.4.4.2 Measuring emotional intelligence

The different types of emotional intelligence measurement have been presented in the *Literature review* (see part 2.5). It has been indicated that to measure emotional intelligence one can either develop or apply an assessment. As developing personality tests require experts (such as psychologists) according to *The British Psychological Society (BPS)*, it has been decided to apply a test that is highly valid and reliable and accepted by the BPS.

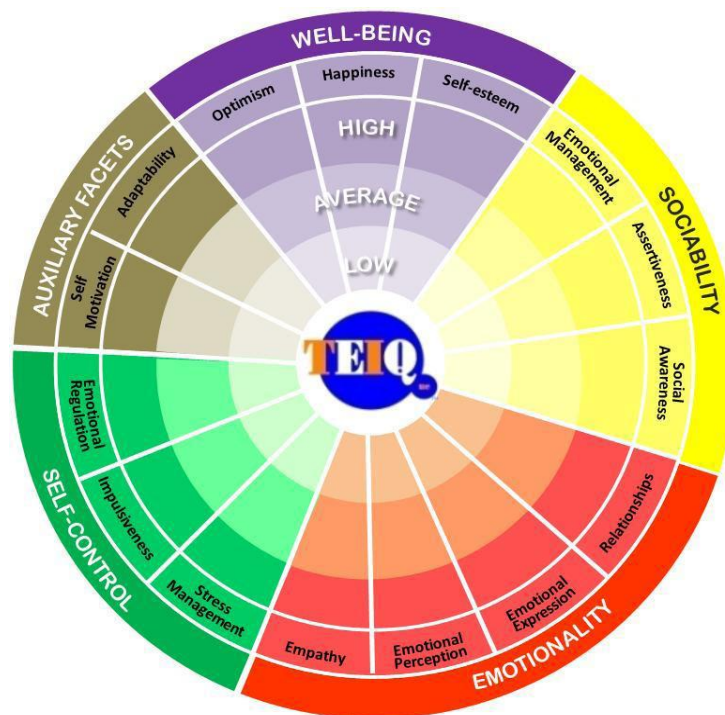
After examining emotional intelligence concepts and tests (see part 2.5). Trait Emotional Intelligence Model (TEIQue) has proven to be the most adequate option in the research. Furthermore, methodologically it is a well-structured test that does not mix abilities with traits, so it is purely a trait emotional intelligence test. This choice has also been heavily influenced by the fact that TEIQue seems to identify and examine those traits that are significant for hotel functional managers to have in their position (e.g. stress-management, optimism, empathy, adaptability) as it have been described in the *Literature review* (Chapter 2, part 2.5). The TEIQue is also reviewed by The British Psychological Society and was evaluated and validated (in 2013) as a good instrument which means reliability is between 70-80%. Another consideration is that at present in Hungary there are only a few valid and reliable internationally adopted emotional intelligence tests. There is one ability-based emotional intelligence test developed in Hungarian, the SEMIQ test, which is independent from the Big Five and mainly tested on children and adolescents (Oláh, 2005). For selection processes, international competency tests are used the most frequently (69%), followed by CV, panel interview, and the personality test is only 8th (35%) out of the 13 types mentioned. However, most of the organisations claimed that since the 2007 financial crisis they would rather select people on personality than qualifications and the HR role is to provide self-development training for employees besides retaining the talents (Cipd, 2009). TEIQue has a significant function identifying individual levels of emotional intelligence to adjust customised training. In the following section, the major characteristics and advantages of the TEIQue are described.

First and by far the main advantage of the TEIQue is that it is founded on psychological theory and has more than 10 years programmatic research (Petrides, 2009). As Cattell argues (1973) an amateur can make up a test with accepted homogeneity, reliability and validity, but to determine personality structure and adequate scales to measure, takes years of programmatic research. When companies or consultancy groups develop their own tests without involving a professional and employees undergo useless feedback and training it can do more harm (Antonialis, 1993). According to researchers (e.g. MacCann et al, 2004; Waterhouse, 2006; Pérez, et al; 2005, Petrides, 2011), most of the emotional intelligence theories and measures have been (and are still being) developed without sufficient psychometric theories, conceptualization and clear interpretation of the results.

The first sampling domain of TEIQue was developed by Petrides and Furnham (2001) by taking the Giant Three and the Big Five domains which have solid evidence for consistency in

personality terminology (Furnham, 2008). The development of the TEIQue 1.5 adult long version (153 items) started in 1998 and since then the measurement has undergone several revisions until it received its final form in 2001. The TEIQue 1.5SF (short form consisting of 30 items methodologically selected out of 153) was validated in 2010. The 153 items are written to cover the 15 facets in the construct's sampling domain. Each item belongs to a single facet. The 153 positive and negative items were counterbalanced within the 15 facets, 4 factors ('well-being', 'self-control', 'emotionality', and 'sociability') plus 1 (containing 2 auxiliary facets which add up to the Global TEIQue scores) and global traits. Figure 16 illustrates the 15 facets of the TEIQue positioned with reference to their corresponding factors.

Figure 16. The 15 facets of the TEIQue positioned with reference to their corresponding factors
(adopted from Petrides, 2009, used with permission)



Up until 2012, TEIQue has been translated into 21 languages. The Hungarian translation and validation is part of the present thesis (The London Psychometric Laboratory at the University College London included and recommended the Hungarian version, see here: <http://www.psychometriclab.com/Default.aspx?Content=Page&id=13>). Table 20 demonstrates the detailed evaluation of the TEIQue measurement tool. For more details see: http://www.psychtesting.org.uk/test-registration-and-test-reviews/search-registered-tests.cfm?page=summary&Test_ID=270.

Table 20. TEIQue instrument evaluation by The British Psychological Society

| Characteristics | Evaluation |
|----------------------------|-----------------|
| quality of documentation | reasonably good |
| quality of material | good |
| norms and reference group | good |
| construct validity | good |
| criterion-related validity | reasonable |
| reliability-overall | good |

The TEIQue is a self-report test (see 2.5.1 and 2.5.2 for advantages of self-report test) designed to be factor analysed at a facet level on a 7-point Likert scale. Self-reporting is the most effective way to test trait emotional intelligence as it has been referred to in the *Literature review* (Pérez et al, 2005; Petrides, 2009). The 7-point Likert scales are argued to be the best for reliability maximisation and provide advantages over the 5-point scale alternative (Coelho and Esteves, 2007). Table 21 summarises the descriptive and internal consistence for the TEIQue variables (N=1721) (Petrides, 2009). The factors alphas (alpha measures reliability), *Emotionality* (0.78), *Self-Control* (0.79), *Sociability* (0.82), *Well-Being* (0.83) and the Global Trait EI alpha (0.90) are very strong.

Table 21. Descriptive and internal consistencies for the TEIQue variables (adapted from Petrides, 2009:19)

| Facets | No. of items | Mean | SD | Alpha |
|------------------------|---------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| adaptability | 9 | 4.65 | 0.85 | 0.75 |
| assertiveness | 9 | 4.89 | 0.93 | 0.77 |
| emotion expression | 10 | 4.74 | 1.22 | 0.89 |
| emotion management | 9 | 4.87 | 0.82 | 0.70 |
| emotion perception | 10 | 4.84 | 0.81 | 0.73 |
| emotion regulation | 12 | 4.39 | 0.90 | 0.81 |
| impulsiveness (low) | 9 | 4.54 | 0.93 | 0.74 |
| relationships | 9 | 5.48 | 0.79 | 0.68 |
| self-esteem | 11 | 4.92 | 0.89 | 0.80 |
| self-motivation | 10 | 4.74 | 0.81 | 0.69 |
| social awareness | 11 | 5.01 | 0.89 | 0.82 |
| stress management | 10 | 4.55 | 0.98 | 0.80 |
| empathy | 9 | 5.12 | 0.77 | 0.70 |
| happiness | 8 | 5.55 | 1.01 | 0.87 |
| optimism | 8 | 5.26 | 0.97 | 0.81 |
| Factors | No. of facets | Mean | SD | Alpha |
| Emotionality | 4 | 5.05 | 0.71 | 0.78 |
| Self-control | 3 | 4.49 | 0.79 | 0.79 |
| Sociability | 3 | 4.92 | 0.75 | 0.82 |
| Well-being | 3 | 5.24 | 0.83 | 0.83 |
| GLOBAL TRAIT EI | 15 | 4.90 | 0.59 | 0.90 |

Regarding the conceptual/psychometric validity, the TEIQue facets emerge from the Big Five, which factors were developed by 4 independent research groups, each factor having a cluster of correlated definite traits, e.g. extraversion includes warmth, positive emotion, assertiveness etc. (Matthews et al, 2003, Vernon et al, 2008).

The TEIQue factor inter-correlation matrix presents the fact that trait EI correlates negatively with Neuroticism (-.25) and positively with Extraversion, Conscientiousness and Openness to Experience (.33, .34 and .24) respectively, while it is interdependent from Agreeableness (-0.05). Concerning criterion validity, several research works have been carried out to investigate the correlation and outcomes of different levels of the TEIQue. TEIQue correlates strongly with coping styles (individuals with high trait EI are more likely to use an adaptive coping style when dealing with stress, correlation is 0.665); dysfunctional attitudes and depression (high trait EI is expected to be negatively associated with depression ($r = -.652$) and dysfunctional attitudes ($r = -.465$) that lead to depression); academic performance (those adolescents with high trait EI are better at dealing with stress and have large social networks; university social science and art students scored higher on *Emotionality*, while natural science scored higher on *Self-Control*); self-monitoring and aggression (trait EI was a statistically positive predictor at self-monitoring); humour style (individual difference in trait EI contribute to individual difference in humour style). (Van Rooy and Viswesvaran, 2004; Sevdalis et al, 2007; Petrides et al, 2007; Petrides, 2009).

The TEIQue has also been proved to have high validity, especially predictive validity of job performance and organisational commitment (Van Rooy and Viswesvaran, 2004; Petrides et al, 2007; Gardner and Qualter 2010); it is the only test that covers the sampling domain of trait emotional intelligence comprehensively (Austin et al, 2004; Matthews et al, 2012) and according to Freudenthaler et al (2008) proves the universality of personality thus being culturally independent. High trait emotional intelligence was associated with lower levels of stress and higher levels of perceived job control, job satisfaction, and job commitment (Petrides and Furnham, 2006 ; Platsidou, 2010 ; Singh and Woods, 2008). Furthermore, high trait emotional intelligence may be conducive to entrepreneurial behaviour (Zampetakis et al, 2009), protects against burnout (Platsidou, 2010; Singh and Woods, 2008), and predicts internal work focus of control (Johnson et al, 2009). TEIQue can be used for a number of different purposes in work and life such as recruitment and selection, team building, coaching, leadership training,

measuring organisational commitment, organisation change, talent development, appraisal and employee morale (Petrides, 2011). The concept of each of the factors and facets on the TEIQue model are determined as illustrated in Table 22. Further information on standardisation and validation of the TEIQue is available (Petrides, 2009 and <http://www.psychometriclab.com>).

Table 22. The definitions of TEIQue factors and facets (Petrides, 2009, used with permission)

| | |
|-------------------------|--|
| WELL-BEING | <i>evaluates how positive, happy, fulfilled an individual is.</i> |
| Optimism | Confidence and likelihood to “look on the bright side” of life. |
| Happiness | Pleasant emotional states, primarily directed towards the present rather than the past or future. |
| Self-esteem | Personal success and self-confidence. |
| SOCIABILITY | <i>evaluates relationship building, influence in social settings and networking.</i> |
| Emotion Management | The influencing of other people’s feelings. |
| Assertiveness | Forthright, frank, and willing to stand up for their rights. |
| Social Awareness | Ability to network and social skills. |
| EMOTIONALITY | <i>evaluates ability to recognise emotional states in others, express emotions and use these abilities to develop and sustain close relationships with others.</i> |
| Empathy | Acknowledging and taking in someone else’s perspective. |
| Emotional Perception | Insightful and clear about the feelings of others. |
| Emotional Expression | Communication of one’s feelings to others. |
| Relationships | Capability to have fulfilling personal relationships. |
| SELF-CONTROL | <i>evaluates control over their impulsiveness and coping with external pressures & stress.</i> |
| Emotion Regulation | Short, medium and long term control of one’s own feelings and emotional states. |
| Impulsiveness | How reflective and the likelihood of giving in to urges. |
| Stress Management | Capability to withstand pressure and regulate stress. |
| AUXILIARY FACETS | |
| Adaptability | Flexibility and willingness to adapt to new conditions. |
| Self Motivation | Drive and endurance in the face of adversity. |

The TEIQue has not before been applied in relation to investigating performance outcomes in tourism and the hotel sector, however, this research aims to do just that.

3.4.4.3 Measuring organisational culture

The comparison of the different organisational measurements (see Table 13) revealed that they have all developed a four-dimension approach which is similar in descriptions. In the thesis Cameron-Quinn (1999 and 2006) Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) is applied to detect the present and preferred hotel culture perceived by functional managers. The reason for using OCAI is three fold. First, this measurement represents the conceptualisation of organisational culture as values and norms. Second, this is a self-report questionnaire which methodologically supports the hypotheses and allows correlation analyses as OCAI measures the perception of organisational culture at an individual level such as the emotional intelligence questionnaire. Thirdly, in the Department of Management at the University of Pannonia where the author works, a research group, whose members have applied OCAI in previous research and PhD theses, have a database of collected information. Therefore the different outcomes of OCAI can add to the benefit of the department's mutual organisational studies profile and provide a basis for further research. Unlike the grid-group theory and measurement introduced in the *Literature review* (Chapter 2), OCAI maps the organisational culture rather than the organisational climate. The questionnaire is divided into 6 key dimensions that are allocated to 4 cultures: hierarchy, clan, adhocracy and market. Each dimension has 4 statements (so altogether 24 statements in the whole questionnaire) where 100 points must be divided by the respondent. The dominant culture scores the highest. Respondents answer statements according to how they perceive their present hotel culture and are asked to consider how they would see the hotel values and norms in 5 years' time by scoring the same 24 statements in a different column.

3.4.4.4 Control variables

The research includes both individual and organisational control variables. Among the individual control variables there are gender, age, qualification, tenure and number of employees a functional managers' works within the unit. Organisational variables include hotel category, chain/individual hotel, hotel size, occupancy rate and Hotelstars Union membership.

3.5 Developing the OCEQP Questionnaire

For the main thesis the quantitative method has been applied in a form of a structured questionnaire (designed and named **OCEQP** by the candidate) to collect primary data to carry out statistical analysis. The acronym stands for *Organisational Culture, Emotional Quotient and Performance*. The OCEQP questionnaire consists of three main parts: individual performance (measurement has been developed by the candidate, see 4.5.1), TEIQue (trait

emotional intelligence) and OCAI (organisational culture), along with questions regarding personal and organisational information. The full questionnaire in English and Hungarian is in *Appendix 6*.

In the following the process of developing the OCEQP questionnaire is presented.

3.5.1 Performance part of the OCEQP Questionnaire

Due to the fact that there have been no specific measurements to assess hotel functional managers' individual task and contextual performance separately, this tool has been developed as part of the thesis. It required a triangulation method. First in an exploratory study KPIs and CSFs have been identified via interviews with hotel managers, and then the case studies underwent a pattern-match analysis which created the basis of the performance questionnaire. As the performance measurement is one of the novelties and outcomes of the present thesis, the process is described in detail in the *Analyses, results and findings* (Chapter 4).

3.5.2 Emotional intelligent part of the OCEQP Questionnaire

In the present research the internationally recognised, highly reliable and valid TEIQue questionnaire (see description in the *Literature Review* (Chapter 2) and the present chapters) Hungarian adaptation is applied. The validation procedure and reliability is described in detail in the *Analyses, results and findings* (Chapter 4) as it is also part of the research originality.

3.5.3 Organisational culture part of the OCEQP Questionnaire

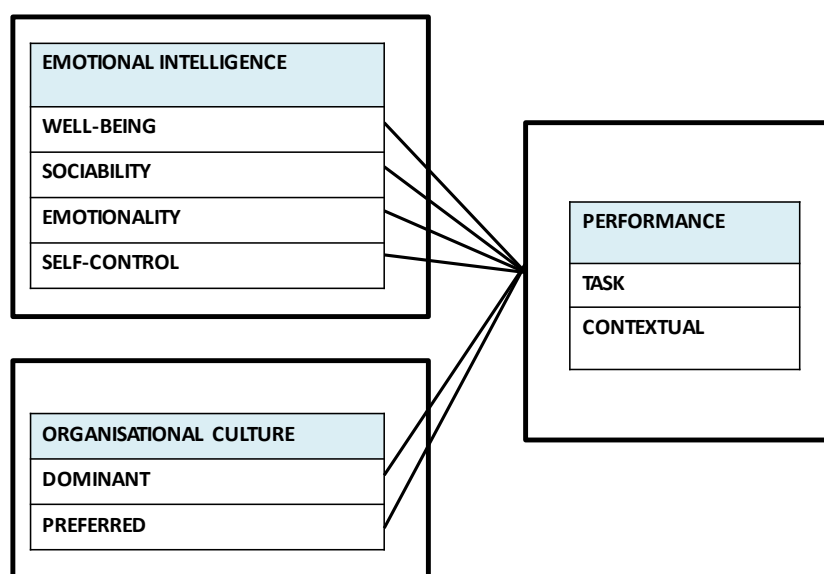
The OCAI questionnaire was adopted from Cameron and Quinn. A detailed description can be found in the *Literature Review* (Chapter 2) and above this chapter. The OCAI instrument had already been adopted, validated and applied in various Hungarian theses. The majority of these studies were carried out by the researchers of the Faculty of Business and Management at the University of Pannonia (Balogh, 2011; Bogdány, 2014; Bognár, 2013; Csepregi, 2011; Fekete, 2011; Raffai, 2014)⁷ where this thesis writer is employed as a full-time lecturer. The results of the present research could contribute to the organisational culture studies of the faculty.

3.5.4 Research model

On the foundation of previous theories and study-outcomes, the research questions and hypotheses were proposed which serve as a basis for the following research model (Figure 17):

⁷ these thesis works are in Hungarian and can be accessed from the Hungarian Doctoral Council's webpage: www.doktori.hu

Figure 17. Research model



3.5.5 Participants

As one of the founding members of the Educational Board of the Hungarian Hotel and Restaurant Association (HHRA), the author found it essential to carry out research that members of the association can benefit from. The participants of the research, therefore, were Hungarian hotel functional managers from 3, 4 and 5 stars hotels whose institutes are members of HHRA. According to the Hungarian Central Statistical Office annual report there were 3175 commercial accommodations in Hungary in 2012⁸. Out of these hotels, 366 were members of HHRA. The sample size was based on the database of HHRA 2012 annual report excluding the 1 and 2 star hotels (altogether 16). Table 23 illustrates the distribution according to hotel category (stars).

Table 23. Number of hotels in HHRA according to star-system in 2012

| stars | number of hotels in HHRA | percentage to all |
|-------|--------------------------|-------------------|
| 3* | 171 | 46,72 |
| 4* | 175 | 47,81 |
| 5* | 20 | 5,46 |

⁸ <http://www.ksh.hu/docs/hun/xftp/idoszaki/jeltur/jeltur12.pdf>

To determine the number of functional managers who, in total, work in the 366 hotels, only estimation was made as no data was available at the HHRA. The HHRA management suggested calculating with and averaging 4 functional managers and multiplying this number with the number of hotels in the research (as small hotels may have 2, medium 4 and large hotels 6 or more). Therefore a population of 1464 was calculated (366X4). According to Tabachnick and Fidel (2013:117) the calculation of sample size should be as follows: $N > 50 + 8m$ (where m stands for independent variables). In the thesis there are two main independent variables (emotional intelligence and organisational culture) the calculation is $50 + (8 \times 2) = 66$.

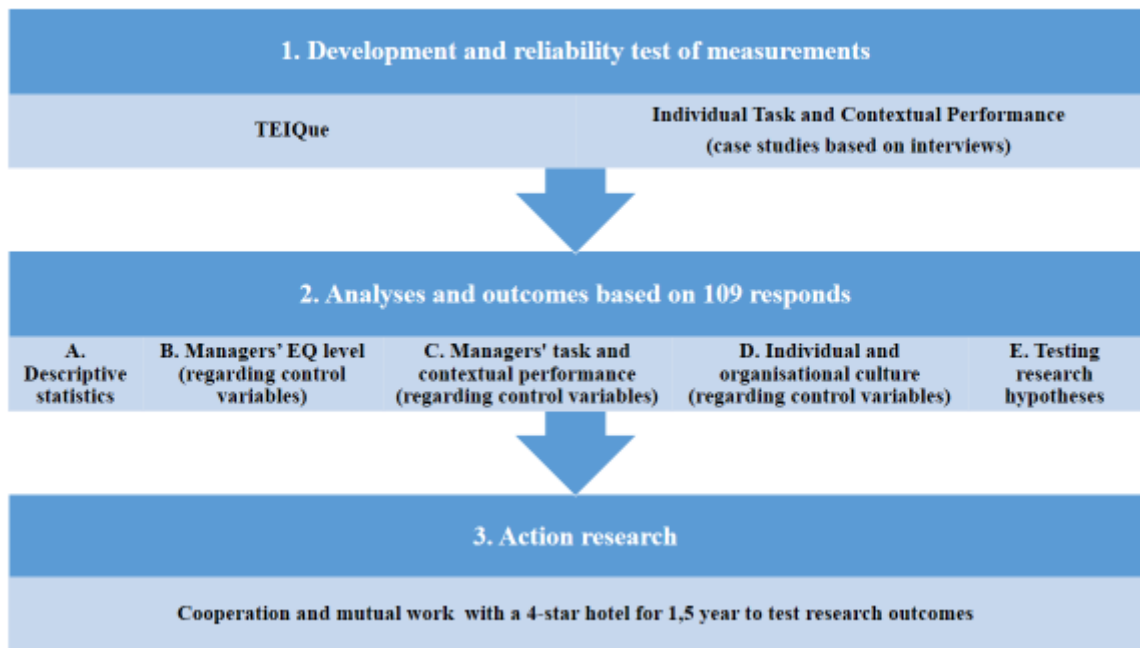
3.5.6 Data collecting procedure

After finalising the OCEQP questionnaire, it was first discussed with the two supervisors and colleagues from the Department of Management at the University of Pannonia, and then with 3 hotel functional managers and a hotel general manager. Some minor changes in word spellings, organising order of some questions and adding the end feedback possibility to respondents needed to be implemented. Next, the OCEQP questionnaire was uploaded onto the LimeSurvey System where a link was generated to respondents. The reason to apply LimeSurvey was to gain the data more quickly than in person (this is cost and time effective), as well as to secure anonymity of the participant while giving the opportunity at the end to write feedback and give e-mail addresses to receive individual results later on. Furthermore, this system allowed the researcher to download the data in different forms (HTM, Pdf, excel table etc) and the data could be exported and converted easily into a SPSS table for analysis. The link of the OCEQP questionnaire was sent out with a cover letter to the 366 hotels that were in the HHRA database. Meanwhile paper forms of the OCEQP questionnaire were given to those managers known in person or the hotels that had been visited previously for interviews. These paper forms were then uploaded to the LimeSurvey System. Data collection was between January and November 2013. The first e-mail was sent between 24 and 30 January 2013, and then a reminder e-mail went out between 4-5 April 2013, a second reminder between 18-20 June 2013. Out of the 366 hotels where e-mails were sent 6 failed to be delivered. Altogether 216 questionnaire were returned. LimeSurvey immediately indicates if the compulsory parts of the questionnaire are not filled in adequately or at all. 109 of the out of the 216 returned questionnaires were fully completed to be analysed. Among the reasons that nearly 50% of the respondents did not finish was the length of the questionnaire as it was indicated by some respondents. With the three parts, plus demographic data, it took at least 35 minutes to answer the questions.

CHAPTER 4: Analyses, results and findings

This chapter can be divided into four main parts. The first part describes the development and reliability of the measurements. The second part consists of the analyses of the data collection. Following the descriptive statistics of the hotels and functional managers the analyses is divided into three subparts. First the outcome of the functional managers' emotional intelligence is discussed. It is followed by the outcomes of functional managers' task and contextual performance analyses. Then hotels' present and preferred organisational culture is explained, followed by individual approaches to organisational culture. The next part tests the correctness of the hypotheses. Finally the Action Research carried out with one of the research hotels is presented. Figure 18 illustrates the structure of this chapter in order to give a better overview.

Figure 18. Overview of research structure and analysis



4.1 Reliability of the measurements

In order to have a clear and analysable data set, a reliable tool should be used. After downloading the 109 fully completed questionnaire SPSS PASW 18 version was utilised. Negative items were rotated and each variable was coded before the analysis started.

Reliability refers here if the OCEQP questionnaire with its parts, namely emotional intelligence, performance and organisational culture, measures the applicability, consistency and stability of

the instrument. In the following the reliability testing of the emotional intelligence- and performance measurements applied in the thesis is described.

4.1.1 TEIQue Hungarian adaptation and reliability testing

The Trait Emotional Questionnaire (TEIQue) has been described in detail earlier. The Hungarian adaptation and validation started in 2011 when the author contacted Professor K.V. Petrides from the University College London who gave permission and agreed to translate and test the reliability of the TEIQue long form (and later the short) in Hungarian (Letter of support from Professor Petrides: *Appendix 7*). In May 2011, the pilot of the Hungarian version was carried out with 74 students of economics at the University of Pannonia, and the raw data in the SPSS file was sent to Professor Petrides who carried out the analysis and confirmed the following: “*I have scored and studied the file and the translation appears to be outstanding – possibly the best first translation we’ve had so far*” (from the e-mail received on 24 May 2011). He suggested a few translation refinements to these statements: 38, 102, 109, 120, 121, 132 which were slightly reworded and then it underwent content and language proofreading. The content proof-reader was a psychiatrist from Jahn Ferenc Hospital in Budapest (her speciality is burn-out) and a language proof-reader was a professor from Eötvös Loránd University Faculty of Humanities from Budapest. The validation part and the development of the Hungarian material (explaining the factors and facets, interpreting results) was through cooperation with a colleague, Professor András Göndör from Budapest Business School who contacted the author after learning about the adaptation and application of the TEIQue in Hungary.⁹ Since 2011 the emotional intelligence questionnaire (also the short form) has been

⁹ Komlósi, E. and Göndör, A. (2011). *A Személyiség Alapú Érzelmi Intelligencia Modell (The Emotional Intelligence Model) (TEIQue HU)*, at <http://www.psychometriclab.com/Default.aspx?Content=Page&id=13> (accessed 28 January 2013).

applied in relation to performance¹⁰, active citizenship (civil organisations)¹¹ and recently in work-life balance and knowledge sharing¹².

4.1.2 Reliability of the Hungarian version of the TEIQue, trait emotional intelligence scale

TEIQue, the trait emotional intelligence test is an internationally applied measurement with high validity and reliability. The 4 factors and 15 facets had already been determined and validated in the original TEIQue, but their reliability was tested again for the sake of this thesis as it was the first time this instrument was applied in Hungarian. Table 24 illustrates the reliability of the TEIQue Hungarian instrument by exhibiting the Cronbach Alpha.

Table 24. Reliability Statistics of the Hungarian TEIQue instrument

| Cronbach's Alpha | Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items | N of Items |
|------------------|--|------------|
| .944 | .943 | 15 |

Considering the requirements of reliability (alpha above 0.7 good, above 0.8 very good) this scale proved an excellent internal consistency with a 0.944 Cronbach alpha. The original TEIQue (developed and tested by Petrides, 2001) had 0.9 Cronbach alpha. The Hungarian result then fortified the reliability of this instrument. Furthermore the 15 facets and 4 factors' Cronbach alpha and the item-total statistics as illustrated in Table 25a and Table 25b pointed towards a reliable emotional intelligence measurement.

¹⁰ Komlósi, E. and Göndör, A. (2013). *A személyiség alapú érzelmi intelligencia modell alkalmazásának lehetőségei az érzelmi intelligencia szervezeti teljesítményre gyakorolt hatásának mérésében (The Possible Application of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Model (TEIQue) in Measuring the Impact of Emotional Intelligence on Organisational Performance)*, Budapest Business School.

Komlósi, E. and Kovács, Z. (2013), *Az értelem az érzelmmel értéket teremt: Az érzelmi intelligencia és az egyéni teljesítmény kapcsolata egy nemzetközi vállalat egy részlegének dolgozói körében, (When IQ and EQ make value: The relationship between emotional intelligence and individual performance within employees of an international telecommunication company)* Vezetéstudomány, XLIV (6), pp.44-52.

¹¹ Komlósi, E. (2012). *Milyenek vagyunk MI, veszprémiek? A VESZPRÉ-MI érzelmi intelligencia felmérés eredményei / KDOP-3.1.1/D-2010-0001 Veszprém-Belváros funkcióbővítő rehabilitációja Projekt Beszámoló (VESZPRÉ-MI Emotional Intelligence Research: What Do Veszprém Citizens Like? / KDOP-3.1.1/D-2010-0001 Veszprém City Council Tourism Brand Image Project Report)*. Veszprém: Veszprém City Council.; Komlósi, E. *What emotional traits make citizens really active? An empirical study*, Expert Systems with Applications, 2014, 41(4), pp.1981-1987.

¹² Komlósi, E. and Obermayer-Kovács, (2014), *What emotional intelligent traits enable managers to share knowledge for work-related quality of life?.* Management, Knowledge and Learning (MakeLearn) International Conference Online Paper, 2014, Portoroz

Table 25a. Item-Total Statistics of the 15 TEIQue facets in the Hungarian adaptation

| | Scale Mean if Item Deleted | Scale Variance if Item Deleted | Corrected Item-Total Correlation | Squared Multiple Correlation | Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted |
|--------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| self esteem | 69.4361 | 86.210 | .818 | .779 | .937 |
| emotion expression | 69.6600 | 86.709 | .655 | .628 | .942 |
| self-motivation | 69.5802 | 87.617 | .817 | .723 | .938 |
| emotion regulation | 70.2618 | 93.556 | .417 | .588 | .946 |
| happiness | 68.8696 | 81.680 | .871 | .872 | .935 |
| empathy | 69.5340 | 89.310 | .638 | .695 | .942 |
| social awareness | 69.3052 | 86.240 | .874 | .826 | .936 |
| impulsivity (low) | 69.9448 | 93.872 | .451 | .363 | .945 |
| emotion perception | 69.6022 | 89.023 | .728 | .678 | .940 |
| stress management | 70.2683 | 88.300 | .693 | .628 | .940 |
| emotion management | 69.4402 | 90.537 | .676 | .599 | .941 |
| optimism | 69.2183 | 83.135 | .809 | .813 | .937 |
| relationships | 69.0529 | 89.248 | .681 | .662 | .941 |
| adaptability | 70.1517 | 87.564 | .743 | .677 | .939 |
| assertiveness | 69.3220 | 88.431 | .719 | .625 | .940 |

Table 25b. Item-Total Statistics of the 4 TEIQue factors in the Hungarian adaptation

| | Scale Mean if Item Deleted | Scale Variance if Item Deleted | Corrected Item-Total Correlation | Squared Multiple Correlation | Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted |
|--------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| well being | 14.6623 | 3.280 | .841 | .732 | .797 |
| self-control | 15.6460 | 5.006 | .598 | .393 | .884 |
| emotionality | 14.9499 | 4.391 | .693 | .524 | .850 |
| sociability | 14.8435 | 4.184 | .833 | .711 | .799 |

The high Cronbach Alpha and the strong correlation among the items confirmed that the Hungarian version of the TEIQue is strongly reliable at a global, factorial and facet levels.

4.1.3 Developing task and contextual performance measurement

This part of the thesis aims to explore the similarities and differences in interviewees' viewpoints on individual performance and performance influencing factors, CSFs and KPIs to define the measuring scale. The thesis applies methodological triangulation which allows the researcher to carry out both quantitative and qualitative methods as explained previously (in

Chapter 3). As with the pre-study of the quantitative individual performance measurement in the OCEQP Questionnaire qualitative case study method, based on semi-structured interviews with hotel functional managers, has been applied. This step is necessary in accepting the defined task- and contextual performance concepts for measurement (Veal, 2011:125). Subjective interpretation of the results may occur that can be counterbalanced with a carefully planned process and adequate methodology. Therefore pattern-matching and exploration building have been applied (Yin, 2009) taking Ghauri's and Gronhaug's (2010) qualitative research analytical seven activities (both explained in *Chapter 3*) Eisenhardt's case study theory (1989) which might be old but still relevant is taken as a base by which the activities applied in the thesis are indicated with bold letters in Table 26.

Table 26. Process of building theory for the case study research with activities indicated for the present thesis case study (adapted from Eisenhardt, 1989:533)

| Step | Activity | Reason |
|------------------------------------|--|---|
| Getting started | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Definition of research question • Possibly a priory construct | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus efforts • Provides better grounding of construct measures |
| Selecting cases | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Neither theory, nor hypotheses • Specified population • Theoretical not random sampling | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Retains theoretical flexibility • Constrains extraneous variations and sharpens external validity • Focuses effort on theoretically useful cases, i.e. those that replicate or extend theory by filling conceptual categories |
| Crafting instruments and protocols | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multiply data collection methods • Qualitative and quantitative data combined • Multiply investigators | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strengthens grounding of theory by triangulation of evidence • Synergistic view of evidence • Foster divergent perspectives and strengthens grounding |
| Entering the field | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overlap data collection and analysis including field notes • Flexible and opportunistic data collection method | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Speeds analyses and reveals helpful adjustments to data collection • Allows investigators to take advantage of emergent themes and unique case features |
| Analysing data | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Within-case analysis • Cross-case pattern search using divergent techniques | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gains familiarity with data and preliminary theory generation • Forces investigators to look beyond initial impressions and see evidence through multiple lenses |
| Shaping hypotheses | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Iterative tabulation of evidence for each construct • Replication, not sampling, logic across cases • Search evidence for "why" behind relationships | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sharpens construct definition, validity, and measurability • Confirms, extends, and sharpens theory • Builds internal validity |
| Enfolding literature | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Comparison with conflicting literature • Comparison with similar literature | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Builds internal validity, raises theoretical level, and sharpens construct definitions • Sharpens generalizability, improves construct definition, and raises theoretical level |

| | | |
|------------------|--|--|
| Reaching closure | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Theoretical saturation when possible | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ends process when marginal improvement becomes small |
|------------------|--|--|

4.1.3.1 *The process of data collection*

In the semi-structured interview, the questions were arranged into three main parts.¹³

- In the first part, general information about the hotel and the interviewee were asked.
- The second part contained questions regarding the hotel performance system: interviewees explained the hotel performance assessment system-. If they did not have such a system then the question *'how individual performance was assessed'* was asked. Interviewees were asked to define the notion of performance assessment and how they would rate it: excellent, good or poor performance. Furthermore the phenomenon and importance of line managers' performance assessment by function and the factors that influence a functional manager's performance were researched. The second section of questions of the second part included items regarding the procedure with which managers had been selected (including the process they were selected) to fill their positions.
- In the third part, the interviewees were asked to define the notion of emotional intelligence, its importance in a managerial position and the way emotional intelligence would influence the performance of a manager.

The interview questions had been piloted by three hotel managers and proofread by the two supervisors. After the final version (both in English and Hungarian) the exploratory study was carried out with three Hungarian and three British general and functional managers between July 2011 and January 2012. The interview questions can be found in *Appendix 5 a*.

4.1.3.2 *Sampling*

The sample was selected from the Hungarian hospitality population among functional managers whose hotels were members of the Hungarian Hotel and Restaurant Association. Sampling in this case study used a pragmatic/opportunistic method relying on personal contacts of the researcher and her colleagues (see further description in 3.2.4). Selecting the Hungarian managers was based on the fact that the research was supported by the Hungarian Hotel and Restaurant Association, and as an Education Board member the author had access to each member, hotel's basic data (name of the hotel, category, room size, owner, general manager, contact/telephone and email address). All interviewed managers worked in hotels that were

¹³ Note: past tense is used from this part on in thesis to describe the chronological process of the researchwriting

members of the Association. On the British side, hotels in Derby were selected for two reasons. Firstly, the thesis was written at the University of Derby Business School and it seemed an excellent opportunity to see the performance assessment systems of Derby hotels. At the first stage of the thesis the intention was to compare Hungarian data with the British data. Unfortunately due to the low response rate from British hotels this could not be carried out. Nevertheless for the purpose to generalisation and internationality the performance questionnaire from these interviews were considered. Secondly, as a part-time student travelling from Hungary it is always challenging for a researcher to organise interviews with key people. When considering the numbers of cases that is appropriate during qualitative data collecting Ghauri and Grønhaug (2010:114) state that “*there is no upper or lower limit*”.

4.1.3.3 Research ethics

Interviews can be carried out either personally, by phone (online as well) or by mail (e-mail too). In the thesis all of the interviews were carried out personally at an agreed time with the interviewees either by phone or e-mails. Before and during data collection and publication, researchers must be aware of the ethical concerns such as insuring participants’ anonymity, protecting participants from physical and mental perils, asking permission from an authorized body and the participants themselves (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2010). Interviewees taking part in the research had been informed about the content and the process of the interview and asked to sign the *Interviewee Consent* (see *Appendix 5b*). Each interviewee signed the interviewee’s consent before and after the interview. All of them agreed to the recording of the interview and that the results may appear in the PhD thesis and research articles without mentioning names and providing the audio recording to third parties.

4.1.3.4 Introduction to the case studies

In the following part, the interviews are presented in a form of case studies. As it has been explained previously (*Chapter 3*), case study methods have the merits of acting as a pre-study to explore and identify concepts and items that would be included in the final measurement. This methodological tool allows the researcher to treat the study as a whole (Veal, 2010).

Each interview outcomes are presented in *Appendix 8*. Then the case studies were introduced in chronological order, first the three Hungarian then the three British interviews. The initial aim was to identify the organizational and individual CSFs and KPIs and how these were present in their PAS (Performance Assessment System) had to be altered. The reason was that during the interviews it turned out that none of the Hungarian hotels and only one of the British hotels had PAS. The focus shifted to finding out the reasons for not having a PAS. Moreover

the managers' own interpretation of the meaning and aim of a PAS, and the factors that influence performance on skills and ability as well as on personality and behavioural were identified. Table 27 summarises the characteristics of each interviewee and the hotel involved in the interview.

Table 27. Data of the hotels and the interviewees in the case studies

| Hotel code | Location | Hotel type | Hotel size (No of rooms) | Chain member | Position of the interviewee |
|------------|------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------|---|
| Case 1 | Budapest, Hungary | Conference and wellness | 309 | yes | Room Division Manager |
| Case 2 | Balatonalmádi, Hungary | Conference and wellness | 208 | yes | Front Office Manager |
| Case 3 | Veszprém, Hungary | Conference and wellness | 38 | no | Marketing and Sales Manager |
| Case 4 | Derby, UK | Corporate city | 233 | yes | General Manager (previously Front Office and F&B) |
| Case 5 | Derby, UK | Corporate and conference | 190 | yes | General Manager (previously Finance and Sales) |
| Case 6 | Derby, UK | Corporate and conference | 38 (42+29+30) 4 hotels in a group | no | Human Resources Manager |

4.1.3.5 Findings from case studies outcomes

The case studies were based on six interviews with hotel managers. The main reason for using the case study method was to test the applicability of previous task and contextual performance theories and measurements in order to develop a quantitative data collecting questionnaire in the main part of the research. Although the hotels varied in size and location, and furthermore two out of the six were independent hotels, answers concerning performance, performance influencing factors, aim of PAS and required managerial competencies exposed quite a few similarities.

Data analysis was carried out in two ways:

- first, synthesising the answers given to questions regarding definitions;
- secondly, pattern-matching and explanation building technique methods were adopted and developed in tables.

After synthesising the interviewees' concepts (identifying the key words and similarities of the definitions), performance was defined as an *individual and organisational goal related job-description and task required measurable behaviour*. The aim of a formally applied performance assessment system would be to *measure someone against a set of criteria that has been targeted together with the management of the organisation to see personal development*

and to give feedback and discuss pitfalls. Excellent performance was determined in a process when both individual and hotel aims were realised, attitude and standards staid high regardless of unstable business environment. Two managers even indicated that on a 10 Likert-scale measurement this would be 9 or above. The definition of poor performance would be the opposite of the excellent counterpart: when both individual and hotel aims were not realised, attitude and standards stayed low even in a stable business environment. Again two managers indicated that it would be under 6 on a 10 point Likert-scale and one of them also added a financial indicator (10% or more drop in annual revenue). The factors that influence hotel functional and general managers' performance could be grouped into three major categories: business environment, external (private) and organisational conditions, and personal characteristics. Within the business environment, competition and feedback from stakeholders were indicated. The nature of owner, time, team-work, communication, feedback, guest satisfaction and personal life influenced external and organisational circumstance factors. Inner personal characteristics including skills, abilities, values, traits and behavioural elements for example education, experience, morale and inner-motivation were identified. The summary of key outcomes of the case studies on performance related concepts are in Table 28.

Table 28. Summary of case study findings regarding PAS and managers' performance

| Hotel code | Definition of performance | Aim of Performance Assessment System | Factors influencing managers' performance | Excellent performance | Poor performance |
|------------|---|--|--|---|--|
| Case 1 | goal-assigned effectiveness which aims to allow people to do good work in their own way | to measure target activities | time, cohesive team-work, communication, giving-receiving feedback, employee and guest satisfaction | when both individual and organisational annual target aims are maximally realised | when individual and organisation are both unsatisfied with the results |
| Case 2 | measuring individual task and specific required work | to give a framework and order combined with regular individual feedback | externally: time, owner, family, team -work individually: inner values and motivation, attitude, extra effort, educational and personality traits (empathy, sociability, self-confidence) | excellent performance on a 10 point Likert scale would be 10, 100% realisation of the aim | under 6 on the 10-point Likert scale |
| Case 3 | phenomenon measured by the staff turnover, annual income and the success of projects , number of new business partners and returning guests | to satisfy the owner's vision | personality , team-work | extraordinary achievement | numerous repetitive mistakes |
| Case 4 | the outcome of employees' day-to-day work | to measure annually how an individual's realistic target performance goal that was put together with HR and line-manager is achieved | morale , attitude, behaviour, personality, motivation, feedback from the stakeholders and personal life | even if the skills are not exceptionally good but attitude and morale are excellent | job requirement is not meet by an employee and morale and attitude are low |

| | | | | | |
|--------|---|--|---|--|--|
| Case 5 | employees follow the job descriptions and outperform where it is possible | to be certain if the mission of the hotel chain, is realised | competition, experience, hard and soft managerial skills | employees keep high standards and attitude, provide outstanding customer and customised service especially for regular corporate guests even in turbulent times (9-10 on a 10 point Likert scale) | when revenue drops 10% or more and guests complaints about poor service rise, (under 5 on the 10 point Likert scale) |
| Case 6 | how people develop or are willing to develop their strengths and then how the organisation develops | to measures someone against a set of criteria, to observe how realistic the targets and roles are taking circumstances and structures into account | personality (self-motivation and confidence), private life and business circumstances and situations. | when target is met, when there is little scope to develop further | when individual performance does not meet target organisational performance |

Hotels either did not have a formal PAS or had an informal one which was subjectively used. Only one out of the six hotels had a formal PAS, but the result of the functional managers' performance assessment was not available for use. Applying the pattern-matching method, CSFs and KPIs regarding individual performance were identified from the case studies. Umbreit's (1986) performance dimensions were applied to allocate the KPIs and individual CSFs to the 7 independent criteria. The detailed list is exhibited in *Appendix 9*.

The next step was to identify task and contextual performance sub-categories, the items that make each factor. For this, the explanation building (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2010) technique was applied. According to this method the following processes needed to be applied in this order: observe facts, deduct other results, detect implication and produce new model. Based on the task and contextual dimensions adopted from Smith, Organ and Near, 1983; Umbreit, 1986; Borman and Motowidlo, 1993; Motowidlo and Scotter, 1994; Moorman and Blakely, 1995; Umbreit, 2003; Fisher and Härtel, 2004; Aguinis, 2009, Al-Qurioti and Freih, 2009 and the CSFs and KPIs the following sub categories were defined: *task-requirement*, *co-working*, *communication*, *extra effort and loyalty*. According to previous studies (see *Literature review* part 2.4), task requirement and co-working facets were allocated to task performance while the extra effort and loyalty to contextual performance (see Table 29 and 30). Communication however, seemed to be an overlapping phenomenon that is present in both task and contextual performance. Therefore principle component analysis was applied (Table 34) to clear which factor communication facet belongs to. According to this, communication was identified as a task performance facet.

Table 29. Task performance dimensions, examples and defined categories

| Task performance dimensions | Example CSFs and KPIs from the case studies | Defined sub-categories |
|--|--|---|
| Activities that transform raw materials into goods and services | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SMART objectives • experience how hotel is run • critical thinking • job-description related task requirements | task- requirement |
| Activities that help with distributing finished products, services planning | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • effective team-work • social capital • attracting new business partners • communication skills • feedback from guest | task-requirement co-working communication |
| Activities that help planning, coordinating, supervising | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • realise financial aims • job-description related task requirements • communicate organisation and personal goals • reduce repetitive mistakes • responsible for decisions • confidence • giving and receiving feedback from stakeholders | task requirement co-working communication |
| Activities that enable organisations to function effectively and efficiently | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • job-description related task requirements • high-standard attitude • observe guest routines • mediation (between functions) | task requirements co-working communication |

Table 30. Contextual performance dimensions, examples and defined categories

| Contextual performance dimensions | Example CSFs and KPIs from the case studies | Defined sub-categories |
|--|--|---|
| Persisting with enthusiasm and exerting extra effort to complete task successfully | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • willingness to learn from mistakes • motivation • flexibility • resilience • soft-skills | extra effort communication |
| Volunteering to carry out tasks that are not part of their formally set job | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • organise/develop training • take part in trainings/ education | extra effort |
| Helping and cooperating others | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • giving and receiving feedback • listen and face-to-face communication • be kind to guests • soft-skills | extra effort loyalty communication |
| Endorsing, supporting and defending organisational objectives | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • honesty • morale • assertiveness | loyalty |
| Following organisational rules and procedures | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • keep deadlines • values • attitude | extra effort loyalty |

The performance measure applied in the thesis was, on the one hand, developed based on the CSFs and KPIs from previous studies which the interview outcomes confirmed, and on the other hand, items from previous research were adapted to the hospitality. The performance part originally consisted of 40 items, 8 questions for each facet. Table 31 displays the factors with facets and the questions from the previous research from which it had been adapted. Those questions with the abbreviation of *dev.* were developed by author.

Table 31. Performance questionnaire items developed and applied in the thesis with resources

| Factor | Facet | Question | Resource |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|---|---|
| TASK PERFORMANCE | task-requirement | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. lead your functional area effectively, that is producing the intended and /or expected result(s) 2. lead your functional area efficiently, that is performing with the least waste of time, resources and effort 3. meet deadlines under any circumstances 4. pay close attention to important details 5. perform your functional duties with unusually few errors 6. present proper appearance and manner required by the hotel 7. follow standard operating procedures and avoid unauthorised shortcuts 8. handle guest complaints and promote guest relations | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. dev. 2. dev. 3. Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994 4. Moorman and Blakely, 1995 5. Moorman and Blakely, 1995 6. Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994 7. Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994 8. Umreit, 1986 |
| | co-working | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. initiate to discuss and find solution to work related dilemma 2. coordinate your job with other functional managers 3. support and encourage co-operation among subordinates 4. give feedback to stakeholders (owner, employees, customers, suppliers etc.) 5. help and pay attention to new employees 6. empower subordinates 7. encourage employees to have initiatives and realise and implement an idea if it is feasible 8. exchange ideas and share information with all employees | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. dev. 2. dev. 3. dev. 4. dev. 5. dev. 6. dev. 7. dev. 8. Al-Qurioti and Freih, 2009 |
| | communication | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. reply work-related e-mails and phone calls within a day 2. encourage open communication and information sharing without bias 3. ask everyone who is involved in a conflict at your unit before judging or finding a solution 4. aim to solve conflicts and negotiate to find a win-win solution 5. allow employees to approach you with work and/or private related problems 6. allow hotel guest to approach you with problems and/or suggestions 7. inform co-workers about a change in a program or an event in time 8. find important to organise regular staff meeting | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. dev. 2. dev. 3. dev. 4. dev. 5. dev. 6. dev. 7. dev. 8. dev. |

| | | | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------|---|---|
| CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE | extra effort | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. arrive at work and appointments on time 2. exhibit attendance at work beyond the norms, e.g. take less days off than allowed or other functional managers in a hotel 3. help other functional managers and subordinates when their workload increases 4. make innovative suggestions to improve hotel performance 5. take part in training, conferences and/or further education to increase your job performance 6. seek opportunities to apply what has been learnt during training, conferences or further education courses 7. do things not formally required by your job 8. volunteer to be involved in deeds from which the local community and the hotel can both benefit (e.g. support local events) | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Smith, Organ and Near, 1983 2. Smith, Organ and Near, 1983 3. Smith, Organ and Near, 1983 4. Smith, Organ and Near, 1983 5. Al Qurashi, 2009 6. dev. 7. Smith, Organ and Near, 1983 8. dev. |
| | loyalty | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. defend your hotel when other employees criticise it 2. show pride when representing your hotel in public 3. actively promote your hotel's services to potential users 4. talk positively about the hotel with family and friends 5. have a better work and career opportunity in this hotel than any other possible workplace 6. subscribe to the hotel mission, vision and have similar values to those of the hotel 7. care about the destiny of the hotel 8. do not leave the hotel because of changes in work requirement | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Moorman and Blakely, 1995 2. Moorman and Blakely, 1995 3. Moorman and Blakely, 1995 4. Al-Qurioti and Freih, 2009 5. Al-Qurioti and Freih, 2009 6. Al-Qurioti and Freih, 2009 7. Al-Qurioti and Freih, 2009 8. Al-Qurioti and Freih, 2009 |

As it was referred to previously, the communication facet postured in between the task and contextual performance factors. For this particular research, communication was found to belong to be a contextual facet which is described in the next part of the thesis (Table 34).

4.1.4 Reliability of the *Individual Performance* scale

The performance measurement items had either been tested and applied in other research works and rewritten for this study or developed for the thesis. Previously (in 3.4.2. part) the process of the performance variable development and the two hypnotised factors (task- and contextual performance) were described. In this part, the performance questionnaire was examined before testing the hypotheses of the thesis. Within quantitative methods, principle component analysis was applied to determine and assign the variables to the group of task- or contextual performance.

There are two main requirements when applying principle component analysis (Pallant, 2013): sample size and the strengths of items' relationship. It is suggested that the bigger the sample the more reliable the correlation coefficients among the variables. Nonetheless, Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) suggest that it is rather the ratio of participants to item that counts. The correlation matrix table reveals the variables inter-correlations in which the number of 0.3 or above coefficients should be great in number in order to use the principle component analysis (Janssens et al, 2008). Moreover the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) index (which ranges between 0 and 1) should be higher than 0.6 to mean that the data is suitable for factor analysis. To be able to use the results, the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value significance ($p < 0.05$) ought to be checked (Székelyi and Barna, 2008). The Kaiser's criterion or Eigenvalue rule declares that only those items with 1 or higher Eigenvalue are retained. The other technique that looks at which items should be kept for further analysis is the Catell's screen test. On the screenshot the change of the curve indicates that only items above the elbow of the horizontal line need to be considered as those would explain most of the variances (Pallant, 2013). If KMO is above 0.6, the Communalities Extraction needs to be investigated which indicates how securely each of the measured items is replaceable. The value of the Communalities Extraction varies between 0.25 and 0.5 according to different authors (e.g. Sajtos and Mitev, 2007; Székelyi and Barna, 2008; Pallant, 2013). Most of the statistic experts suggest that it should not be less than 0.25 otherwise the removal of the item needs to be considered (Székelyi and Barna, 2008). The Component Matrix exhibits the unrotated loading of the items. This index should be 1 or above to retain items, the higher the value the stronger the item loading is. The Pattern Matrix shows the number of possible factors and each item's loading within the factors, while the Structure Matrix illustrates the correlation between variables and factors (Pallant, 2013). As two performance factors (task and contextual) had been hypothesised based on previous research and the case studies, in the Pattern Matrix the items loading to the two factors were intended to be examined. Considering these principle component analysis requirements the performance variables are presented below.

Both the KMO with a 0.865 index and the Bartlett's test significance ($p = .000$) enabled the principle component analysis. Also there were numerous variables in the Correlation Matrix where the correlation coefficients exceeded 0.3. The Screenplot backed up the Initial Eigenvalues where nine components went beyond 1 explaining 71.65% of the total variance. When checking the Communalities Extraction, the following items' values were less than 0.25

therefore needed to be removed: TR2 (.188), EF1 (.192), CO1 (.137) and CO6 (.249). The detailed description of analysis is in *Appendix 10*.

After removing these four variables, the process was repeated with the remaining thirty-six performance items with the following results. The KMO index and the Bartlett’s test showed very good values (Table 32).

Table 32. KMO and Bartlett's Test of 36 performance variables

| | |
|--|--------------------|
| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. | .873 |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square |
| | 2828.220 |
| | df |
| | 630 |
| | Sig. |
| | .000 |

This time, the Communalities Extraction value of all variables was higher than 0.25 (see *Appendix 11*) which insured that performance items be included in the final version for further multiple regression, variance analysis and cross-tabulation analysis. In the Component Matrix the unrotated loading of each item was above the obligatory .1, most of them loaded strongly (above .5). In the Pattern Matrix the two factors with their variables could be clearly distinguished (*Appendix 12*). The Structure Matrix and Rotated Component Matrix applying Varimax rotation also exhibited the performance items’ correlation to the two factors. A detailed description can be found in *Appendix 13a and 13b*.

Positive affect items loaded strongly on Component 1 while negative affect items loaded strongly on Component 2. The two factors showed a good correlation ($r = -.453$) as illustrated in Table 33.

Table 33. Component Correlation Matrix

| Component | 1 | 2 |
|-----------|--------------|--------------|
| 1 | 1.000 | -.453 |
| 2 | -.453 | 1.000 |

Within Component 1, the facets of task requirement (TR), co-working (CW) and communication (CO) loaded while within Component 2, the variables of extra effort (EF) and loyalty (LO). Component 1 was then acknowledged as the *task performance factor*, and Component 2 as the *contextual performance factor*. In the case study analysis, the

communication items appeared in both performance factors. The principle component analysis revealed that communication variables fell into the task performance factor (though CO5 showed a bit lower loading). The two factors with items and loading is illustrated in Table 34.

Table 34. Pattern Matrix of task and contextual performance factor variables

| Items | Factors | |
|---|---------|------------|
| | Task | Contextual |
| TR1: lead your functional area effectively. that is producing the intended and/or expected result(s) | .534 | |
| TR3: meet deadlines under any circumstances | .616 | |
| TR4: pay close attention to important details | .749 | |
| TR5: perform your functional duties with unusually few errors | .567 | |
| TR6: present proper appearance and manner required by the hotel | .454 | |
| TR7: follow standard operating procedures and avoid unauthorised shortcuts | .567 | |
| TR8: handle guest complaints and promote guest relations | .476 | |
| CW1: initiate to discuss and find solutions to work related dilemmas | .595 | |
| CW2: coordinate your job with other functional managers | .638 | |
| CW3: support and encourage co-operation among subordinates | .834 | |
| CW4: give feedback to stakeholders (owner. employees. customers etc.) | .371 | |
| CW5: help and pay attention to new employees | .732 | |
| CW6: empower subordinates | .523 | |
| CW7: encourage employees to have initiatives and realise and implement an idea if it is feasible | .531 | |
| CW8: exchange ideas and share information with all employees | .487 | |
| CO2: encourage open communication and information sharing without bias | .677 | |
| CO3: ask everyone who is involved in a conflict at your unit before judging or finding a solution | .582 | |
| CO4: aim to solve conflicts and negotiate to find a win-win solution | .540 | |
| CO5: allow employees to approach you with work and/or private related problems | .338 | |
| CO7: inform co-workers about a change in a program or an event in time | .583 | |
| CO8: find it important to organise regular staff meetings | .454 | |
| EF2: exhibit attendance at work beyond the norms. e.g. take less days off than allowed or other functional managers in a hotel | | -.653 |
| EF3: help other functional managers and subordinates when their workload increases | | -.468 |
| EF4: make innovative suggestions to improve hotel performance | | -.431 |
| EF5: take part in training conferences and/or further education to increase your job performance | | -.645 |
| EF6: seek opportunities to apply what has been learnt at training, conferences or at further education courses | | -.628 |
| EF7: do things not formally required by your job | | -.692 |
| EF8: volunteer to be involved in deeds from which the local community and the hotel can both benefit from (e.g. support local events) | | -.665 |
| LO1: defend your hotel when other employees criticise it | | -.660 |
| LO2: show pride when representing your hotel in public | | -.726 |
| LO3: actively promote your hotel's services to potential users | | -.384 |
| LO4: talk positively about the hotel with family and friends | | -.753 |

| | | |
|--|--|-------|
| LO5: have a better work and career opportunity in this hotel than other possible workplace (reverse score) | | -.776 |
| LO6: subscribe to the hotel mission, vision and have similar values to those of the hotel | | -.817 |
| LO7: care about the destiny of the hotel | | -.761 |
| LO8: do not leave the hotel because of changes in work requirement | | -.877 |

The reliability test of the performance instrument displayed excellent results with a very high (.948) Cronbach Alpha (Table 35).

Table 35. Reliability Statistics of the Performance Measurement

| Cronbach's Alpha | Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items | N of Items |
|------------------|--|------------|
| .948 | .952 | 36 |

The item statistics, the final performance questionnaire with the task and contextual factors, and their acquired items exposing their Cronbach alphas are summarised in *Appendix 14* and *Appendix 15*. The reliability values (Cronbach alpha and the item-total statistics) of the task performance factor with its 3 facets (task-requirement, co-working and communication) and contextual performance factor with its 2 facets (extra effort and loyalty) are illustrated in Table 36.

Table 36. Item-Total Statistics of Performance factors and facets

| | Scale Mean if Item Deleted | Scale Variance if Item Deleted | Corrected Item-Total Correlation | Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted |
|------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------|---|----------------------------------|
| task requirement | 33.9441 | 18.501 | .611 | .925 |
| co-working | 34.0248 | 17.088 | .759 | .912 |
| communication | 33.9618 | 17.172 | .759 | .912 |
| extra effort | 35.0149 | 14.220 | .803 | .910 |
| loyalty | 34.1721 | 14.661 | .800 | .908 |
| Task Performance | 33.9769 | 17.490 | .860 | .908 |
| Contextual Performance | 34.5935 | 14.302 | .902 | .895 |

The item-total correlation and the Cronbach alpha of the facets and factors confirmed a strong individual performance instrument. Consequently, these 5 facets and the 2 factors were applied for further analyses of the thesis.

4.2. Descriptive statistics

In this part, statistics concerning the hotels and the functional managers in the sample are described.

4.2.1. Descriptive statistics of the hotels

Considering the function of the hotel, the majority of the participants in the sample were from conference and wellness hotels (28.4%) and city hotels (25.7%). Furthermore, 16.5% of the hotels were health and spa hotels. The other segments were represented in the following percentages: 10% wellness, 7.3% boutique, 1.8% purely conference and 1.8% apartment hotels. There was only 1 (0.9%) sport hotel, while 7.3% of the participants did not indicate the function of the hotel they worked for and no managers from an airport hotel took part in the survey. Table 37 summarises the hotel function distributions.

Table 37. Distribution of the 109 hotels by functions

| Hotel function | Number | Percent |
|-----------------------|--------|---------|
| Others | 8 | 7.3% |
| Wellness | 11 | 10.1% |
| Sport | 1 | .9% |
| Airport | 0 | .0% |
| Conference | 2 | 1.8% |
| City | 28 | 25.7% |
| Boutique | 8 | 7.3% |
| Conference & Wellness | 31 | 28.4% |
| Health & Spa | 18 | 16.5% |
| Apartment | 2 | 1.8% |

Considering the star-system the ratio of hotels that participated in the study was the following: 33% of the responses came from hotel managers working in 3-star hotels, 58.7% were from 4-star hotels and 8.3% were from 5-star hotels (Figure 19).

Figure 19. Distribution of hotels according to star category

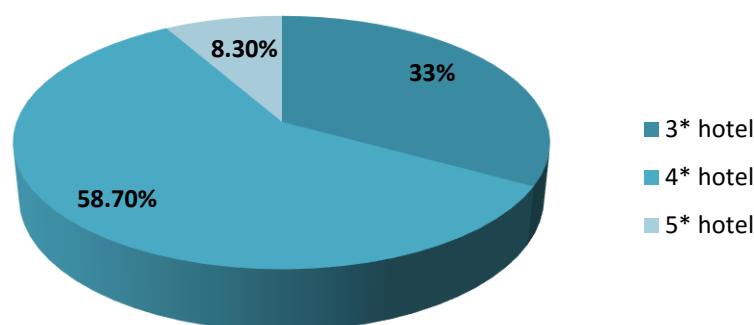


Table 38 illustrates the total number and the ratio of the hotels which are members of the Hungarian Hotel and Restaurant Association, the sample hotels and ratio in the thesis and its ratio comparison to the total HHRA hotels.

Table 38. Number and ratio of HHRA members and participants represented in the thesis

| stars | number of hotels in HHRA | percentage to all | number of hotels represented in the thesis | percentage to all in the thesis | percentage of HHRA |
|-----------|--------------------------|-------------------|--|---------------------------------|--------------------|
| 3* | 171 | 46.72% | 36 | 33% | 21% |
| 4* | 175 | 47.81% | 64 | 58.7% | 36.6% |
| 5* | 20 | 5.46% | 9 | 8.3% | 45% |

Although 30% of the hotels took part in the research, as the thesis focus was on the individual, this ratio cannot be considered as representative. Nevertheless, the ratio of the hotels indicated similar distribution to the HHRA member hotels. According to a rough calculation with the help of the HHRA, 1464 people were working in the 366 hotels in 2012. Taking this into account, the 109 participants represented about 7.4% of the total population. However, it needs to be emphasised that neither the exact number nor the distribution of the hotel managers (according to hotel stars, function and position of the managers) were available at the time of the research.

The majority of the hotels, 63.9%, were not members of a chain. However, most of the hotels, 70.6%, were members of Hotelstars Union. Regarding the number of employees and rooms it was visible that most of the hotels in the research are small (10-49 rooms) or medium size (50-150 rooms) hotels employing between 20-50 (49.5%) workers. A detailed description is illustrated in Table 39.

Table 39. Distribution of the number of rooms and employees in the hotels

| number of hotel rooms | distribution | percent | number of employees | distribution | percent |
|-----------------------|--------------|--------------|---------------------|--------------|--------------|
| 10-49 | 37 | 33.9% | 5-19 | 12 | 11.0% |
| 50-150 | 42 | 38.5% | 20-50 | 54 | 49.5% |
| 151-250 | 13 | 11.9% | 51-100 | 13 | 11.9% |
| 251-350 | 15 | 13.8% | 101-200 | 13 | 11.9% |
| 351+ | 2 | 1.8% | 201+ | 8 | 7.3% |
| | | | | 9 | 8.3% |

The occupancy rate is one of the organisational key performance indicators. In Table 40 the distribution and percentage indicates that the occupancy rate deviation is quite broad. Compared with the mean of all Hungarian hotels occupancy rate (47.7% in 2012) 63.3% of HHRA hotels that were represented in the thesis exceed this ratio.

Table 40 Occupancy rates of the hotels

| occupancy rate | distribution | percent |
|----------------|--------------|--------------|
| 21-30% | 3 | 2.8% |
| 31-40% | 14 | 12.8% |
| 41-50% | 23 | 21.1% |
| 51-60% | 26 | 23.9% |
| 61-70% | 18 | 16.5% |
| 71-80% | 18 | 16.5% |
| 81-90% | 6 | 5.5% |
| 91-100% | 1 | .9% |

On the whole, it can be claimed the functional managers mainly represented small and medium sized (10-150 rooms) 3- and 4-star hotels each employing less than 100 workers of with occupancy rates mainly between 51-80%.

4.2.2. Descriptive statistics of the functional managers

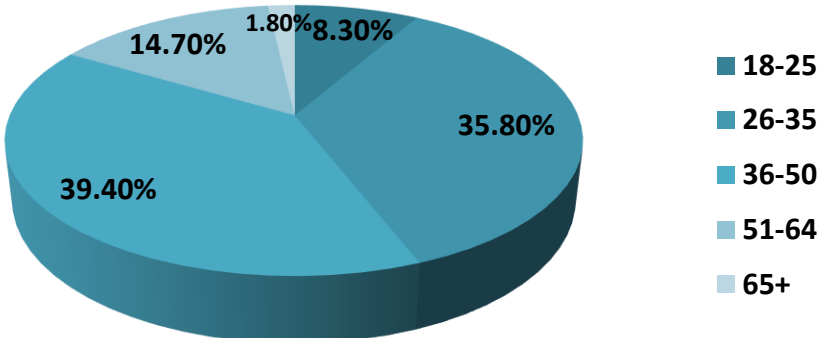
Unfortunately, no statistics concerning the gender, age, tenure and education level of hotel functional managers were available. Therefore statistics that take all hotels and accommodation employees' data into consideration was applied (HCSO. Hungarian Central Statistical Office, 2011-2012)¹⁴ when comparing the descriptive statistics in the thesis. In the research 51.4% (56

¹⁴ www.ksh.hu/nepszamlalas/tablak_foglalkoztatatas

mangers) of the functional managers were female and 48.6% (53 managers) were male. This showed similarity to the ratio of employee distribution of genders in Hungarian hotels in 2011-2012 where 57.6% female and 42.4% male were employed.

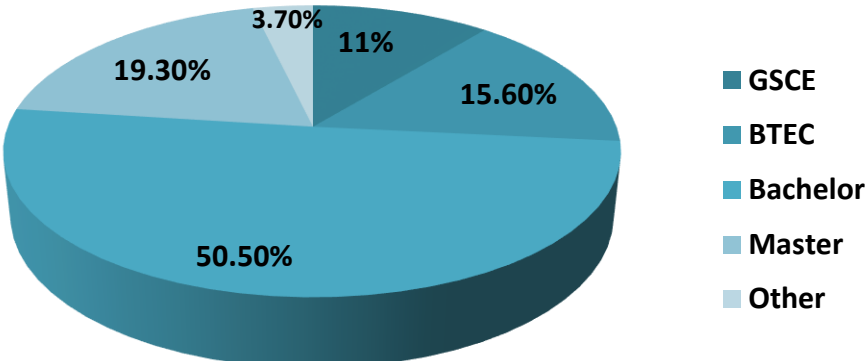
Regarding the age, the representation of the 26-35 and 36-50 year old categories were high, altogether 75.2% (Figure 20) which indicated a similarity with the national ration of hospitality employees (77.4%).

Figure 20. Distribution of functional managers according to age



Altogether 66.1% of the functional managers had a bachelor’s or master’s degree, (Figure 21) which was triple of the ratio (21.9%) compared to the employees’ degrees working in hospitality. However, it is not surprising as the national statistics took all hospitality employees data into consideration, while the thesis focuses on the managers.

Figure 21. Distribution of functional managers according to qualification



To be a manager, one needs to have experience which comes with a number of years spent in the industry. Nevertheless, the time spent in hospitality does not necessary mean in the same

place. Table 41 summarises the total length of service, tenure spent in the present hotel and number of years that a manager was/had been in his/her position.

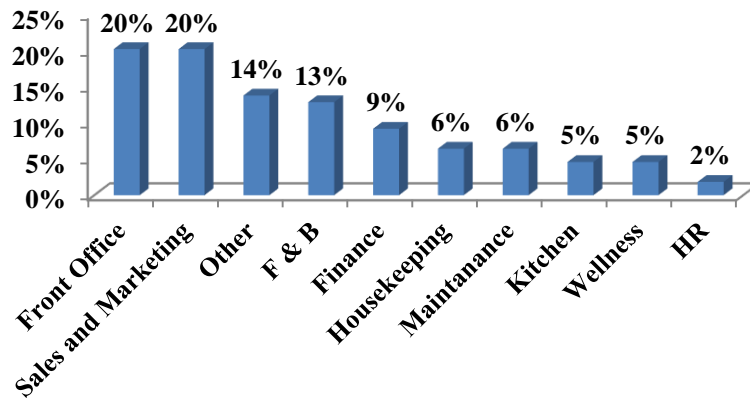
Table 41. The number of years spent in the industry, present hotel and present managerial position

| <i>total tenure in hotel industry</i> | | <i>tenure in present hotel</i> | | <i>tenure in present position</i> | |
|---------------------------------------|--------------|--------------------------------|--------------|-----------------------------------|--------------|
| 1-3 year | 8.3% | 1-3 year | 28.4% | 1-3 year | 49.5% |
| 4-10 year | 36.7% | 4-6 year | 34.9% | 4-6 year | 23.9% |
| 11-20 year | 34.9% | 7-10 year | 17.4% | 7-10 year | 14.7% |
| 21+ year | 20.1% | 11+ year | 19.3% | 11+ year | 11.9% |

The results presented the horizontal career phenomena characterised by the hospitality industry. Nearly 37% of the present functional managers spent between 4-10 years in the industry before receiving a managerial position but, the number of those (34.9%) who spent between 11-20 years were high as well. This result contradicts the statistics of high staff turnover which is generally the case in the hotel industry presented in the literature. Altogether 63.3% of the managers worked in the present hotel for between 1-6 years before receiving their positions. The majority (49.5%), though, seemed to have become a functional manager within 3 years.

The majority of the respondents were from front office and sales and marketing positions (Figure 22). Due to the contact list from HHRA, most of the hotels had a general (info@) e-mail address available. This kind of e-mail address is usually received by employees working at the front office or in the sales and marketing office. Although in a cover letter it was asked that the e-mail and the research link and/or questionnaire (attached in pdf form to the e-mail) be circulated, it is generally known that secondary information may not have the same effect.

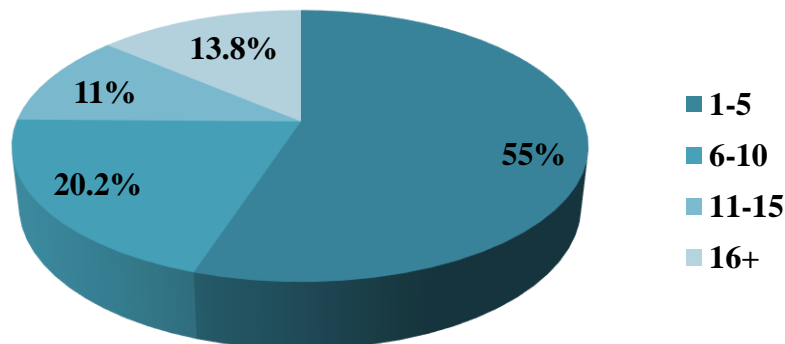
Figure 22. Distribution of managers according to functional area



The unexpected ratio (14%) was the ‘Other’ category. However, after checking the answers, it became clear as the “Other” respondents were general managers of small (10-49 rooms) and medium (50-150 rooms) hotels in which the number of employees were mostly under 30. In case of a small business there might only be one manager responsible for all functions. Regarding the star and capacity, these hotels showed diversity. In one case there was no answer. The summary of the other functional category is displayed in *Appendix 16*.

Finally, the number of employees working in functional management positions, for which the hotel manager was responsible, was asked for. Figure 23 illustrates that most (55%) of the functional managers worked closely with from 1-5 colleagues. The ratio (20.2%) of 6-10 employees under a manager’s supervisory was also adequate. Altogether most managers were responsible for fewer than 11 people within their functional area.

Figure 23. Number of subordinates a functional manager works with and is responsible for



4.3. The emotional intelligence part of the OCEQP Questionnaire

4.3.1 Hotel functional managers' emotional intelligence results

This part describes the general statistics concerning the hotel functional managers' emotional intelligence. Additionally, the results are compared to other Hungarian managers' results from different sectors in previous studies (Komlósi and Göndör, 2013; Komlósi and Kovács, 2013).

Managers' emotional intelligence was measured in a 7-point Likert scale, where three categories had been determined by the developer of the TEIQue measurement (Petrides, 2009):

- low emotional intelligence is 4.60 (mean) or under
- average emotional intelligence level is between 4.61 and 5.29 (mean)
- high emotional intelligence level is 5.30 or above

Statistics concerning the functional managers' emotional intelligence means, standard deviation minimum and maximum scores are illustrated in Table 42. It revealed that functional managers' global emotional intelligence level was 4.97 that falls into the average category. At a factorial level these results indicated that hotel functional managers' well-being (5.37) was in the high category, while self-control (4.39) fell into the low category. The means of emotionality (5.08) and sociability (5.19) factors indicated average emotional intelligence category.

Table 42. Statistics of hotel managers' emotional intelligence (N=109)

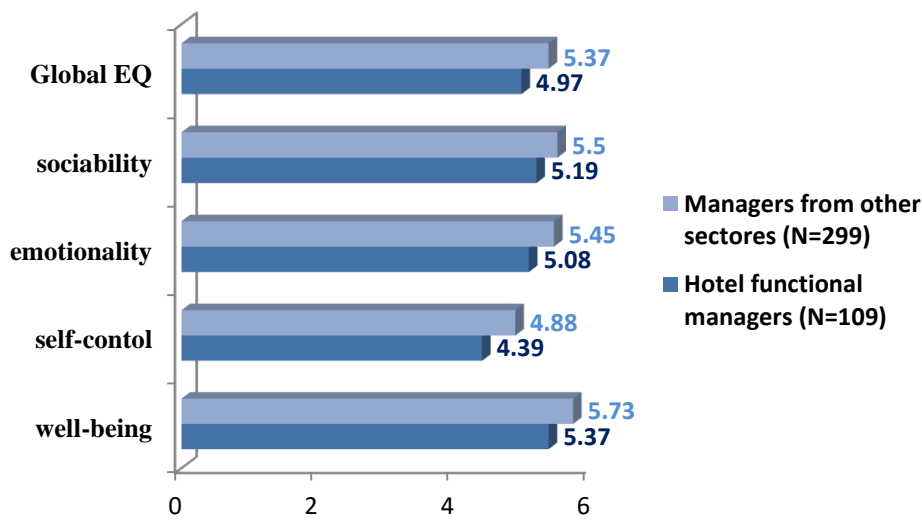
| EQ factors | Mean | St. deviation | Minimum | Maximum |
|-------------------|-------------|----------------------|----------------|----------------|
| well-being | 5.37 | .972 | 2.96 | 6.87 |
| self-control | 4.39 | .654 | 3.00 | 6.36 |
| emotionality | 5.08 | .762 | 3.09 | 6.53 |
| sociability | 5.19 | .726 | 3.28 | 6.69 |
| Global EQ | 4.97 | .669 | 3.26 | 6.42 |

In the previous study, results with managers (N=299) from various industrial fields (Komlósi and Göndör, 2013; Komlósi and Kovács, 2013) were compared to the thesis sample with hotel functional managers' emotional intelligence levels and this is exhibited in Figure 24.

When comparing these results with managers' results from other sectors in previous studies, it could be concluded that hotel managers scored less in each emotional intelligence factor. The global EQ mean for managers from other sectors fell into the high emotional intelligence

category (5.37) compared to the hotel functional managers average category (4.97). Nevertheless, the ranking and tendency of means showed similarities. Overall managers' well-being means were the highest (5.37 hotel- and 5.73 for other managers) and self-control mean the lowest (4.39 for hotel- and 4.88 for other managers, though the latter fell into the average category). Sociability and emotionality were at the same level, but while it meant a high category for managers from other fields (sociability 5.5; emotionality 5.45) for hotel functional managers the means remained in the average categories (sociability 5.19; emotionality 5.08).

Figure 24. The global and factorial level of emotional intelligence of hotel functional managers and managers from other fields



Considering gender difference, an independent t-test was carried out. The t-test was applied to the mean scores on continuous variables (EQ) of two different groups, which were the emotional intelligence levels of males and females (see Table 43). The Levene's test indicates the equality of the variances; that is whether the variance of scores between the two genders is the same. If the value is .05 it means that the Levene's test is not significant, therefore the null hypothesis that states no difference between genders is rejected and the fact that there is a difference between the groups as an alternative hypothesis is accepted (Sajtos and Mitev, 2007). The significance value was .007 (less than .05), which indicated that the variance for men and women are not the same. Therefore the data violated the assumption of equal variance. In this case alternative t-value should be tested: the equal *variances not assumed* column needed to be checked for further analysis. Here the significance 2-tailed value (.180 which is more than .05) indicated that there was no significant difference between men's and women's global emotional levels.

Table 43. Independent samples test for global emotional intelligence by gender

| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | |
|------------------------|------------------------------------|---|-------------|------------------------------|--------|-----------------|
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
| global trait EI | Equal variances assumed | 7.655 | .007 | -1.362 | 107 | .176 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -1.351 | 96.113 | .180 |

These results were further analysed using the Eta square test, which provides the effective size statistics indicating the difference between the two groups. This number ranges between 0 and 1 with the following interpretation (Pallant, 2013):

- .01 = small effect
- .06 = moderate effect
- .14=large effect

The Eta square was calculated by using the following formula:

$$Eta\ square = t^2/t^2+(N1+N2-2)$$

Calculating global EQ Eta square was the following:

$$Eta\ square = 1,351^2/1,351^2+(56+53-2)$$

The result was .0167 which confirmed that gender had only a small effect on global emotional intelligence. It means that (if the Eta square is multiplied by 100) global emotional intelligence was explained around 17% by gender. Previous studies' results also supported that globally there was only a slight difference between the genders' emotional intelligence levels (e.g. Petrides, 2009, Komlósi and Göndör, 2013).

On the other hand, male and female emotional intelligence levels indicated differences within the factors. Although the independent t-test (in Table 44) revealed no gender differences within the means of well-being (sig. .174) and sociability (sig. .754) factors (sig. 2-tailed was above .05 based on *equal variances assumed t*), means of self-control (sig. .046) and emotionality (sig. .001) factors results (sig. 2-tailed is less than .05 based on *equal variances not assumed t*) indicated a significant difference between the two genders.

Table 44. Independent samples test for emotional intelligence factors by gender

| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | |
|---------------------|-----------------------------|---|-------------|------------------------------|---------|-----------------|
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
| well being | Equal variances assumed | 1.779 | .185 | 1.369 | 107 | .174 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 1.363 | 102.986 | .176 |
| self-control | Equal variances assumed | 5.856 | .017 | -2.037 | 107 | .044 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -2.023 | 97.746 | .046 |
| emotionality | Equal variances assumed | 3.296 | .072 | 3.465 | 107 | .001 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 3.441 | 98.142 | .001 |
| sociability | Equal variances assumed | 4.401 | .038 | .315 | 107 | .753 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | .314 | 102.611 | .754 |

When calculating the Eta Square for self-control, it was found that there is a small effect (Eta square .036) while emotionality Eta square showed a highly moderate effect (.11). When examining the mean scores (Table 45), it can be seen that women's emotionality and men's self-control levels were higher.

Table 45. Group Statistics independent t-test regarding gender difference in emotional intelligence factors

| | gender | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|---------------------|--------|----|---------------|----------------|-----------------|
| global trait EI | Female | 56 | 5.0543 | .56647 | .07570 |
| | Male | 53 | 4.8804 | .75798 | .10412 |
| well being | Female | 56 | 5.4951 | .89902 | .12014 |
| | Male | 53 | 5.2410 | 1.03768 | .14254 |
| self-control | Female | 56 | 4.2654 | .55960 | .07478 |
| | Male | 53 | 4.5174 | .72550 | .09966 |
| emotionality | Female | 56 | 5.3185 | .63256 | .08453 |
| | Male | 53 | 4.8362 | .81368 | .11177 |
| sociability | Female | 56 | 5.2119 | .67331 | .08997 |
| | Male | 53 | 5.1678 | .78471 | .10779 |

The gender differences were even pinpointed at the facets level. Within the self-control factor male's emotional regulation facet significantly differed from women's (sig. .000). While within the emotionality factor women's emotional expression (sig. .004), empathy (sig. .001), emotional perception (sig. .033) and relationships (sig. .005) facets differed significantly from men's. Furthermore, within the well-being factor women's happiness facet (sig. .031) and in the auxiliary factor which is not an individual factor but adds to the global emotional intelligence, self-motivation facet (sig. .013) were significantly different from men's. Detailed analysis is in *Appendix 17*.

Compared to previous studies there were several similarities and a few new outcomes. Earlier research (Komlósi, 2012; 2014) had identified that males scored considerably higher in emotional regulation (such as in this thesis) and in stress management (this result was not found in this thesis) while females had been found to score significantly higher on relationships and empathy (such as in this thesis). The present research had additional new outcomes finding that female hotel functional managers' emotional expression and emotional perception showed significance difference from men's. Moreover the happiness and self-motivation levels of women were significantly higher than men's.

Apart from gender, functional managers' age and qualifications were examined to see whether there are differences between the age groups and managers with different educational backgrounds. For this the Kruskal-Wallis test was applied. This is a non-parametric alternative for one-way ANOVA and recommended to apply in analysis when continuous variables (here EQ) scores are compared for three or more groups with, for example, different age categories (Pallant, 2013). Furthermore, the non-parametric technique is recommended when categorical and ranked scales are applied for data collection. Likewise the non-parametric analysis is preferred in cases of smaller samples (Pallant, 2013).

No differences between the age groups were detected either on the global emotional intelligence level or within the factors. As illustrated in Table 46 the Kruskal-Wallis test did not detect significance difference (sig. values were above .05 in all cases).

Table 46. Kruskal-Wallis test statistics in EQ across age groups a.b

| | global trait EI | well being | self-control | emotionality | sociability |
|--------------------|-----------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|
| Chi-square | 3.945 | 4.110 | 3.287 | 8.079 | 3.675 |
| df | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| Asymp. Sig. | .414 | .391 | .511 | .089 | .452 |

a. Kruskal Wallis Test; b. Grouping Variable: age

Then the level of education regarding emotional intelligence was examined with the Kuskal-Wallis test. The test showed a statistically significant difference (Table 47) in emotional intelligence across the different qualifications.

Table 47. The Kruskal-Wallis test statistics in EQ across different qualifications a.b

| | well being | self-control | emotionality | sociability | global trait EI |
|--------------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|-----------------|
| Chi-square | 24.505 | 12.905 | 25.542 | 23.631 | 29.037 |
| df | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| Asymp. Sig. | .000 | .012 | .000 | .000 | .000 |

a. Kruskal Wallis Test; b. Grouping Variable: qualification

The Mann-Whitney U test was then applied to obtain the median of each group which indicated with which education level gave a manager a higher emotional intelligence. The median results are demonstrated in Table 48.

Table 48. Report the emotional intelligence median on different levels of qualification

global trait EI

| qualification | N | Median |
|---------------|-----|--------|
| Other | 4 | 5.1424 |
| GSCE | 12 | 4.1732 |
| BTEC | 17 | 4.3683 |
| Bachelor | 55 | 5.1100 |
| Master | 21 | 5.3782 |
| Total | 109 | 5.0955 |

In the 'Other' qualification category, a college degree was named by managers which was taken as an equivalent to a bachelor's degree (in further education before the Bologna process started in 2006, a college degree meant a 4-year study at university covering very similar subjects and requirements to the 3-year bachelor's degree in Hungary today). Taking this into account, the median test revealed that the higher functional managers' educational qualifications were, the higher their levels of emotional intelligence. The results were alike at a factorial level. However, as the number of participants varied immensely in some categories Dunett post-hoc test in ANOVA had to be applied. This test is relevant if there are more than two categories (here in education levels) and the number of elements in each category are not distributed normally. Table 49 illustrates that there were significant differences (marked by the asterisk and the sig. level was .00) in two cases: functional managers with GSCE and BTEC levels significantly differed from those who had a master's degree. The significance difference was the highest between BTEC and master's level education.

Table 49. Multiple Comparisons of educational levels in relation to emotional intelligence

global trait EI
Dunnnett t (2-sided)^a

| (I) qualification | (J) qualification | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|-------------------|-------------------|--------------------------|---------------|-------------|-------------------------|----------------|
| | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| Other | Master | -.14016 | .31175 | .979 | -.9188 | .6384 |
| GSCE | Master | -.83119* | .20679 | .000 | -1.3477 | -.3147 |
| BTEC | Master | -1.06718* | .18644 | .000 | -1.5328 | -.6016 |
| Bachelor | Master | -.26798 | .14659 | .222 | -.6341 | .0981 |

a. Dunnnett t-tests treat one group as a control and compare all other groups against it.

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Even though the bachelor's and master's levels did not show significant differences, this may indicate that although people are born with certain emotional intelligence traits with further education certain traits can be developed.

It was supposed that managers with higher emotional intelligence would work in hotels that had higher standards. The hotel standard was measured in the thesis with two data: hotel category (3, 4 or 5-star hotel) or being a member of Hotelstars. Hotelstars Union is an association that aims to create a hotel classification system within Europe adopting 21 HOTREC principles¹⁵. To be accepted as a member a hotel needs to undergo rigorous quality assessment.

To find out if functional managers' emotional intelligence levels differ according to hotel category (3, 4 and 5-stars), the Kruskal-Wallis test was applied. Table 50 exhibits that there was a significant difference between hotel categories regarding global emotional intelligence (sig. .029), well-being (sig. .0.12) and sociability (sig. .001).

¹⁵ www.hotelstars.eu/index.php?id=hotrec

Table 50. The Kruskal-Wallis test statistics in EQ across hotel categories ab

| | well being | self-control | emotionality | sociability | global trait EI |
|-------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|-----------------|
| Chi-square | 8.783 | 2.436 | 2.529 | 14.406 | 7.110 |
| df | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Asymp. Sig. | .012 | .296 | .282 | .001 | .029 |

a. Kruskal Wallis Test; b. Grouping Variable: hotel categories

Although the median of the global emotional intelligence and the two factors, well-being and sociability, showed a growing tendency from 3-star to 5-star hotels, the Dunnett-t post hoc test revealed that these differences between hotel categories were not significant (see Appendix 18)

Nevertheless it is still notable that functional managers' working in 3-star and 5-star hotels well-being and sociability levels differed enormously.

The independent t-test for Hotelstars members and non-members hotels, in relation to functional managers' emotional intelligence did not show significance. It meant that there were no significant differences between functional managers' emotional intelligence levels working in hotels that were members of Hotelstars from those who were not (*Appendix 19*).

In the following part, the outcomes of hotel functional managers' performance in relation to gender, age, tenure, number of subordinates, hotel category, hotel size, occupancy rate and Hotelstars membership are described.

4.4. The performance part of the OCEQP Questionnaire

4.4.1 Hotel functional managers' performance results

Considering functional managers' gender, the independent t-test analysis was carried out to detect any differences in performance (Table 51). Although the Levene's test was not significant on a global performance level, the value of the contextual performance factor (sig. .002) indicated a significant difference between genders. Further analysis did not prove however, that male functional managers' contextual performance was significantly different (sig. 2-tailed was .226) from their female counterparts. Notwithstanding, after examining the variances in contextual performance loyalty (sig. 2-tailed was .042) significantly differed. Checking group statistics (Table 52) it was revealed that female functional managers (mean

score 5.96) were more loyal than their male colleagues (mean score 5.57). Detailed analysis can be found in *Appendix 20*.

Table 51. Independent t-test for contextual performance and loyalty facet by gender

| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|---|-------------|------------------------------|--------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|---|--------|
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| | | | | | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| Contextual Performance | Equal variances assumed | 10.227 | .002 | 1.229 | 107 | .222 | .22574 | .18365 | -.13832 | .58980 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 1.219 | 95.923 | .226 | .22574 | .18512 | -.14172 | .59320 |
| loyalty | Equal variances assumed | 15.092 | .000 | 2.085 | 107 | .039 | .39271 | .18836 | .01932 | .76611 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 2.064 | 91.399 | .042 | .39271 | .19026 | .01481 | .77061 |

Table 52. Group statistics independent t-test regarding gender difference in loyalty

| gender | | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|----------------|---------------|----|---------------|----------------|-----------------|
| loyalty | Female | 56 | 5.9668 | .78954 | .10551 |
| | Male | 53 | 5.5741 | 1.15260 | .15832 |

Next, performance was analysed in relation to age. The Kruskal-Wallis test did not show any significance (sig. .50), between the different age groups. Consequently both task and contextual performance levels were found to be independent from age.

Regarding educational level, the Kruskal-Wallis test indicated the significance in performance both at a global and factorial level (Table 53).

Table 53. The Kruskal-Wallis test statistics in performance across different qualifications .b

| | Task Performance | Contextual Performance | PERFORMANCE |
|--------------------|------------------|------------------------|-------------|
| Chi-square | 25.381 | 16.397 | 23.702 |
| df | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Asymp. Sig. | .000 | .001 | .000 |

a. Kruskal Wallis Test; b. Grouping Variable: qualification

The Mann-Whitney U test was then applied to obtain the performance median of each group to indicated which educational level(s) differed and how. The median results (Table 54) showed a small difference for global performance and factors. Within task performance (again ‘Other’ category college degree was identified and considered therefore was equivalent to bachelor degree) the higher the degree of a functional manager, the higher the median of the performance was. Within contextual performance and global performance, it was interesting to see that managers with GCSE level had a higher median than managers with BTEC (however this degree is between GCSE and bachelor’s level).

Table 54. Report the performance median on different levels of qualification

| qualification | | Task Performance | Contextual Performance | PERFORMANCE |
|---------------|--------|------------------|------------------------|-------------|
| Other | N | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| | Median | 6.2599 | 5.6429 | 5.6958 |
| GSCE | N | 12 | 12 | 12 |
| | Median | 5.4990 | 5.3214 | 5.3565 |
| BTEC | N | 17 | 17 | 17 |
| | Median | 5.5238 | 4.5000 | 5.0381 |
| Bachelor | N | 55 | 55 | 55 |
| | Median | 6.1746 | 5.7143 | 5.9417 |
| Master | N | 21 | 21 | 21 |
| | Median | 6.2857 | 5.9286 | 6.2357 |
| Total | N | 109 | 109 | 109 |
| | Median | 6.1250 | 5.6429 | 5.8690 |

This result, as previously with emotional intelligence, was subject to the Dunnett post-hoc test as the distribution of the number of managers was unequal within the groups. The test did not show any statistically significant difference (Table 55) among the various qualifications regarding performance. Therefore, it was concluded that although there were performance differences among the education levels these were not significant.

Table 55. Multiple comparisons of educational levels in relation to performance

PERFORMANCE
Dunnnett t (>control)^a

| (I) qualification | (J) qualification | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval |
|----------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|------------|--------------|-------------------------------|
| | | | | | Lower Bound |
| Other | Master | -.37759 | .31067 | .994 | -1.0642 |
| GSCE | Master | -.75041 | .20607 | 1.000 | -1.2059 |
| BTEC | Master | -1.02922 | .18579 | 1.000 | -1.4399 |
| Bachelor | Master | -.25951 | .14608 | .999 | -.5824 |

a. Dunnnett t-tests treat one group as a control and compare all other groups against it.

In the next step, the time functional managers spent in hospitality was measured in three ways. First the total tenure, then the time they spent in the present hotel, and also the time they spent in the present functional position was examined. Tenure was defined in 4 different groups (1-3 year, 4-10 years, 11-20 years and 21 and over years). The Kruskal-Wallis test was not significant for either group at global or factorial levels of performance. It meant that there was not a significant difference between managers' performance regarding the different lengths of time they spent in the hospitality industry. Table 56 exhibits the performance results across the different tenure groups. The test with present workplace and functional position had similar (non -significant) outcomes.

Table 56. The Kruskal-Wallis test statistics in performance across different total tenure a.b

| | Task Performance | Contextual Performance | PERFORMANCE |
|-------------|---------------------|---------------------------|-------------|
| Chi-square | 5.149 | .793 | 2.658 |
| df | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Asymp. Sig. | .161 | .851 | .447 |

a. Kruskal Wallis Test; b. Grouping Variable: total tenure

The results of the analyses examining whether performance differs if the functional manager had a diverse number of subordinates was very interesting (Table 57). The global performance,

also within the contextual performance factor, demonstrated positive significance levels for both.

Table 57 The Kruskal-Wallis test statistics in performance regarding different numbers of subordinates a.b

| | Task Performance | Contextual Performance | PERFORMANCE |
|-------------|------------------|------------------------|-------------|
| Chi-square | 6.266 | 11.182 | 10.801 |
| df | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Asymp. Sig. | .099 | .011 | .013 |

a. Kruskal Wallis Test; b. Grouping Variable: no. of subordinates

Checking the medians (Table 58) it was clear that the median was highest in a group where functional managers had 16 or more subordinates.

Table 58. Report the performance median on different levels of numbers of subordinates

| no. of subordinates | | Task Performance | Contextual Performance | PERFORMANCE |
|---------------------|--------|------------------|------------------------|-------------|
| 1-5 | N | 60 | 60 | 60 |
| | Median | 5.9821 | 5.3214 | 5.6673 |
| 6-10 | N | 22 | 22 | 22 |
| | Median | 6.2341 | 5.8571 | 6.0155 |
| 11-15 | N | 12 | 12 | 12 |
| | Median | 6.2222 | 5.9286 | 6.0333 |
| 16+ | N | 15 | 15 | 15 |
| | Median | 6.2857 | 5.9286 | 6.0964 |
| Total | N | 109 | 109 | 109 |
| | Median | 6.1250 | 5.6429 | 5.8690 |

Although the Dunett post-hoc test (Table 59) did not indicate statistically significant differences among the numbers of subordinate groups, it should be noted that the largest mean difference was between the 1-5 subordinates and 16 subordinates or more. This suggests that those managers who worked with a large (16+) number of subordinates had higher performance levels. This may indicate that managers working with more subordinates can delegate tasks which are then completed well.

Table 59. Multiple comparisons of number of subordinate in relation to performance

PERFORMANCE
Dunnett t (>control)^a

| (I) no. of subordinates | (J) no. of subordinates | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|------------|-------|-------------------------|
| | | | | | Lower Bound |
| 1-5 | 16+ | -.48226 | .18387 | 1.000 | -.8602 |
| 6-10 | 16+ | -.29582 | .21328 | .983 | -.7343 |
| 11-15 | 16+ | -.08611 | .24669 | .834 | -.5932 |

a. Dunnett t-tests treat one group as a control. and compare all other groups against it.

The functional managers' individual performance was also examined in relation to the hotel where they worked.

First, the hotel's category, indicated by star-system, was taken into account. According to this (Table 60), there was no significant difference between the global and contextual performance among the managers working in 3, 4 or 5 star hotels (sig. was above .05). Task performance might have indicated a difference (sig. was .052, just above significance level) but with further checking (Dunnett-tests) this could not be pinpointed.

Table 60. The Kruskal-Wallis test statistics in performance regarding different hotel stars a.b

| | Task Performance | Contextual Performance | PERFORMANCE |
|-------------|------------------|------------------------|-------------|
| Chi-square | 5.929 | 4.509 | 3.958 |
| df | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Asymp. Sig. | .052 | .105 | .138 |

a. Kruskal Wallis Test; b. Grouping Variable: hotel star

Next the individual performance was examined in accordance with hotel size. The number of rooms indicated the size of the hotel and 5 categories were created to differentiate small (10-49 rooms), medium (50-150 rooms), medium-large (151-250 rooms), large (251-350 rooms) and big (351 or above rooms) hotels. The Kruskal-Wallis test (Table 61) showed significance (sig. .022) only within the items of task performance.

Table 61. The Kruskal-Wallis test statistics in performance regarding hotel size a.b

| | Task Performance | Contextual Performance | PERFORMANC E |
|-------------|-------------------------|------------------------|--------------|
| Chi-square | 11.460 | 2.120 | 5.773 |
| df | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| Asymp. Sig. | .022 | .714 | .217 |

a. Kruskal Wallis Test; b. Grouping Variable: number of rooms

The medians showed an appealing outcome (Table 62). With the growth of room numbers, individual performance grew, but only up till medium-large hotels (151-250 rooms).

Table 62 Report the performance median on different levels of hotel size (numbers of rooms)

| number of rooms | | Task Performance | Contextual Performance | PERFORMANCE |
|-----------------|--------|------------------|------------------------|-------------|
| 10-49 | N | 37 | 37 | 37 |
| | Median | 5.7381 | 5.5000 | 5.7429 |
| 50-150 | N | 42 | 42 | 42 |
| | Median | 6.1558 | 5.6071 | 5.8917 |
| 151-250 | N | 13 | 13 | 13 |
| | Median | 6.3294 | 6.0000 | 6.1976 |
| 251-350 | N | 15 | 15 | 15 |
| | Median | 6.0119 | 5.9286 | 5.9417 |
| 351+ | N | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| | Median | 6.3710 | 5.2143 | 5.9083 |
| Total | N | 109 | 109 | 109 |
| | Median | 6.1250 | 5.6429 | 5.8690 |

As the sample size was small within the room number categories the Dunnett-test was applied (Table 63). The results did indicate prime differences,

Regarding managers' performance between small (10-49 rooms) and big (351 or more rooms) hotels but the difference was not significant.

Table 63. Multiple comparisons of hotel size in relation to performance

| | | Hotel size | | Dunnnett t (>control) ^a | | |
|------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|------------------------------------|-------------|-------------------------|
| Dependent Variable | (I) number of rooms | (J) number of rooms | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval |
| | | | | | | Lower Bound |
| PERFORMANCE | 10-49 | 351+ | -.35788 | .46885 | .862 | -1.2628 |
| | 50-150 | 351+ | -.10884 | .46742 | .708 | -1.0110 |
| | 151-250 | 351+ | .14771 | .49055 | .501 | -.7991 |
| | 251-350 | 351+ | -.27651 | .48617 | .813 | -1.2149 |
| Task Performance | 10-49 | 351+ | -.60805 | .38641 | .972 | -1.3539 |
| | 50-150 | 351+ | -.32200 | .38522 | .877 | -1.0655 |
| | 151-250 | 351+ | -.07616 | .40428 | .692 | -.8565 |
| | 251-350 | 351+ | -.43862 | .40067 | .923 | -1.2120 |
| Contextual Performance | 10-49 | 351+ | .01737 | .70061 | .612 | -1.3349 |
| | 50-150 | 351+ | .21088 | .69846 | .501 | -1.1372 |
| | 151-250 | 351+ | .48352 | .73302 | .358 | -.9313 |
| | 251-350 | 351+ | -.03333 | .72648 | .639 | -1.4355 |

a. Dunnnett t-tests treat one group as a control and compared all other groups against it.

Then, the managers' performance regarding hotel occupancy rates was examined. Although the Kruskal-Wallis test (Table 64) was significant within task-performance (sig. .035), the Dunnnett-test did not confirm the difference between occupancy groups in relation to performance (*Appendix 21*). Still the biggest difference regarding task performance was between occupancy rates ranging from 41-51% and 81-90%.

Table 64. The Kruskal-Wallis test statistics in performance regarding different hotel occupancy rates a.b

| | Task Performance | Contextual Performance | PERFORMANCE |
|-------------|------------------|------------------------|-------------|
| Chi-square | 13.581 | 9.203 | 9.932 |
| df | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| Asymp. Sig. | .035 | .162 | .128 |

a. Kruskal Wallis Test; b. Grouping Variable: hotel occupancy rate

Finally Hotelstars membership was taken into account regarding functional managers' individual performance. It had been supposed that those managers' performance whose hotels were members of Hotelstars would be significantly higher. The independent t-test 2-tailed

results indicated significance difference in the mean scores on all factors and facets as well as on global performance (sig. 2-tailed was .000) for both groups. For full details see *Appendix 22*. After checking the group statistics (Table 65), it was confirmed that managers from Hotelstars member hotels had a higher performance mean score in all factors and facets than functional managers from non-member hotels. To see what extent membership affected global performance, the Eta square was calculated (see description above). Calculating global performance, the Eta square was the following: $\text{Eta square} = \frac{3.660^2}{3.660^2 + (77 + 32 - 2)}$. The result was .0111 which confirmed that membership had a small effect on functional managers' global performance. It means that (if the Eta square is multiplied by 100) the global performance was explained at 11% by membership.

Table 65. Group statistics independent t-test regarding performance difference of managers from Hotelstars-member and non-member hotels

| Hotelstar member | | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|------------------------|--------------------|----|---------------|----------------|-----------------|
| Task Performance | non-members | 32 | 5.7046 | .57269 | .10124 |
| | Hotelstars members | 77 | 6.0819 | .50836 | .05793 |
| Contextual Performance | non-members | 32 | 4.9107 | .98524 | .17417 |
| | Hotelstars members | 77 | 5.5390 | .89324 | .10179 |
| PERFORMANCE | non-members | 32 | 5.3870 | .65493 | .11578 |
| | Hotelstars members | 77 | 5.8647 | .60595 | .06905 |
| task requirement | non-members | 32 | 5.7946 | .54179 | .09578 |
| | Hotelstars members | 77 | 6.0909 | .55178 | .06288 |
| co-working | non-members | 32 | 5.6367 | .71727 | .12680 |
| | Hotelstars members | 77 | 6.0422 | .62256 | .07095 |
| communication | non-members | 32 | 5.6823 | .75534 | .13353 |
| | Hotelstars members | 77 | 6.1126 | .57826 | .06590 |
| extra effort | non-members | 32 | 4.4732 | 1.03299 | .18261 |
| | Hotelstars members | 77 | 5.1243 | 1.02003 | .11624 |
| loyalty | non-members | 32 | 5.3482 | 1.13415 | .20049 |
| | Hotelstars members | 77 | 5.9536 | .88411 | .10075 |

4.5 The organisational culture part of the OCEQP Questionnaire

4.5.1 Results of hotel organisational culture analysis

The hotel organisational culture was assessed by the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument Competing Value Framework (OCAI) developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2006). As it was described previously, the OCAI questionnaire is a self-report test on how employees feel their organisation's culture can be characterised presently and what organisational culture they would prefer to work in in 5 years' time. The hotel managers were asked to divide 100 points over four alternatives that correspond to the four cultures according to the present hotel and in six different dimensions. The four cultures are *clan*, *adhocracy*, *market* and *hierarchy* in which the six dimensions consist of dominant characteristics; organisational leadership; management of employees; organisational glue; strategic emphases; and criteria for success. Then they were asked, with the same method (divide 100 points over the four cultural dimensions) to indicate the hotel culture they would prefer to work in 5 years from now. Out of the four possible cultures, there was one dominant present hotel culture from the functional hotel manager perception, and there was one preferred dominant culture in which the functional manager longed to work for within 5 years. In this way the desire for organisational cultural change in the hotel could be measured.

According to the descriptive statistics represented by the mean scores of each culture (Table 66), the majority of managers indicated that the hotel they worked for had a hierarchy culture (32%), followed by clan (25%), market (24%) and adhocracy (19%). While regarding preferred organisational culture, the majority of the managers indicated clan (28%), then hierarchy (27%), market (23%) and adhocracy (22%) culture to work in within 5 years.

Table 66. Descriptive statistics of now and preferred organisational culture

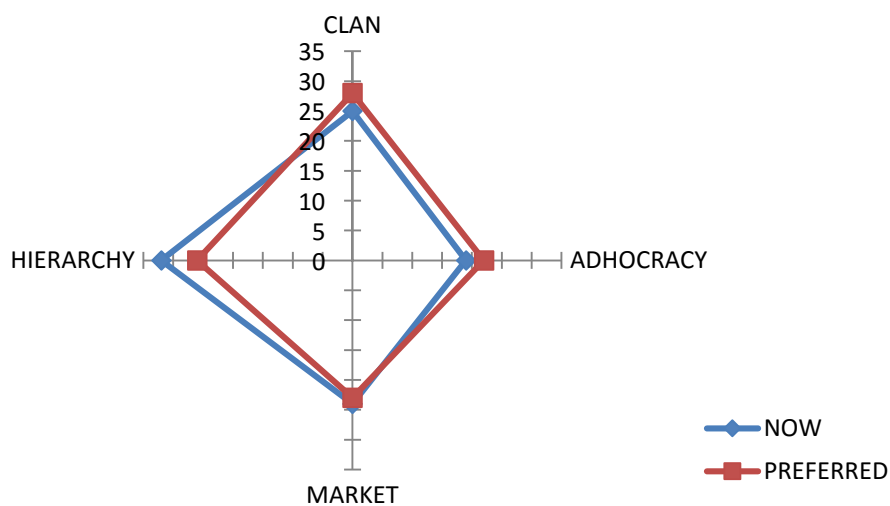
| Present organisational culture | Mean | Standard deviation | Preferred organisational culture | Mean | Standard deviation |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--------------------|----------------------------------|-----------|--------------------|
| Clan | 25 | 14 | Clan | 28 | 11 |
| Adhocracy | 19 | 9 | Adhocracy | 22 | 6 |
| Market | 24 | 10 | Market | 23 | 8 |
| Hierarchy | 32 | 15 | Hierarchy | 27 | 8 |

The dominant present culture of hotels in the research was hierarchy (mean=32). It means that the majority of the hotels are formalised and structured organisations where the key

characteristics are: long-term stability, low costs and smooth-running organisation with formal rules and policies, punctuality, uniformity, error detection, systematic problem solving and process control. On the other hand, the majority of functional managers required their hotel to adopt a clan culture (mean=28) in 5 years' time, which can be characterised as a pleasant, family place to work where people share their knowledge and personal information. In a clan culture the leader is seen as a parent-figure or mentor, where commitment and loyalty is valued, management emphasized and support is in place for long-term human resource development. Furthermore, teamwork and empowerment are key factors coupled with open communication. Both hierarchy and clan are described as cultures focusing on internal environment and integration, but while the hierarchy culture desires stability and control, the clan culture is about flexibility and discretion.

Comparing the now and preferred culture, it was found that the largest difference, a backward shift, could be identified within the hierarchy culture (Figure 25). In the meantime, a positive shift towards the clan and adhocracy cultures could also be observed while market culture now and preferred showed the smallest difference.

Figure 25. Now and preferred hotel organisational cultures



4.5.2 Hotel organisational culture results within a personal level

Present and preferred hotel cultures were examined in relation to functional managers' gender, qualifications and total tenure spent within the hospitality industry.

Initially, an independent t-test (*Appendix 23*) was applied to investigate gender differences. Significant differences were found in two present organisational cultures, adhocracy (2-tailed sig. .009) and hierarchy (2-tailed sig. .048). On the one hand, more female functional managers seemed to work in hotels with an adhocracy culture while at the same time more male functional managers indicated that they worked in hotels with a hierarchy culture (Table 67). No gender difference was found with regard to the clan and market culture.

Table 67 Group Statistics independent t-test regarding gender difference in present organisational culture

| | gender | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|---------------|--------|----|-----------|----------------|-----------------|
| clan now | Female | 56 | 25 | 10.70832 | 1.43096 |
| | Male | 53 | 25 | 16.26230 | 2.23380 |
| adhocracy now | Female | 56 | 21 | 8.02618 | 1.07254 |
| | Male | 53 | 17 | 9.13486 | 1.25477 |
| market now | Female | 56 | 24 | 8.73024 | 1.16663 |
| | Male | 53 | 24 | 10.58777 | 1.45434 |
| hierarchy now | Female | 56 | 29 | 10.84369 | 1.44905 |
| | Male | 53 | 35 | 17.78468 | 2.44291 |

As for the preferred organisational culture, no significant difference could be pinpointed between the genders (Table 68). Both male (mean=29) and female (mean=28) functional managers indicated their preference to work in a dominantly clan hotel culture. However, regarding the mean scores, males had the largest differences identified. There were positive shifts indicating that male functional managers would rather work in a hotel with a clan or adhocracy culture. The negative shift in hierarchy suggested the same; explicitly quite a large number of male functional managers did not wish to work in a hierarchical culture within 5 years.

Table 68. Group Statistics independent t-test regarding gender difference in preferred organisational culture

| | gender | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|---------------------|--------|----|-----------|----------------|-----------------|
| clan preferred | Female | 56 | 28 | 9.20440 | 1.22999 |
| | Male | 53 | 29 | 12.68669 | 1.74265 |
| adhocracy preferred | Female | 56 | 22 | 6.24849 | .83499 |
| | Male | 53 | 21 | 5.78444 | .79455 |
| market preferred | Female | 56 | 24 | 7.42975 | .99284 |
| | Male | 53 | 23 | 8.21637 | 1.12861 |
| hierarchy preferred | Female | 56 | 26 | 8.03014 | 1.07307 |
| | Male | 53 | 27 | 8.36216 | 1.14863 |

The drift in the mean differences between present and preferred organisational cultures were similar with respect to gender. The mean differences indicated a negative shift from hierarchy culture and positive shift towards clan culture both by male and female functional managers (Table 69). a significant difference between present and preferred culture was found within hierarchy (2-tailed sig. .014) and adhocracy (2-tailed sig. .012) cultures (*Appendix 24*). This meant that male functional managers longed to work in an adhocracy culture more than their female colleagues. Similarly, male managers would have preferred not to work in a hierarchy organisational culture more than their female counterparts.

Table 69. Group Statistics independent t-test regarding mean differences between present and preferred organisational culture by gender

| | gender | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|----------------------|--------|----|-----------|----------------|-----------------|
| clan difference | Female | 56 | 6 | 5.65337 | .75546 |
| | Male | 53 | 7 | 6.76934 | .92984 |
| adhocracy difference | Female | 56 | 4 | 3.77156 | .50400 |
| | Male | 53 | 7 | 6.13951 | .84333 |
| market difference | Female | 56 | 4 | 4.59729 | .61434 |
| | Male | 53 | 5 | 4.52778 | .62194 |
| hierarchy difference | Female | 56 | 6 | 5.56722 | .74395 |
| | Male | 53 | 10 | 11.73495 | 1.61192 |

The results suggested that although the majority of functional managers worked in hotels with hierarchical cultures, they would have preferred to do the job in a clan culture.

Next, functional managers' qualifications were taken into consideration (Figure 25a and 25b). Those managers who had GCSE indicated that the present dominant hotel culture was clan however, they would rather have a job in a hierarchy culture. This meant that instead of focusing on human development, team work and open communication, they would value punctuality, uniformity and consistency more, a hotel where process control, systematic problem solving and measurements were the focal point. Similarly, functional managers with BTEC qualifications indicated hierarchy as a preferred dominant culture. The difference was that these managers' present culture was also hierarchy and they did not wish this to change. The majority of functional managers holding a bachelor degree presently worked in a market culture in which the main value drivers were to increase market shares and profitability with aggressive competition and customers and an external partnership focus. Although there was only a slight difference in mean scores (2 points), they specified clan instead of market as a future dominant hotel culture to work in. Managers with a master's degree indicated adhocracy as the present dominant culture in which innovation, agility, new standard creation, creative solutions and

continuous improvement were emphasised. Even though the market culture mean increased (not significantly), adhocracy remained as a preferred future hotel culture to work in. Significance could be found only within present hierarchy culture between BTEC and master qualifications. This indicated that the higher the functional managers' qualification was (from BTEC level), the more likely he/she worked in a hierarchy hotel culture presently (*Appendix 25*). While this significance was not present within the preferred organisational culture, the mean score indicates a backwards movement from BTEC to the master degree. This meant just the opposite than was currently the case: the higher a functional manager's qualification, the more he/she preferred not to work in a hierarchy hotel culture in 5 years.

Figure 3a.: Present organisational culture differentiated by qualifications

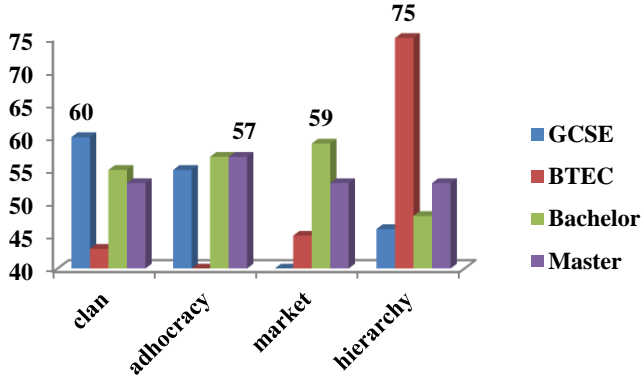
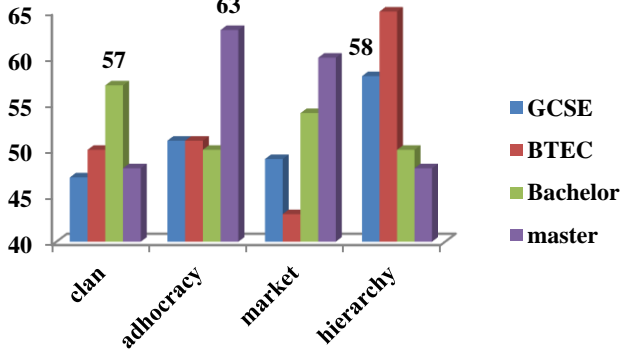


Figure 25b Preferred organisational culture differentiated by qualifications



The number of years spent in the hospitality industry was examined next (Table 70). The present dominant culture of those functional managers' who had just started their career (1-3 years in hospitality) was adhocracy (mean=78). The hotel organisation they longed to work for, however, was clan (mean=63).

This result coincided with a previous research (Balogh, 2011) where university students (managers-to-be) indicated their preference to work in a clan organisational culture.

Table 70. Present and preferred organisational culture mean scores according to functional managers' tenure in the hospitality industry

| | Present culture (mean) | | | | Preferred culture (mean) | | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------|------------------|---------------|------------------|--------------------------|------------------|---------------|------------------|
| | <i>clan</i> | <i>adhocracy</i> | <i>market</i> | <i>hierarchy</i> | <i>clan</i> | <i>adhocracy</i> | <i>market</i> | <i>hierarchy</i> |
| 1-3 years | 69 | 78 | 45 | 36 | 63 | 58 | 51 | 42 |
| 4-10 years | 52 | 56 | 60 | 55 | 53 | 53 | 58 | 55 |
| 11-20 years | 60 | 50 | 50 | 56 | 59 | 59 | 54 | 56 |
| 21 years and above | 47 | 52 | 58 | 60 | 49 | 52 | 53 | 58 |

For the other three tenure groups, the present and preferred dominant culture was the same, except within 11-20 years tenure where regarding preferred culture both clan and adhocracy gained the same mean (59). This result was very notable as it may suggest that with time and experience functional managers adapt to the hotel culture.

4.5.3 Hotel organisational culture results within organisational levels

First differentiation was made among the hotel categories. According to the mean scores (Table 71) organisational culture seemed to differ by hotel category. Regarding the present organisational culture the mean differences indicated a clear demarcation: 3-star hotels seemed to have mainly hierarchy culture, 4-star hotels adhocracy and 5-star hotels rather market culture. When preferred culture was examined these divergences decreased, the mean scored balanced out except in the case of 5-star hotels. Within preferred culture functional managers from 3-star hotels still indicated they would prefer to work in hierarchy cultures in 5 years' time, while their 4-star colleagues would either stay in adhocracy- or market culture. The majority of functional managers from 5-star hotels would also wish to work in the same (market) culture they worked at the time of research.

Table 71. Present and preferred organisational culture mean scores according to hotel categories

| | Present culture (mean) | | | | Preferred culture (mean) | | | |
|-----------|------------------------|------------------|---------------|------------------|--------------------------|------------------|---------------|------------------|
| | <i>clan</i> | <i>adhocracy</i> | <i>market</i> | <i>hierarchy</i> | <i>clan</i> | <i>adhocracy</i> | <i>market</i> | <i>hierarchy</i> |
| 3* | 53 | 46 | 49 | 63 | 56 | 53 | 48 | 58 |
| 4* | 57 | 62 | 55 | 50 | 54 | 56 | 56 | 55 |
| 5* | 48 | 42 | 80 | 56 | 58 | 53 | 73 | 43 |

The non-parametric analysis showed more precise distinctions. The Kruskal-Wallis test (Table 72) revealed a statistically significant difference in two hotels present organisational cultures (adhocracy and market) across the three different categories.

Table 72. The Kruskal-Wallis test statistics in organisational culture regarding different hotel categories a.b

| | clan now | adhocracy now | market now | hierarchy now |
|-------------|----------|---------------|-------------|---------------|
| Chi-square | .847 | 7.105 | 6.576 | 3.771 |
| df | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Asymp. Sig. | .655 | .029 | .037 | .152 |

a. Kruskal Wallis Test; b. Grouping Variable: hotel category

The median supported the mean scores differentiation (Table 73). The 4-star hotels' adhocracy organisational culture score (median=23) was ignorantly higher from 3- (median=17) and 5-star hotels' (median=17) median. The same differentiation could be experienced with 5-star hotel market culture median (median=30) form 3- (median=23) and 4-star (median=24) hotels' scores. The most significant difference (see Dunnett test *Appendix 26*) was between 3- and 5-star hotels.

Table 73. Report the present organisational culture median on hotel categories

| hotel star | | clan now | adhocracy now | market now | hierarchy now |
|------------|--------|----------|---------------|------------|---------------|
| 3* | N | 36 | 36 | 36 | 36 |
| | Median | 25 | 17 | 23 | 29 |
| 4* | N | 64 | 64 | 64 | 64 |
| | Median | 24 | 23 | 24 | 26 |
| 5* | N | 9 | 9 | 9 | 9 |
| | Median | 23 | 17 | 30 | 27 |
| Total | N | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 |
| | Median | 25 | 21 | 24 | 27 |

Based on previous literature and research it was projected to find significant difference between the organisational culture of chain and individual hotels (Cameron, 2001, Mars, 2008). However the present research did not find any such difference. Based on the hotels functional managers' mean score (Table 74) both chain member (mean=34) and non-member (mean=30) hotels presently dominant culture was hierarchy.

Table 74. Chain member and non-member hotels present culture difference

| | members of a chain | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|---------------|--------------------|----|-----------|----------------|-----------------|
| clan now | non-member | 69 | 26 | 12.03806 | 1.44921 |
| | member | 40 | 22 | 15.87786 | 2.51051 |
| adhocracy now | non-member | 69 | 20 | 9.02930 | 1.08700 |
| | member | 40 | 17 | 8.23940 | 1.30276 |
| market now | non-member | 69 | 23 | 10.29295 | 1.23913 |
| | member | 40 | 26 | 8.29825 | 1.31207 |
| hierarchy now | non-member | 69 | 30 | 14.16379 | 1.70512 |
| | member | 40 | 34 | 15.72227 | 2.48591 |

Regarding the hotels size the following present dominant cultures of hotels were pinned down. Small (10-49 rooms) hotels' present a dominant culture perceived by functional managers indicated adhocracy culture (mean=62). In cases of the medium (50-150 rooms) hotels concurrently clan and market culture had the same mean scores (mean=58). While the present dominant organisational culture for medium-large (151-250), large (251-350 rooms) and big (351 or above rooms) hotels was hierarchy (*Appendix 27*).

Finally independent t-test was applied to examine if difference can be located between Hotelstars members and non-members organisational culture. For both hierarchy was the present dominant culture without significant difference (mean=34 for non-members and 30 for members). Considering culture in 5-years' time, clan was indicated as the preferred dominant culture by Hotelstars members (mean=29) and hierarchy hotel culture remained for non-members (mean=27) too.

4.6 Summary of the descriptive analyses

The summary of the testing and analyses of emotional intelligence results are displayed below.

4.6.1 Summary of emotional intelligence results

Gender: Globally no significant difference was found between male and female hotel functional managers emotional intelligence level. However at factorial levels female managers' emotionality and male managers' self- control differed significantly from the opposite gender. Within emotionality all facets (empathy, emotional expression, emotional perception and relationship) were significantly higher for women managers. While within male managers' self-

control factor emotional regulation facet showed a significantly higher average from females' results. Additionally female functional managers' happiness and self-motivation levels indicated positive significant differences from their male colleagues.

Age: Functional managers' emotional intelligence did not indicate a significant difference across the various age groups. According to this result it can be concluded that trait emotional intelligence does not depend on age.

Level of education: The tendency that with higher emotional intelligence level the qualification level rise was indicated by the analysis. The prime difference was between BTEC and master level.

Hotel category: Functional managers' with higher emotional intelligence especially those with higher well-being and sociability levels, was indicated to work in higher category hotels, However there was major difference among managers' emotional intelligence levels between 3, 4 and 5-star hotels this did not seem to be significant.

Hotelstars membership: Functional managers' emotional intelligence did not demonstrate a significant difference considering whether they worked in a Hotelstars-member hotel or not.

4.6.2 Summary of individual performance results

Gender: On a global and task performance level there were no significant differences between the two genders. Within contextual performance female functional managers' loyalty was significantly higher than their male counterparts.

Age: Performance did not show any relation to the difference age groups. That meant that functional managers' age did not influence their performance.

Level of education: It was identified that performance median increased with the level of education especially with task performance. Within contextual performance there was an interesting outcome: functional managers' with GCSE qualifications scored higher in performance than managers with BTEC certificates. However, there were performance differences among the education levels which were not significant.

Tenure: Neither total time spent in the industry nor the time spent in the present hotel and in the present functional manager position, demonstrated differences regarding performance. The

analysis did not specify whether the length of time spent in the hospitality industry positively impacted on performance. .

Number of subordinates: At global and contextual performance levels the analyses indicated that the more subordinates a functional manager had the higher his/her performance score was. The mean difference was high between managers with 1-5 subordinates and 16+ subordinates. Though these results did not demonstrate significance, the fact that functional managers, working with higher numbers of subordinates revealed higher performance. .

Hotel category: There were no significant differences among functional managers performance working in different star (3, 4 or 5) category hotels.

Hotel size: Regarding hotel size there were differences in task performance. With size increase task performance median grew, however no strong significance was identified.

Occupancy rate: Similar results presented with occupancy rates within task performance: the higher the % grew the higher the task performance median. Though again these did not present significance.

Hotelstars membership: Significant difference was identified between functional managers' performance levels according to the place they worked. Functional managers' performance (globally, within factors and facets) working in Hotelstars-member hotels was significantly higher than those managers that worked in non-member hotels.

Regarding *organisational culture at individual levels*

Dominant culture: Regarding all participants' answers the present dominate hotel organisational culture was hierarchy. In contrast the majority of functional managers would prefer to work in a clan culture in 5 years' time.

Gender: Significant difference was found regarding present organisational culture. Considerably more male functional managers indicated working in a hierarchy culture while the number of female counterparts who worked presently in adhocracy culture was significantly higher. As for preferred future culture both genders indicated clan. Male manager's positive shift towards adhocracy and negative shift from hierarchy culture was significantly higher than female functional managers'.

Qualification: Functional managers specified different present and preferred cultures according to their qualifications. The present dominant culture of those with GSCEs was clan

and those with BTEC qualifications opted for hierarchy. Both of the groups indicated hierarchy as a dominant preferred culture. The majority of functional managers with bachelor's degrees worked in a market culture while they wished to be in a clan organisation. Master's degree managers' dominant present culture was adhocracy in which they also showed a preference for working in in the future. The mean scores demonstrated that the higher the managers' degree was, the less they desired to work in hierarchy hotel cultures.

Tenure: Those who had just started their career (1-3 years) in hospitality presented as working in adhocracy organisational cultures although they would prefer to be in a clan hotel. No differences were found between the other generations present and future indicated organisational cultures. Managers in hospitality between 4-10 years indicated market, those between 11-20 years clan (though for future both clan and adhocracy had the same mean scores) and those managers working more than 20 years specified hierarchy culture both as present and future desire.

4.6.3 Summary of organisational culture results

Hotel Category: Significant difference was identified between hotel categories. Concerning present culture 3-star hotels had hierarchy, 4-star hotels adhocracy and 5-star hotels market. The same cultures were specified by hotel categories when the preferred culture was asked. Only 4-star hotels, apart from the original adhocracy, indicated market as a future culture with the same mean score result.

Hotel chain member: No difference was found between the present organisational culture of chain members and individual hotels. Both indicated hierarchy as the dominant culture.

Hotel size: The results indicated that the present organisational culture differed according to hotel size. Small hotels had adhocracy, medium was between clan and market, medium-large and large hotels had hierarchy as the present dominant culture.

Hotelstars membership: Both Hotelstars members and non-members indicated hierarchy as the present dominant culture. On the other hand while Hotelstars members wished to work in clan culture within 5 years, non-members would stay in the same hierarchy organisation.

4.7 Examining the relationships between the variable: Hypotheses testing

4.7.1 Assessing normality

Before testing the hypotheses using multiple regression and correlation analyses it was vital to confirm the distribution of scores which indicated that the appropriate research methods were applied. Tabachnick and Fidel (2013) recommended a checklist to screen the data before deep analysis, thus according to them the following four assumptions were examined: the sample size; the assumption of multicollinearity, outliers; and the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity:

- *Sample size* according to Stevens (2002) 15 cases per predictors are needed for reliable regression analysis. As it has been explained earlier the calculation to sample size (Tabachnick and Fidel, 2013) is $N > 50 + 8m$ (where N= number of participants; m stands for number of independent variables). In the thesis there are two independent variables (emotional intelligence and organisational culture) the calculation is $50 + (8 \times 2) = 66$. In the sample there were 109 participants which exceeded the requirement.
- *Multicollinearity* shows the degree of correlation between the variable (Janssens et al, 2008). It is important that the correlation between the independent variables are not high (the correlation co-efficiency is less than 0.70) while the correlation between the independent and dependent variables should be 0.30 or higher (Tabachnick and Fidel, 2013). Furthermore tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) values are needed to be checked. Tolerance value shows the degree of how much one independent variable is explained by another independent variable. If the tolerance value is .10 or less it acts as a warning for a potential multicollinearity. VIF value is the opposite of tolerance. If this value is 10 or above, it suggests a possible multicollinearity (Pallant, 2013).
- *Outliers* refer to the residual values that are either extremely high (above 3.3) or below (-3.3) the other scores. These extreme values can influence the correlation results therefore over or underestimate the relationship of the variables. Checking Scatterplot can help to identify these outliers. If the numbers of outliers are too many they should be deleted from further data analysis. The distribution of continuous variables and checking for outliers can also be examined by looking at the Histogram. The variables are normally distributed if a bell-shape or normal curve appears in the graphic design (Tabachnick and Fidel, 2013).
- *Normality, linearity and homoscedasticity* refer to the distribution of score and the relationship of variables. Normality means that each variable score should be normally

distributed. This is indicated by the Normal Probability Plot of the regression standard residual and the Scatterplot. There is no deviation if points rest reasonably straight from bottom left to right in Normality PP plot. In the Scatterplot the residuals should be horizontal with 0 point mostly concentrated in the centre. If there is large departure from the centre it can be further tested. If the outlier is between -3.3 and 3.3 then no further checking is necessary (Tabachnich and Fidel, 2013; Pallant, 2013). Linearity (the relationship between the variables) is also confirmed by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov probe especially if the sample size is small. If the significant value is higher than .05 then the data is normally distributed.

Prentice (2008:192) summary of the major assumptions that are required for multiple regression analysis was considered. This is illustrated in Table 75.

Table 75. Assumption of multiply regression based on Prentice (2008:192 Table 8)

| | |
|---|---|
| Assumption of multicollinearity | 1. The correlation between the independent variables and dependent variable must be above .30 respectively. |
| | 2. The correlation between each of the independent variables must not be more than .70 |
| | 3. The tolerance value must be more than .10 and the VIF value must not be more than 10. |
| Assumption of outliers | The value for Cook's Distance should be less than 1. |
| Assumption of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity | 1. The Normal Probability Plot should lie in a reasonably straight diagonal line from bottom to top right. |
| | 2. The Scatterplot of the standardised residuals should be roughly rectangular distributed. |

Multiple regression analyses were conducted in this part of the research. This is a group of techniques which enables the exploration of the relationship between one continuous dependent variable (here Performance) and two or more independent variables (here EQ and Organisational Culture). The base of multiple regression is correlation (Pallant, 2013). There are three main types of multiple regression analyses: standard-, hierarchical- and stepwise analysis.

- a) *Standard multiple regression* is used to explore the predictive power of independent variables over the depend variables. It aims to reveal how much each of the independent variables contributes to the relationship with the dependent variables by controlling each of the other independent variables. The R-square is a statistic measure of the square of the coefficient of multiple correlations which is always between 0 to 1 (0% to 100%) indicates how much a model explains the variability of the response data around the means. However, adjusted R-square is recommended to be regarded, as it has been

customised for the number of predictors and therefore it is more reliable (Tabachnick and Fidel, 2013). The other indicators (normality, multicollinearity, outliers, linearity and homoscedasticity) were described above. In this thesis standard multiple regression was applied in order to notice the independence of emotional intelligence and organisational culture as well as to pre-examine the relationship of these independent variables with the dependent (performance) variable.

- b) *Hierarchical multiple regression* is a process in which the “variables are entered in steps, with each independent variable being assessed in terms of what it adds to the prediction of the dependent variable after the previous variables have been controlled (for)” (Pallant, 2013:155). In the thesis emotional intelligence then organisational culture was added in the Step controlled by gender, age, qualification and tenure in present position, as the main personal influencing variables to examine which of them predict stronger relationships with the dependent (performance) variable.
- c) *Stepwise multiple regression* operates in a way that based on statistic criteria a program selects and allows certain variables into the equation (Pallant, 2013). This method is not applied in the present thesis.

First with standardised multiple regression trait emotional intelligence and present and preferred organisation culture, relationship with performance was investigated. The adjusted R-square (0.52) indicated that the relationship between the independent (emotional intelligence and organisational culture) and dependent (performance) variables was strong. The correlation and coefficient results are presented in Table 76 details are illustrated in *Appendix 28*. The correlation between the two independent variables was less than 0.70. For emotional intelligence and dominant present culture (hierarchy) it was -0.31 while for emotional intelligence and dominant preferred culture (clan) it was -0.11. On the other hand the correlation between the independent and dependent variables was higher than 0.30. In the case of emotional intelligence and performance R square was 0.61, the dominant present culture (hierarchy) and performance R square was -0.52. The value was low ($R^2=0.23$) between dominant preferred culture (clan) and performance. The collinearity diagnostics indicated that for all variables it was above 0.10 and VIF was below 10, which meant that multicollinearity assumption was not violated. The analyses supported that the two independent variables did not correlate with each other significantly therefore they were regarded as two separate indicators in the correlation process with the dependent variables.

Table 76. Correlation and coefficient results of emotional intelligence, organisational culture and performance

| | Performance | Emotional Intelligence | Present dominant culture (hierarchy) | Preferred dominant culture (clan) | Tolerance | VIF |
|--------------------------------------|--------------|------------------------|--------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------|-------------|
| Performance | - | 0.61 | -0.52 | 0.23 | - | - |
| Emotional Intelligence | 0.61 | - | -0.31 | -0.11 | 0.85 | 1.16 |
| Present dominant culture (hierarchy) | -0.52 | -0.31 | - | -0.28 | 0.80 | 1.24 |
| Preferred dominant culture (clan) | 0.32 | -0.11 | -0.28 | - | 0.87 | 1.14 |

Next Normality Plot and Scatterplot were examined to check normality and homoscedasticity. The point lied reasonably straight on a diagonal line from bottom to top and left to right. This meant that the independent variables showed a positive relationship with the dependent variable: with the emotional intelligence level growth the hotel managers' performance level increased. The values present dominant culture (hierarchy) and performance indicated a negative relationship. That is, in hierarchy hotel culture, performance seemed to decrease. The standardised residual on the Scatterplot remained between -3.3 and plus 3.3 which indicated no outliers. Regarding the Histograms and the Normality Plot both emotional intelligence and performance variables seemed to indicate normal distribution (*Appendix 29*).

4.7.2 Testing Hypotheses: correlation analyses

Following the assessment of normality correlation analysis was applied to explore the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. First the relationship between trait emotional intelligence and performance was explored both at global and factorial levels by applying Person product-moment correlation coefficient. The results (*Appendix 30*) indicated the correlation of the dependent and independent variables at all levels. The strengths of the correlation (Cohen et al, 2000) were indicated as follows: small correlations ($r=.10$ to $.29$), medium correlation ($r= .30$ to $.49$) and strong correlation ($r= .50$ to 1.0). In this case no small correlations were identified. Total performance showed medium and positive correlation with self-control and strong, positive correlation with the other three emotional intelligence factors (well-being, emotionality and sociability). The strongest positive correlation was between global trait emotional intelligence and total performance ($r=.610$). Regarding individual performance at a factorial level it could be concluded that task performance had a medium, positive relationship with self-control, emotionality and sociability, and strong, positive

correlation with well-being and global trait emotional intelligence. Contextual performance indicated a medium, positive relationship with self-control and emotionality and strong, positive relationships with well-being, sociability and global trait emotional intelligence. The strength of sociability correlation differed within the two performance factors: it showed a medium relation to task performance with a strong relation to contextual performance (summarised in Table 77).

Table 77. The strength of correlation between emotional intelligence and performance at global and factorial levels

| | Performance | Task performance | Contextual performance |
|-------------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Emotional Intelligence | strong (.610) | strong (.535) | strong (.578) |
| Well-being | strong (.583) | strong (.507) | strong (.556) |
| Self-control | medium (.393) | medium (.326) | medium (.388) |
| Emotionality | strong (.516) | medium (.467) | medium (.476) |
| Sociability | strong (.544) | medium (.483) | strong (.511) |

Examining correlation at facet level all trait emotional intelligence items showed a relation to performance (*Appendix 31*). Regarding task and contextual performance separately there were four emotional intelligence facets where different strengths of relations were identified (Table 78). Happiness, empathy and adaptability proved significant medium positive relations to task performance with a strong relation to contextual performance. However, optimism was found to correlate strongly with both performance factors. The strongest significant positive relation regarding task performance was with social awareness and optimism. Meanwhile low impulsiveness had small relation to task- but a medium relation to contextual performance. Only emotional regulation indicated a minimal relation to both performance types.

Table 78. The strength of correlation between emotional intelligence facets, task- and contextual performance

| Emotional intelligence facets | Task performance | Contextual performance |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Self-esteem | medium (.416) | medium (.481) |
| Emotional expression | medium (.320) | medium (.360) |
| Self-motivation | medium (.489) | medium (.496) |
| Emotional regulation | small (.167) | small (.200) |
| Happiness | medium (.484) | strong (.510) |
| Empathy | medium (.468) | strong (.522) |
| Social awareness | strong (.502) | strong (.529) |
| Impulsiveness (low) | small (.278) | medium (.309) |
| Emotional perception | medium (.346) | medium (.374) |
| Stress management | medium (.341) | medium (.423) |

| | | |
|-----------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Emotional management | medium (.384) | medium (.417) |
| Optimism | strong (.504) | strong (.553) |
| Relationships | medium (.470) | medium (.368) |
| Adaptability | medium (.416) | strong (.500) |
| Assertiveness | medium (.397) | medium (.411) |

Emotional intelligence was also studied in relation to performance facets (*Appendix 32*). Within task performance (Table 79) task requirement, co-working and communication, while within a contextual performance extra effort and loyalty were examined separately (smallest and strongest relation was indicated with bold letters). Emotional regulations indicated the smallest correlation with all performance facets. Task requirement indicated the strongest correlation with optimism, while co-working relations to empathy was the strongest. As for communication the strongest relationship was with relationships while for extra effort it was optimism. Loyalty had a strong relationship with self-motivation, happiness, empathy, social awareness and optimism. Most of the trait emotional intelligence facets had the strongest relationship with loyalty (indicated with italics).

Table 79. The strengths of correlations between emotional intelligence and performance facets

| | Task requirement | Co-working | Communication | Extra effort | Loyalty |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Self esteem | medium (.382) | small (.297) | medium (.416) | medium (.426) | <i>medium (.473)</i> |
| Emotion expression | small (.184) | small (.294) | <i>medium (.347)</i> | medium (.329) | medium (.344) |
| Self-motivation | medium (.382) | medium (.430) | medium (.462) | medium (.426) | <i>strong (.501)</i> |
| Emotion regulation | <i>small (.204)</i> | <i>small (.120)</i> | <i>small (.124)</i> | <i>small (.181)</i> | <i>small (.193)</i> |
| Happiness | medium (.423) | medium (.404) | medium (.441) | medium (.435) | <i>strong (.518)</i> |
| Empathy | medium (.315) | <i>medium (.432)</i> | medium (.466) | medium (.473) | <i>strong (.501)</i> |
| Social awareness | medium (.455) | medium (.406) | medium (.458) | medium (.447) | <i>strong (.544)</i> |
| Impulsiveness (low) | small (.270) | small (.209) | small (.253) | small (.266) | <i>medium (.311)</i> |
| Emotion perception | small (.240) | medium (.302) | medium (.356) | medium (.328) | <i>medium (.371)</i> |
| Stress management | medium (.336) | small (.294) | small (.269) | medium (.389) | <i>medium (.400)</i> |
| Emotion management | small (.281) | small (.283) | medium (.436) | medium (.342) | <i>medium (.439)</i> |
| Optimism | <i>medium (.463)</i> | medium (.425) | medium (.437) | <i>medium (.475)</i> | <i>strong (.560)</i> |
| Relationships | medium (.355) | medium (.402) | <i>medium (.467)</i> | medium (.349) | medium (.337) |
| Adaptability | medium (.333) | medium (.386) | medium (.367) | medium (.464) | <i>medium (.468)</i> |
| Assertiveness | medium (.342) | medium (.333) | medium (.366) | medium (.358) | <i>medium (.411)</i> |

Next present hotel organisational culture, the other independent variable, relationship with performance was explored (Table 80). Hierarchy, the dominant present culture, indicated a

significantly negative relationship with performance both at global and factorial levels. Studying factorial levels the strongest, negative correlation was between hierarchy and contextual performance, while task performance proved a medium, negative correlation with a hierarchy culture. Present clan organisational culture indicated medium, positive relations with total performance and contextual performance, while this correlation was small with task performance. Present adhocracy organisational culture revealed similar results: medium relationship with total- and contextual performance with small relationships with task performance. No significant correlation could be identified between present market organisational culture and performance either at global or factorial levels (*Appendix 33*).

Table 80. The strength of correlation between organisational culture, total-, task- and contextual performance

| | clan now | adhocracy now | market now | hierarchy now |
|-------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|
| Performance | medium (.407) | medium (.359) | no | strong (-.528) |
| Task Performance | small (.273) | small (.280) | no | medium (-.360) |
| Contextual Performance | medium (.459) | medium (.371) | no | strong (-.589) |

** p< .001 level (2-tailed)

Comparing these outcomes it could be stated that present hierarchy hotel culture had the strongest negative relationship and present clan culture the strongest (medium level) positive relationship with performance. Furthermore the relations to organisational culture with performance at factorial levels slightly differed. Contextual performance showed stronger correlation with all culture types than task performance alone (except market, where there was no correlation at all).

Observing the relationship between hotel culture and performance at facet level it could be observed that the strongest significant negative correlation was between hierarchy culture and loyalty, while on the other hand loyalty showed the strongest significant positive relation to clan hotel culture. However task requirement performance item did not indicated any relationship with clan culture. Adhocracy culture indicated the smallest correlation with all performance items (*Appendix 34*). Market culture did not revealed significant correlation with any of the performance facets (Table 81).

Table 81. The strength of correlation between organisational culture and performance facets

| | task requirement | co-working | communication | extra effort | loyalty |
|----------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|----------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|
| clan now | no | medium (.341) | small (.275) | medium (.412) | medium (.444) |
| adhocracy now | small (.232) | small (.288) | small (.210) | small (.291) | medium (.405) |
| market now | no | no | no | no | no |
| hierarchy now | small (-.242) | medium (-.396) | small (-.293) | medium (-.479) | strong (-.625) |

Finally hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to examine which independent variable (emotional intelligence or present dominant organisational culture) adds more to the prediction of the dependent variable (performance). In this analyses gender, age qualification and tenure, in the present position as the strongest individual influencing control variables, were included. Table 82 provides the summary of the analyses. First gender, age, qualification and tenure in present position were entered (at Step 1) where R square in the Model Summary box indicated that these factors explained total performance by 15.4%. After entering global emotional intelligence (at Step 2) the whole model (including the previous age, gender, qualification and tenure in position) explained performance by 41.4%. Finally hierarchy culture (present dominant culture) was entered (at Step 3) which created the explanatory power 56%. R square change indicated (in Model 2 and 3) how much of the overall variance was explained by emotional intelligence and present dominant culture. In this case emotional intelligence R square change value was .26 while hierarchy culture was .14.6. This meant that emotional intelligence explained an additional 26% of the variance in performance even when gender, age, qualification and tenure in the position were controlled. Altogether it accumulated to 67.4% (41.4%+26%) minus the 15.4% of gender, age, qualification and tenure in present position. Altogether it was identified that emotional intelligence explained performance by 52%. (F sig, change .000). Additionally with hierarchy hotel culture R square change the explanatory power of the whole model (including gender, age, qualification, tenure in the position, emotional intelligence and present dominant culture) was 70.6% (56%+14.6%).

Table 82. Model Summary of hierarchical regression analysis^d

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate | Change Statistics | | | | |
|-------|-------------------|-------------|-------------------|----------------------------|-------------------|----------|-----|-----|---------------|
| | | | | | R Square Change | F Change | df1 | df2 | Sig. F Change |
| 1 | .392 ^a | .154 | .121 | .61417 | .154 | 4.727 | 4 | 104 | .002 |
| 2 | .643 ^b | .414 | .385 | .51364 | .260 | 45.690 | 1 | 103 | .000 |
| 3 | .748 ^c | .560 | .534 | .44720 | .146 | 33.881 | 1 | 102 | .000 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), tenure in the present position, qualification, gender, age

b. Predictors: (Constant), tenure in the present position, qualification, gender, age, global trait EI

c. Predictors: (Constant), tenure in the present position, qualification, gender, age, global trait EI, hierarchy now

d. Dependent Variable: performance

Significance levels in the Coefficients part of the analysis needed to be checked in order to decide which variables really do contribute to the final equation (*Appendix 35*). There were three variables that had statistically significant contribution to performance: emotional intelligence (Sig. .000), present dominant culture (Sig. .000) and qualification (Sig. .005). The significant level of gender, age and tenure in present position were above the .005 indicating no unique contribution to performance. Beta levels had to be checked in order to decide which variable contributes the most, separately to total performance. The outcomes revealed that global emotional intelligence was the most principal independent variable (beta=44), followed by present dominant (hierarchy) culture (beta= -42) and then qualification (beta=22).

4.7.3 Testing the correctness of the hypotheses

H1. Hotel functional managers' emotional intelligence positively relate to their individual performance.

The R square in the multiple regression analysis indicated a relationship between the variables. This meant that trait emotional intelligence explained 61% of variance in hotel managers' task and contextual performance. This result was also supported by the hierarchical multiple analyses where together with gender, age, qualification and present position tenure, the explaining power was 67.4%. Beta value indicated that global emotional intelligence contributes the most to total performance. Therefore H1 was accepted and the following thesis could be stated:

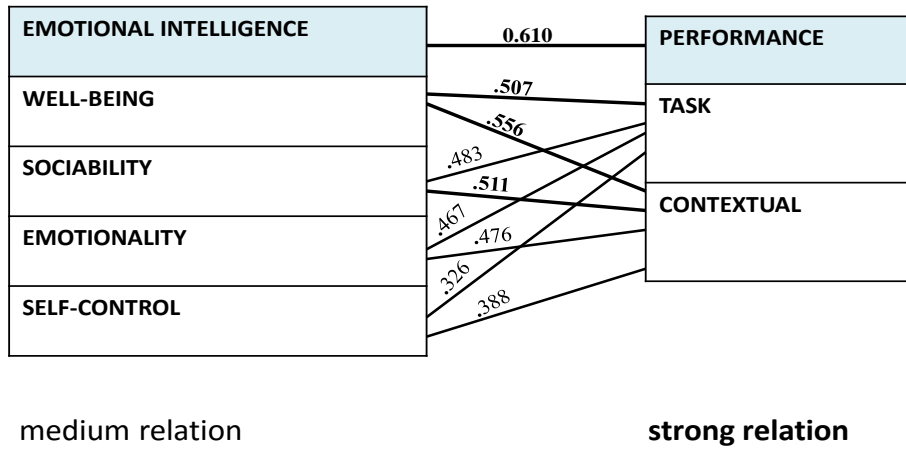
Thesis 1

Hotel functional managers' emotional intelligence had a significant, strong positive relationship with individual performance regardless of gender, age, qualification and present position tenure.

H1a. Hotel functional managers' emotional intelligence and performance relation demonstrates a difference at factorial and facet levels.

Overall emotional intelligence factors had medium and strong correlations with performance factors. At factorial levels the strongest significant positive correlation was between well-being and contextual performance ($r=.560$). Nevertheless well-being also had significant strong positive correlations with task performance ($r=.507$). Self-control factor had the lowest correlation value (but still medium strength) with both task- ($r=.326$) and contextual ($r=.388$) performance. Considering the two performance factors it was concluded that only sociability showed difference as it had a medium correlation with task- ($r=.483$) while being strong with contextual ($r=.511$) performance. Figure 26 exhibits the correlation values between emotional intelligence at global and factorial levels.

Figure 4. Strengths of relationship between emotional intelligence and performance at global and factorial levels



At facet level loyalty had mainly the strongest significant positive relation with the following emotional intelligence items: optimism ($r=.560$), social awareness ($r=.544$), happiness ($r=.518$), empathy ($r=.501$) and self-motivation ($r=.501$). On the other had emotional regulation indicated the smallest correlation with all of the performance facets ($r<.205$). The lowest correlation was

between emotional regulation and co-working ($r=.120$) and communication ($r=.124$). Therefore H1a was accepted and the following thesis could be stated:

Thesis 2

Hotel functional managers' emotional intelligence and performance strengths of correlation differed at factorial and facet levels as well-being factors and facets presented the strongest while self-control factors and facets demonstrated the lowest correlation with performance factor and facets. All factors and facets showed significant correlations.

H2. There is a relationship between present organisational culture and hotel functional managers' performance.

Significant relationship was found between present organisational culture and performance. Hierarchy, clan and adhocracy showed a significant correlation with performance at global, factorial and facet levels. However, no significant relationship was detected between market culture and performance. The present dominant hierarchy culture had the strongest significant negative relation to performance ($r=-.528$). Significant positive medium relationship was identified between present clan and adhocracy culture and performance, while market culture did not reveal any significant relation. Therefore H2 was partially accepted and the following thesis could be stated:

Thesis 3

The majority of hotel functional managers reported that their hotel had hierarchy organisational culture which indicated significant strong negative relationship with performance. Hotels with clan and adhocracy culture showed significant medium positive relationship with performance. Market culture did not indicated significant relation to performance.

H2a. The present dominant organisational culture shows differences at the functional managers' performance factorial level.

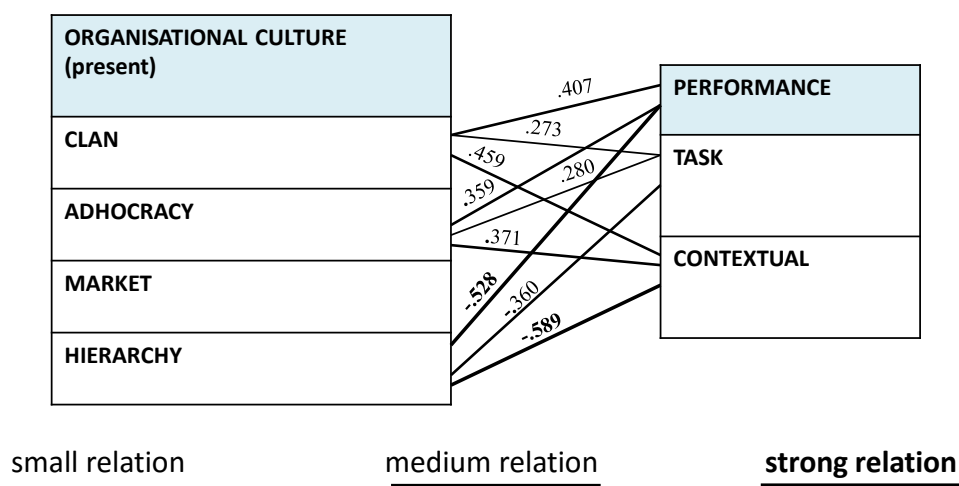
Hierarchy was considered the present dominant culture. At factorial level hierarchy hotel culture showed a significant strong negative relationship with contextual performance ($r=-.589$) and a significant medium correlation with task performance ($r=-.360$). Regarding performance facets the strongest significant negative relationship was between hierarchy culture and loyalty ($r=-.625$) and the smallest significant negative correlation with task requirement ($r=-.242$). Figure 27 illustrates organisational culture relation to performance. As both performance factors

had significant relation at different strength levels H2a was partially accepted and the following thesis could be stated:

Thesis 4

The dominant hierarchy hotel culture relationship showed significant negative relationship with both performance factors. The strengths of correlation differed at a factorial level as contextual performance indicated significant strong negative relationship (loyalty facets indicated the strongest negative correlation) while task performance significant medium negative relationship (task-requirement facets indicated the smallest negative correlation) with hierarchy culture.

Figure 5. Strengths of relationship between present organisational culture and performance at global and factorial levels



In the next chapter the interpretation of the descriptive statistic results and the research outcomes are discussed.

4.8 Applying theory into practice: Action research at a Hungarian hotel

The present case study aims to illustrate the practical application of the research outcomes. The following is a description of a mutual collaboration process with one of the hotels in the research. Action research is a type of qualitative method when the researcher is involved in the

process from problem identification through recommendation, implementation to monitor solutions (Veal, 2011:134).

One of the interviewees for the performance part of the thesis was a functional manager from a Hungarian 4-star small, independent conference- and wellness hotel with 28 employees and 38 rooms. The hotel was a member of the Hungarian Hotel and Restaurant Association and the Hotelstars. It won the Best of Budapest and Hungary Award in the wellness hotel category and the Hungarian Tourism Quality Award in 2012.

In 2013, a few weeks after the interview, the General Manager (GM) and the hotel owner were approached to discuss this research in depth. Beyond curiosity the owner expressed his wish to create a performance assessment system (PAS) and asked for collaboration to improve the quality of the employees' work. The mutual work started in May 2013. First there was a discussion with the owner, the GM and the Sales and Marketing manager about the purpose of the pilot, their ideas of the PAS, and then the method of the survey and the whole process were discussed. Moreover individual coaching was provided to the owner from the beginning. At that time besides the GM and the owner there were 5 'functional managers' however, except the Sales and Marketing manager neither (Wellness, F&B, Kitchen, Housekeeping) was regarded and appointed officially as they did not have job descriptions, clear scope of duties and responsibilities. The owner and the GM discussed and proposed possible functional managers for Wellness, F&B, Kitchen, Housekeeping positions therefore questionnaire (emotional intelligence, Belbin group test, satisfaction and motivation test), interviews and discussions on managerial roles and responsibility took place to inform and select the best candidates. Additionally all managers filled out the questionnaire applied in the thesis to detect their emotional intelligence and performances level and also the hotel organizational present and preferred culture. The aim was to explore the managers' emotional intelligence and their individual performance level, and also to detect present hotel culture and compare it to the preferred one to adjust future vision, mission and PAS according to the outcomes. Concurrently job-descriptions were created for new managerial positions and all employees' existing job-descriptions were revised and developed with the collaboration of the GM. Employees were included to read through, comment, add and/or suggest possible alterations. The agreed documents then were signed.

During the period between May and July 2013 all employees had a 45-minute individual interview (allowed by the owner) where their motivation factors, satisfaction, performance,

view on inner communication and training needs were asked coupled with the Belbin test to identify team roles. These discussions were pre-arranged with employees, the interviews took place in a separate room at the hotel. The outcome was confidentially discussed with the owner and the GM. This was followed by a discussion where the owner and each employee had a 30 to 45-minute mediated conversation¹⁶ to clear misunderstandings, talk about future performance commitments, including developmental training, communication issues, motivators and satisfaction issues.

In the summer of 2013 (July-August) based on the result of these surveys the hotel's PAS was developed which had two parts. The general part included professional competences based on job requirement (professional and behavioural) and job description, while the personal part included "competences to develop" and "training that needed" sections. The PAS was given to all functional managers to review and recommend alterations. Then all employees had a 5 day possibility window to make their suggestions and comments. These competences were measured in a 360 degree approach including the employee him/herself, his/her functional manager, the owner, the GM and the consultant. The aim was to compare the differences in the first year twice (within 6 and 12 months) and from the second year annually with half yearly individual discussions. The new PAS was supported with a motivation practice; therefore the Best Employee Award and the Best Functional Area Award were created. The reward for the Best Employee was a wellness weekend with a partner in another Hungarian hotel and for the Best Functional Area the owner offered expert training or a tourism fair visit at the winner's choice. Furthermore regular meetings on Monday mornings were introduced with the presence of the owner, the GM and all functional managers. The purpose of these meetings was to discuss previous week's issues and future events. Furthermore this gathering provided a place to discuss functional areas' and individual performance.

In September 2013 the PAS and the Award system was introduced and explained to all employees at a general annual meeting. Employees were free to ask and comment. Then the owner informed everyone that within 6 months the PAS would be reviewed and the Awards would be provided.

Between September and December 2013 the GM put the PAS system in practice, if needed Skype and e-mail consultation took place with the consultant. New candidates (1 FβB functional

¹⁶ consultant/mediator was the PhD candidate who has coach and mediator qualification

manager, 2 waiters, and 1 housekeeper) were selected based on the emotional intelligence test, the developed job description competences, and past experience from CV. These employees had proved to be well selected as the restaurant organizational climate changed positively (based on owner's, the GM's and guests' feedback) and this generated financial growth. The previous FβB functional manager left the hotel by mutual agreement due to personality (stress coping) problems.

In February 2014 a general meeting was set up where the previous PAS results were reported including the best performing employees and functional areas. The two Awards were given at a ceremony. Meanwhile individual feedback and development plans were discussed with Front Office functional area and 2 employees whose performance had decreased.

Between March-May 2014 profession training was provided to all Front Office employees by the GM (who had previously been the Front Office Manager for 15 years) and the consultant provided emotional intelligence and communication training to all employees and separate coaching to the 2 lower performers.

In October 2014 the annual PAS was discussed and the Best Employee received gratuity. The Best Functional Area was the kitchen and they received a professional visit to one of the top restaurants in Hungary where besides having a three-course meal they were allowed to see the kitchen and learn some new cooking techniques. Based on the owner, the GM and the functional managers' feedback they agreed with the benefits of PAS and the Award systems and declared that it triggered positive changes both for the individuals and the business.

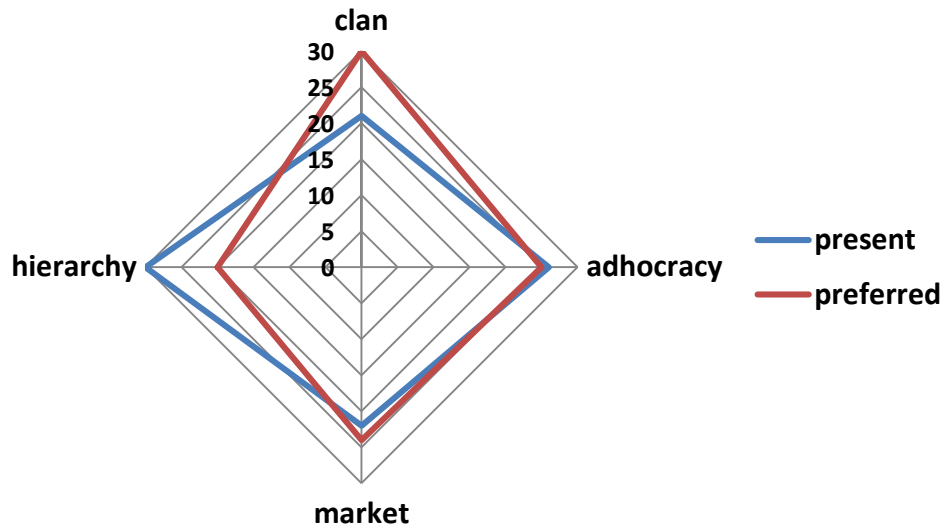
Till present the owner, the GM, and the consultant meet quarterly to discuss possible problems, changes regarding PAS and job interviews. The functional managers and employees can also tactfully discuss relevant issues with the consultant if needed.

In the following some descriptive statistics are provided regarding the hotel's present and preferred organizational culture and the owner, the GM and functional managers' emotional intelligence and performance.

The management (including the owner) indicated that in 2013, when cooperation started, the hotel organizational culture was hierarchy. Regarding the preferred culture clan; it was indicated to work within 5 years (Figure 7). This result confirms the research outcomes where

hierarchy was the dominant present culture and clan was indicated as the preferred dominant culture by the majority of the functional managers.

Figure 6. Present and preferred organization culture by management of the pilot hotel



After discussing the results with the management it was pinpointed that despite requiring more precise administration and documentation, the majority of the problem was with internal communication problems (such as lack of essential information), with people’s attitudes and conflict management (Table 83). Therefore one of the main aims faded was to create a professionally and personally strong team. This need was supported by the emotional intelligence results. Overall managers had average global emotional intelligence (4, 91) with a significantly high well-being (5.48) and low self-control (4.13) levels. Sociability (5.17) and emotionality (4.94) means fell into the average category.

Table 83. Comparing pilot hotel managers’ emotional intelligence levels with all participants’ in the thesis

| EQ factors | All participants in the thesis (N=109) | Pilot hotel (N=7) |
|---------------------|--|-------------------|
| well-being | 5.37 | 5.48 |
| self-control | 4.39 | 4.13 |
| emotionality | 5.08 | 4.94 |
| sociability | 5.19 | 5.17 |
| Global EQ | 4.97 | 4.91 |

Low self-control indicated problems on individual level (Table 84). The most badly performing area at the beginning of the mutual work was the restaurant and the front office. The Food and Beverage Manager (FBM) had the lowest global emotional intelligence result (3.93) with a significantly low self-control (3.01) emotionality (4.04), well-being (4.26) and sociability

(4.33). Similarly the Front Office Manager (FOM) had low emotional intelligence level on global- (4.23), self-control- (3.03), well-being- (3.94) and sociability (4.38) level. The one exception was emotionality (5.14). Each had individual coaching but with different results. The FBM indicated that he had private life problems and however he confirmed he needed to change in his attitude he cannot and left the hotel. With the new FBM (with high/5.41 emotional intelligence level) who was selected according to the new system the restaurant performance improved morally and financially a lot. On the other hand the FOM took coaching seriously and was willing to improve. She remained the FOM and her emotional intelligence level increased (4.77 which is in the average category) after 3 months. Additionally the owner's self-control low (3.81) level improved to average level (4.86) after a year coaching.

Table 84. Managers' emotional intelligence levels in the pilot hotel

| | Well-being | Self-control | Emotionality | Sociability | Global EQ |
|--------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|
| Owner | 5.5 | 3.81 | 4.29 | 5.13 | 4.64 |
| SMM | 6.76 | 5.17 | 4.68 | 6.09 | 5.51 |
| WM | 5.79 | 5.01 | 5.56 | 5.05 | 5.33 |
| KM | 6.02 | 4.3 | 5.57 | 5.87 | 5.46 |
| FOM | 3.94 | 3.03 | 5.14 | 4.38 | 4.23 |
| FBM | 4.26 | 3.01 | 4.04 | 4.33 | 3.93 |
| GM | 6.1 | 4.55 | 5.33 | 5.33 | 5.27 |
| ALL | 5.48 | 4.13 | 4.94 | 5.17 | 4.91 |

This action research illustrated methods to develop and operate a Performance Assessment System from selection through motivation to personal development. Emotional intelligence proved to play a vital role in hotel managers' lives and it indicates to influence their private and functional area's performance.

CHAPTER 5: Research outcomes, new knowledge and interpretation of the results

In the following chapter the research outcomes are summarized along with novelties and interpretation of the results.

5.1. Hotel managers' emotional intelligence outcomes, novelties and relation to previous studies and literature

Hotel functional managers' global emotional intelligence level was found to be lower as opposed to previous studies comparing managers from other industries (Scott-Halsell et al, 2008). Previous research outcomes applying the same (TEIQue) measurement by the author (Komlósi and Göndör, 2013; Komlósi and Kovács, 2013 ;) also found that hotel functional managers' trait emotional intelligence was significantly lower on global and factorial levels (emotionality, self-control and sociability, however well-being did not differ) than managers from other industries in Hungary (see research and articles referred to in part *4.1.1 TEIQue Hungarian adaptation and reliability testing*)

Previous studies had different viewpoints and research outcomes regarding gender. Nolen-Hoeksema and Jackson (2001) stated that globally women had higher EQ opposing to Ahmad et al (2009) and Petrides research outcome which indicated that men's EQ was higher. While Rahman et al's (2012) study did not find this gender difference. In accordance with the latter study globally no difference on emotional intelligence was identified regarding gender in the thesis. However at a factorial level, male functional managers had significantly higher self-control levels while female colleagues had significantly higher emotionality levels. This showed a similarity with previous research results where male managers' stress management and emotional regulations were identified as being significantly higher than the females. On the other hand female's empathy and emotional perception levels were found to be higher (Farrelly and Austin, 2007; Petrides, 2009; McIntyre, 2010). At a facet level within emotionality all items were significantly higher for female functional managers (emotional perception, emotional expression, empathy and relationships) than for male, while in self-control only male functional managers' emotional regulation differed significantly from their female counterparts. Stress-management and impulsiveness did not indicated significant difference between the genders. Additionally women's happiness and self-motivation levels were significantly higher than men's. Comparing this with previous outcomes there were similarities and differences. In Petrides' (2009) research within the emotionality facets, emotional expression and empathy

were found significantly higher among women. This thesis had similar findings. Moreover the thesis outcomes revealed significantly high emotional perception and relationship facets regarding female managers which had not been detected in previous studies (Petrides, 2009). Similarly to Petride's (2009) research emotional regulation was found to be higher among men. However, stress-management and impulsiveness previously were identified significantly higher regarding male, the present thesis did not find significant difference between the two genders. Prior studies by Petrides (2008, 2011) did not detect differences regarding happiness and self-motivation while the present thesis found that these two facets were significantly higher among women.

Regarding generations, no significant difference between the emotional intelligence levels among the age groups could be identified. Previous studies indicated that hotel managers (especially women) who spent less than 20 years in the industry, expressed their emotions more (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2004; Scott-Halsell et al, 2008).

Previously Scott-Halsell et al (2008, 2011) comparative study indicated that the hospitality professional had higher empathy and motivation levels than university students of tourism. Considering education the analyses in the thesis indicated that functional managers with higher emotional intelligence had higher qualifications. This result suggests that emotional intelligence can be improved through specific education. As the significant difference was higher between GCSE and Master's degree holders, it might be that Bachelor's degree contributes the most to the development of emotional intelligence. Obviously there can be other interpretations of these results which can set the base of future research.

Concerning organizational variables, functional managers' well-being and sociability levels in 4- and 5-star hotels were higher, however significantly it could not be identified. Furthermore no difference could be found between the emotional intelligence levels of managers working in hotels which were members of Hotelstars or not. Slaski and Cartwright (2003) longitudinal study indicated that training can raise well-being levels of managers.

The correlation analyses confirmed that trait emotional intelligence had a significant strong positive (.610) relationship with performance. At factorial levels significant strong and medium positive relationships were identified, well-being had the strongest and self-control the lowest

correlation with performance both on total and factorial levels. In the research of Chen and Choi (2008) they advised that self-control and good command of emotions are the most substantial competences to consider when selecting employees. Task performance indicated the strongest significant positive relation with optimism and social awareness. This indicates that those functional managers, looking forward to good things, have positive expectations of the future (optimism) and on the other hand excellence in social skills and the ability to control their emotions for situational purposes (social awareness) could perform their functional task higher. High contextual performance contributor items besides functional managers' optimism level were the ability to see the world from another person's point of view (empathy), enjoy life and cheerfully (happiness) and easily adapt to new situations in work and life (adaptability). These phenomena were also detected in previous research works. Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) found that high openness and emotional management showed a significant relation to performance. Schutte et al (2000, 2001) also indicated that low frustration and helplessness lead to better task performance. Kappagoda's study (2012) identified that the most influencing factors of high performance were self-awareness, social-awareness, self-management and relationship management. Furthermore self-awareness correlated significantly with contextual performance but not with task performance.

On a facet level loyalty was found to correlate the strongest with optimism, social awareness, happiness, empathy and self-motivation. This indicates that functional managers with these emotional intelligence traits are likely to stay in the hospitality industry longer as they have similar values to the hotel management, who cares about the destiny of the hotel and would not leave the present position due to a change in work requirements, recommends their hotels not just to possible guests but speaks highly of the workplace to family and friends. This result had also been previously identified by Wolfe and Kim (2013). Loyalty is also a key driver of clan culture (Cameron and Quinn, 2006). Bearing this in mind it could be stated that the previously mentioned emotional intelligent traits (optimism, social awareness, happiness, empathy and self-motivation) backed up with clan culture can result in loyal managers.

5.2. Hotel managers' task and contextual performance outcomes, knew knowledge and relation to previous studies and literature

A questionnaire to measure functional managers' individual performance was proposed, developed and its reliability was tested. Within performance two parts were determined with

quantitative methodology (principle component analysis): task performance and contextual performance. Within task performance task requirement, co-working and communication, while regarding contextual performance, extra effort and loyalty facets were identified. Communication items were first proposed to belong to contextual performance but based on the Pattern Matrix Factor Variables, in principle, component analyses this facet fitted in the elements of a task performance factor.

Considering gender it was found that task and contextual performance did not differ significantly. However at facet levels, female functional managers' loyalty within contextual performance was significantly higher than male managers'. Min's (2012) study identified the relationship between gender and length of service: women were found to be more loyal. The thesis did not aim to investigate the reason behind this, however, future research is encouraged to do so.

Performance seemed to be indifferent from age at global and factorial (task and contextual) levels similarly to the outcome between emotional intelligence and age. It may indicate that age is not a determining factor either in hotel functional managers' trait emotional intelligence levels or in their individual performance levels. Similar results were identified in other trait emotional intelligent studies ((Roberts et al, 2001; Petrides, 2009; Tsaousis and Kazi, 2013) which again contradict with the ability approach of emotional intelligence research where age played a vital role (Derksen et al, 2002, Garder and Qualter, 2010; Sliter et al, 2013).

Functional managers with higher qualifications had higher levels of performance, however, this finding was not significantly supported. There was a slight difference between task and contextual performance mean scores and their linear growth with educational levels. With task performance the mean scores were higher and tendency of growth was linear. It can suggest that functional managers gain more task required experiences in further education. On the other hand within contextual performance extra effort and loyalty are characteristics that might not be acquired in education but obtained through socialising or are within the inner self. Higgs and Dulewicz (1999) found that IQ determined 27%, acquired managerial skills 16%, while emotional intelligence 36% of managers' performance. Within the remaining 21% influencer factors were managerial competences, special knowledge, technical skills and organisational

culture. The statistical analysis of the present thesis found that emotional intelligence explained 52% of hotel functional managers' global performance.

Similarly tenure in the industry, present hotel and present position did not indicate significant differences in functional managers' performance. This was a surprising outcome as tenure was expected to reveal a relationship with performance (see part previously Scott-Halsell et al, 2008). On the other hand it might be that novice managers are eager to perform high at the beginning, and then, due to long hours, more responsibly etc. this enthusiasm that has triggered inner motivation and high performance fades and burn-out appears. Burn-out unfortunately is a typical syndrome at emotional work (Hochschild, 1983) where dealing with people (guests) plus long ours are propagators.

There was an interesting result considering the number of subordinates a functional manager worked with. The Kruskal-Wallis test significance and the median level indicated that functional managers who worked with more employees had higher total and contextual performance levels, which were not significant for task performance. It could have been explained by hotel size and standardisation, but when hotel size was analysed in relation to performance it revealed just the opposite. Only task performance indicated difference regarding the size of the hotel. Therefore one of the explanations can be that extra effort could have been completed easier with more employees due to over time, and their loyalty might increase as work-load decreases. If employees have more time, according to Boon et al (2014) they pay more attention to extra effort and less to task requirement. Furthermore previous studies revealed that employment relation such as team-work and work-life balance influence extra effort positively (Boon et al, 2014:28-29), and that hotel managers' inspirational motivation (in the thesis self-motivation is a facet within emotional intelligence) had significant relationship with extra effort (Quintana et al, 2014).

The hotel category did not act as a significant factor in performance. Functional managers' performance levels were generally the same regardless of the fact that they worked in 3-, 4- or 5-star hotels. This outcome together with the emotional intelligent results suggests that functional managers with the same emotional intelligence provide the same performance regardless of hotel category.

Hotelstars membership did make a difference regarding performance. Functional managers' performance was significantly higher than those who worked in hotels that were members of Hotelstars. Furthermore with Eta square it was calculated that membership explained 11% of managers performance. One of the explanations can be that as Hotelstars gives standardised guidelines, provides regular check-ups, and gives recommendations and proof of quality (as defined by Gyurácz-Németh, 2015) therefore functional managers task performance can be adjusted to these standards. In the thesis the difference in mean was a bit higher in the case of contextual performance compared to task performance which might also indicate that being a Hotelstars member required extra effort (you need to prepare certain requirements to fulfil membership). This was confirmed by extra effort facet's mean difference (.65), the largest mean difference among performance indicators.

5.3. Hotel organisational culture outcomes, knew knowledge and relation to previous studies and literature

Based on previous research outcomes it was proposed that the majority of Hungarian hotels present organisational culture with clan and adhocracy (Cameron, 2001; Mars, 2008; Handy, 1993). Considering all participant hierarchy was identified as the present dominant hotel culture and clan as the preferred dominant culture where functional managers would like to work within 5 years. However when a hotel category was taken into account the result became more diverse as the majority of 3-star hotel functional managers indicated hierarchy present dominant cultures, in 4-star hotels it was adhocracy, while within the 5-stars market was identified. The culture types remained the same where preferred culture was asked. As these differences in culture were significant it could suggest that organisational culture does depend on hotels' category each having a different strategy, vision, market segmentation etc. To state this however, higher sample size and deeper analysis would be needed which the present thesis did not aim to explore.

Previous research distinguished hotel culture according to size and being a chain member or independent business. Therefore these perspectives were analysed in the thesis and the following outcomes could be pinpointed. Hotels dominant present culture was the same, hierarchy, regardless of being a member of a chain or not, comparing this result to previous research where individual hotels had market and chain hotels had hierarchy culture (Mars and Nicod, 1984; Cameron, 2001). Taking size into consideration again the results differed from

this previous study. Small hotels' dominant present culture was adhocracy while in the previous studies (Balogh, 2011, Bogdány, 2013, Csepregi, 2011) clan was identified. On the other hand for mid-size hotels previous study indicated adhocracy while the thesis found clan as a dominant present culture (Table 85). Another research however did not find a significant relation between the size of the hotel and cultural compatibility (Almeida et al, 2011), therefore these results should be interpreted cautiously and perhaps in a future study national culture of hotels' need to be taken into account.

Table 85. Present cultural outcome compared with Mars and Nicod (1984), and Cameron (2001) studies

| | previous studies (Mars and Nicod, 1984; Cameron, 2001) | present thesis |
|----------------------------------|--|----------------|
| small hotel (10-49 rooms) | clan | adhocracy |
| mid-size (50-150 rooms) | adhocracy | clan |
| independent | market | hierarchy |
| chain | hierarchy | hierarchy |

Regarding individual characteristics gender differences were identified. On the one hand more female functional managers indicated to work presently in an adhocracy hotel culture while on the other hand more male functional managers worked in hierarchy cultures. There were no studies which investigated organisational culture in relation to gender, which adds to the originality of the thesis. The result might suggest that women managers with higher self-motivation, emotionality (and within this with high empathy, emotional expression, emotional perception and relationship) in the 21st century may as well prefer to work in an innovative, risk taking environment where creativity is valued. Male functional managers' self-control level was significantly higher which might indicate that they can endure the stress coming with the hierarchy culture such as rules, regulations and controls. However difference disappeared when both gender claimed to prefer to work in clan hotel culture. Further analysis is urged to explore the reason behind the outcomes.

Considering qualification managers with GSCEs indicated clan as the present dominant culture, those with BTEC degrees chose hierarchy, managers with Bachelor's degrees claimed market, and Master-degree functional managers' specified adhocracy. This can suggest that functional managers with university degrees (Bachelor and Master) tended to work in cultures with external focus (market and adhocracy) at the time of the research. These two cultures focus on the hard drives of the market (e.g. competition, innovation, customer focus), where agile, risk-

taker, creative and competitive managers are needed. The results would also suggest that further education management studies could contribute to develop these competences as there were no studies found examining the relationship of qualifications and present and preferred cultures.

The total tenure (number of years spent in hospitality) results were similarly diverse than the qualification outcomes. Those who spent 1-3 years in the hospitality industry mainly worked in adhocracy culture and those who spent 4-10 years worked in a market culture. Although market culture remained preferable for 4-10 year tenure managers, the novices preferred to work in clan hotel cultures, which collided with university students manager-to-be research outcomes (Balogh, 2011). Functional managers, who spent more than 11 years in the industry, seemed to “adopt” to the culture they presently worked in. Those who spent 11-20 years in hospitality indicated clan as the present dominant culture where they would stay (however they reached the same score on market which could be worth considering later), and functional managers who worked more than 21 years would prefer to work in the same present hierarchy culture. Previously Lehman et al’s (2004) in their study claimed that with time individuals’ values influence organisational culture, which the present thesis outcomes also indicated: managers with diverse length of time spent in hotels worked in different organisational cultures. However, neither Lehman et al’s nor this research investigated the direction of influence (individuals influencing culture or vice-versa). The new knowledge of the present thesis was to specify which organisation culture type characterises a particular length of period spent in a hotel.

After examining organisational culture in relation to performance it could be stated that the dominant present hierarchy culture had a significant negative correlation with performance, especially with contextual performance. These results showed similarities with Emmanuel and Lloyed (2000) stating that bureaucratic culture (which was hierarchy in the thesis) did not have a direct effect on performance and led to short term loss.

Other present cultures had a significant positive relationship with performance: clan and adhocracy had medium relation to total and contextual performance with a small relation to task performance. Interestingly market culture did not show any significant relation to performance. The result is quite understandable for internal positioned clan and hierarchy cultures. While in hierarchy culture the key words are controlling, orders and rules where the managers’ main function is to be in command and monitor, clan culture is more people-focused where the key

word is collaboration and managers act as mentors, team-leaders or parental-figures. This protective atmosphere influences employees' psyche positively. Although adhocracy culture has an external focus it generates a creative atmosphere with a dynamic, visionary and risk-taker type of management. This creativity and dynamism can motivate functional managers to try themselves out in different roles not to be bored in a monotonous work. Market culture is externally positioned to where competition, results and profitability is the main drive. That is why it was surprising not to find any significant correlation at least with task performance, and even the small relations indicated were all negative. The reason this culture did not show any relation to performance's can be that hotels by nature are always in competition, where excellent performance is not the target but the base. Emmanuel and Lloyed (2000) previous study also indicated that innovative culture directly affected high performance while hierarchy culture actually resulted in profit loss. The thesis did not aim to examine and regard the relationship of organisational and national culture, but it can be one of the future research paths.

5.4. Action research outcomes and knew knowledge

There are researchers whose aims are to create a model or theory of something they explored, why others apply a theory to examine how it works on a sample population they wish to study. The present thesis has combined the two with triangulation. The action research was the stage when, based on the exploratory data analysis and outcomes, the indicated results of the thesis were put into action with a Hungarian hotel.

First it is essential to declare that the action study could not have been carried out successfully without the owner and general manager's full support and their cooperative but "giving a free hand" attitude. The basis of the subtle and cooperative process was trust. Although the hotel had a stable financial performance the hotel management wished to improve the moral of the employees as well as to increase the performance of some key units (mainly restaurant) to keep and improve performance, employees and guest loyalty. The aim was to develop a Performance Assessment System which can operate within the hotel.

The outcomes suggested that the present hotel hierarchical performance was not what the management and employees preferred. Although they admit that rules and regulations are necessary to standardize the processes for the organisation to run smoothly, they prefer working in a clan atmosphere, where trust, loyalty, interpersonal skills, good communication and

cooperation are important. Besides, the outcomes revealed that more emphasis should have been put on personal development. The majority of employees agreed that contextual performance indicators in the hotel were essential. This and individual competence development were taken into consideration when the owner offered customised training to be provided to each employee. For example barrister training for waiters, or language courses for receptionists. Functional managers also indicated and were advised to develop some of these competencies. The communication and emotional intelligence training was run by the thesis writer (who lectures such courses at the university and also provides such training). After the a two-day training on levels of self-control (which was the lowest), assertive communication and with that global emotional intelligence levels increased, the other facets have remained or just slightly changed but remained at an average level. It indicates that certain emotional traits can be developed in a short time. However a follow-up and a longitudinal study is suggested to examine whether item levels are maintained, increase or decrease again. Among the remaining facets were empathy, relationship, others' emotional management and emotional expression. These need longer time to develop. This is a novel result of the thesis to consider for HR and trainers not just in the hospitality industry when organising training for employees. Furthermore as these traits require a longer time to develop or change for the better, it is advised that this be considered during job interviews for new applicant employees with these required emotional intelligence traits. Training however is a two-folded technique. As it was described, the Food and Beverage Manager recognised he had to change but could not. At that time he had family problems, but he found the training helpful as he could in time realise that work also put a burden on him. He had to decide and choose family over work and with this he had a "great release" as he said. Though at times a hotel loses an employee, it can also be a respectable solution for both parties: for the ex-employee to have less stress and a clear and reorganised life; for the management to apply and work with a new, motivated and well-suited employee. This was also the case here. The new FBM was selected with the developed PAS method, taking emotional intelligence, team role and preferred organisational culture into consideration. The FBM presently still works in the hotel and according to the general manager his performance is outstanding and the guests are very satisfied with him. On the other hand the Front Office Manager, following the training, gradually changed her attitude and started to work on her stress management with success. She is still the FOM and the management is pleased with her performance. According to the owner, the hotel is now in an in-between culture of clan and hierarchy and communication is gradually improving. The hotel applies the PAS under the

responsibility of the GM. The outcomes of the action study indicated that to change attitude of employees first, thorough individual communication and testing were needed with a longitudinal cooperation with owners and managers. Then a system has to be developed, tested and adjusted to meet the needs of the hotel. The key point is to maintain this system and give regular feedback on what goes well and what alterations are required.

CHAPTER 6: Contributions, limitations, future plan and recommendation

6.1. Contribution to knowledge

The outcomes and new results have been revealed in detail in the previous chapter. The current thesis suggests theoretical, methodological and practical innovation which are presented separately in the following paragraphs. Each study aims either to develop further an existing knowledge or create a new phenomenon that contributes to a specific area. There are researchers who purposely wish to refute previous outcomes. The objective of the thesis was to combine the testing of existing knowledge about emotional intelligence, task- and contextual performance and organisational culture with creating new knowledge in hospitality management. I am convinced that the results provide a source of knowledge not only to members of the Hungarian Hotel and Restaurant Association but internationally to all hospitality organisations. Hungarian tourism and especially hospitality industry have undergone several changes recently. From a ‘guest-complaint reaction’ attitude a kind of proactive approach can be sensed. The thesis outcome can help hotel managers to understand the relationships and the consequences of emotional intelligence, individual performance and organisational culture. It can offer the process and tools to map, measure and adjust hotel strategy in order to change for better, performance regarding business environment. Also as a university lecturer I feel a responsibility to share the outcomes with colleagues working at the Department of Tourism to cooperate and develop courses which are based on the research outcomes.

6.2. Theoretical innovation

The thesis was an interdisciplinary approach that concerns emotional intelligence both from a nature and nurture point of view. Although the research was carried out in a Business School as a Management PhD study it thoroughly regarded and applied concepts and results from (applied) psychology. Nowadays there is an urge for interdisciplinary studies that can link different concepts to create new ways of thinking. The thesis attempt was to depict those emotional intelligence traits that enable high performance among functional managers in hospitality. Furthermore it aimed to explore the organizational culture where managers presently work and where they would prefer to work in Hungarian hotels. The interdisciplinary approach also gives bases to colleagues from different research areas to collaborate and come up with proposals and results that can open up a totally new path in experimental studies. The

present thesis was one good example for that. During my research I could work with people both from academic and from industries (e.g. management, tourism and hospitality, applied methodology, psychology, sociology and even logistics). They all shaped and broadened my perspective which influenced the research plan and model. As far as it is known, no theoretical frameworks and research with the research model of having trait emotional intelligence and organisational culture as independent variables and task- and contextual performance as dependent variables have been proposed. This was incontestably the first PhD research of that kind in Hungary.

6.3. Methodological innovation

First, as part of the thesis a self-evaluated individual measurement to assess hotel functional managers' task and contextual performance was developed and its reliability was tested. The measuring tool was based on those CSFs and KPIs that had been identified during the interviews with Hungarian and British general and functional hotel managers coupled with and adjusted to previous research findings. The process of developing this performance measurement was described in details. The research was distinctive in a way so as to measure individual performance not only on a global scale but separately on task and contextual performance base building on the work of Umbreit, 1986; Borman and Motowidlo, 1993; Motowidlo and Scotter, 1994; Fisher and Härtel, 2004 and Aguinis, 2009).

Second, the thesis adopted and tested the reliability of an internationally applied and strongly reliable (approved by BPS) Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire in Hungarian. The TEIQue test had not previously been applied internationally in measuring emotional intelligence in hospitality. This thesis was the first research of that kind. Whilst TEIQue had been applied in various languages previously, this was the first translation into Hungarian and subsequent testing and validation in that language.

Thirdly, the thesis applied both quantitative and qualitative methods in order to explore the relationship of emotional intelligence and organizational culture with performance. Exploratory research in a form of interviews and case studies (qualitative method) aimed to provide a firm base of the research OCEQP Questionnaire (the acronym stands for Organizational Culture, Emotional Quotient and Performance) where compiled data was analysed by quantitative methodology. Then theory was applied in practice via a pilot study with an involvement of a hotel. This required a one and a half year mutual and close cooperation which included developing the hotel's performance assessment system, individual interviews, coaching,

emotional intelligence and communication trainings. These methodologies provided thorough analyses and firm reasoning of the present thesis work. These methodological tools and measurement can provide a reliable base for researchers and hotel managers who can objectively explore and analyse the present situation and develop changes accordingly. The research outcomes identified the specific emotional intelligence traits which triggers high task and contextual performance. Beside these traits taking qualification and gender into consideration can help hotel HR in the selection process and choosing or developing the appropriate trainings for the staff (even adjusting it to the individuals).

6.4. Practical innovation

In the majority of hotels in Hungary HRM either do not exist in small and medium hotels or their role is limited to concentrate on finance, labour law or formal recruitment and selection process (there are few, mainly international chain exceptions). Staff/manager turnover is high and loyalty is dubious. As guests become aware of their needs, the role of the hospitality industry must change from satisfying to sensing and preceding these needs. The future of HRM in hospitality is to select people who are aware of and can manage their own and others feelings well. Hotels in Hungary have recently realized that applying skilled and qualified graduates is not enough. As an educational member of the Hungarian Hotel and Restaurant Association and a practicing university lecturer I see the potential of developing emotionally aware students for the (hospitality) labour market.

The other practical innovation is applying the TEIQue in Hungarian organisation especially when recruiting for positions that requires these certain emotional intelligence traits. When conflict occurs in an organisation, management tends to blame the individuals. The thesis outcomes could help them to recognise that people with certain emotional intelligence levels and traits achieve different stages of task and contextual performance. This can be supportive information when selecting functional managers in hotels. Furthermore as expert retention is one of the key issues in HR in the 21st century the present research that can indicate which emotional intelligence traits indicate loyalty can be essential.

The pilot case study with a Hungarian hotel represented how the whole process from selection (applying emotional intelligence questionnaire) via performance development and (Performance Assessment System) to motivation and feedback (Award, trainings) can be developed.

6.5. Implications and recommendations for hospitality sector

Considering the thesis outcomes the following recommendations are articulated to hospital managers, owners, HR policy makers and hospitality and catering educational institutes.

- 1.** Hospitality industry should pay careful attention when selecting functional managers as their emotional intelligence level can positively contribute to task and contextual performance. Additionally the level of qualification attributes significantly to task performance more than the experience and length spent in hospitality. Therefore when considering to employ a new manager, not having enough experience cannot be an excuse for not recruiting. An ideal functional manager candidate is one with high qualifications and emotional intelligence but not necessarily with long tenure. Emotional intelligent based recruitment and selection is supported by the fact that performance was found to be independent from age and gender and hotel category. The average and high level existence of the following emotional intelligence traits needs to be mainly considered in a candidate if a hotel wishes to apply a functional manager that is expected to perform highly: empathy, social-awareness, optimism, happiness, low impulsiveness and adaptability. However, one should be aware that task- and contextual performance are both important elements, therefore specific skills acquired through educations are as important as the emotional intelligence traits. Furthermore too high empathy might lead to early burnout if it is not coupled with high stress management, assertiveness and self-esteem.
- 2.** Regarding training provided (not just) for functional managers educational boards, HR managers and trainers should bear in mind that some emotional intelligence traits can be trained some can only be exploited. One needs to be cautious of the length of training as traits are unlikely to change quickly. Self-control and sociability traits are regarded as needed to be trained quicker than emotionality. The well-being elements of emotional intelligence (optimism, happiness and self-esteem) improve as ‘side-effects’ when developing other emotional intelligence traits. Emotional intelligence coaching is another alternative for individuals but it also needs to be developed carefully and follow a framework which is scientifically supported and has successful evidence in practice (see e.g. Boyatzis et al, 2013). I would suggest it would be appropriate to concentrate on the facets within the different emotional intelligence factors in each training day and focus

on those especially that enable the required performance types and level. Whilst not compromising Equal Opportunities values, it may be appropriate to consider organising training by gender: for women the focus should be on self-control while and for men on the emotionality facets. Nevertheless these training should have overlapping elements such as adaptability, emotional management of others, social awareness and assertiveness that both gender needs especially to reach higher contextual performance (see Table 78).

3. Besides the level of emotional intelligence individual performance was found to depend on organisational characteristics of a hotel. As functional managers' performance level was found to be higher in hotels who were members of Hotelstars Union classification. Therefore hotels are recommended to consider undergoing an external expert's qualification processes in order to have standardised indicators which can help hotels to systemise processes for better performance outcomes. Moreover as the pilot case study indicated hotels should develop and apply consistently a Performance Assessment and Management System (depending on their size and category apply the international existing systems or develop its own). In the system employees should be measured by applying key task and contextual performance indicators. The action research presented in the thesis can be a good case study and starting point of other similar hotels how to go through the process step by step.

4. On the subject of hotel culture the majority of Hungarian functional managers indicated their preference to work in a clan organisation. Nevertheless as organisational culture was found to depend on hotel category, it would be recommended first to have a thorough study within the hotel. Present and preferred organisational culture should be measured and if it indicates a significant gap a careful organisational culture change plan should be developed and applied with the involvement of all employees. This requires a leader who is aware of the complexity and the pitfalls of change management and if needed an expert can help to go through the stages successfully. It would be useful to measure present and preferred organisational culture regularly (app. in every 5th year, as with OCAI present and 5-year preferred future culture is measured) due to the continuous internal and external influencing factors that shape owner's, management's and employees' values which then force culture change.

6.6. Limitation of the thesis

Certainly the thesis has some limitations.

The research was carried out in Hungary and only members of the Hungarian Hotel and Restaurant Association were included. The initial aim was to collect data from both Hungarian and UK hotels in order to see if there were any differences between hotel functional managers' results in the two countries. Even though attempts were made to cooperate and distribute the questionnaire among British hotels unfortunately the returned number of responses was very low (28 out of which only 4 were completed fully) to analyse and compare.

All the 366 Hungarian Hotel and Restaurant Association member hotels were approached and out of the estimated 1464 functional managers 109 completed the research questionnaire. The analyses were based on these completed responses which were enough to carry out the applied methods but the sample cannot be called representative in a sense to generalise the results to all hotel functional managers in Hungary. Notwithstanding the membership gives a firm and legal database on which the research relied on.

The thesis was a complex study. Although the main focus was hotel functional managers' emotional intelligence, organisational culture and their relation with performance it might emphasise certain parts in different ways than others. The data provide other possibilities to carry out further analyses in future papers.

6.7. Future research plan

The thesis was a cross-sectional study carried out in a certain point of time. Therefore there are several considerations to continue:

- Research can be repeated in other countries to compare the outcomes with the present thesis. As referred to previously there is an intention to repeat the study among hotel functional managers in the United Kingdom.
- Other industries could be taken into consideration. Partial research (the emotional intelligence relation to performance) was already carried out in IT and an education sector, and there is an intention to approach national and international production and service companies and compare results with the outcomes of the hotel industry.
- Besides hotel functional managers the research can be carried out with employees and owners and/or General Managers to observe similarities and differences.

- Future managers-to-be university and GSCE/BTEC students longitudinal study involvement can be another future research possibility to examine whether emotional intelligence traits can be acquired and if yes which traits and how.

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Appendix

Appendix 1

Summary of ability emotional intelligence measures

(adapted from Pérez et al, 2005:127-128 and Jonker and Voslov: 23)

| Measure | Authors | Alphas | Convergent/ Discriminant Validity | Structure |
|---|---------------------------|--|--|-------------------------|
| EARS, Emotional Accuracy Research Scale | Mayer and Geher (1996) | 0,24 target scoring and 0,53 for consensus scoring | small and unstable correlation with self- report empathy | unclear (4 factors?) |
| EISC, Emotional Intelligence Scale fro Children | Sullivan (1999) | Low to moderate | unclear | unclear |
| MEIS, Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale | Mayer et al (1999) | Good for global ability EI (0.70– 0.80), but low (0.35–0.66) for branches 3 and 4 (better to consensus than for expert scoring) | small and moderate correlations with crystallized intelligence; low correlations with the Big Fives | unclear (3 factors?) |
| MSCEIT, Mayer- Salovey- Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test | Mayer et al (2002) | Better for Version 2 (2002) than Version 1 (1997) (0.68–0.71) | very low correlations with trait EI measures (< 0.30) | unclear (4 factors?) |

| | | | | |
|---|--|--|--|------------------------|
| FNEIPT, Freudenthaler and Neubauer Emotional Intelligence Performance Test | Freudenthaler and Neubauer (2003) | Moderate: 0.69 for “managing own emotions” and 0.64 for “managing others’ emotions” | “Managing own emotions” correlated with self-reported intrapersonal EI (0.51) and “managing others’ emotions” correlated with self- report interpersonal EI (0.25). Both subscales correlated with the Big Five (0.18 to - 0.51) | unclear (2 factors) |
|---|--|--|--|------------------------|

Appendix 2

Summary of individual-level organisational culture and climate literature and studies (based on Yammarino and Dansereau, 2011:64-66, Table 4.4.)

| Authors (in alphabetical order) | Topic | Individual-level issue |
|---|---|--|
| Ashkanasy, Broadfoot and Falkus (2000) | Organisational questionnaire | Individual-level measures and aggregation-agreement |
| Ashkanasy and Jackson (2002) | Organisational culture and climate | Individual-(primarily) and higher-level and/or multilevel views of the concepts |
| Beyer, Hannah and Milton (2000) | Organisational culture and attachments | Individual-level concept |
| Carr, Schmidt, Ford and DeShon (2003) | Workplace climate | Individual-level climate perceptions affect individual-level work outcomes |
| Cooke and Szulam (2000) | Operating organisational culture inventory | Aggregated measures from individuals |
| D'Amato and Burke (2008) | Psychological and organisational climate | Climate at individual and organisational level |
| Dastmalchian (2008) | Industrial relations climate | Individual-level perceptions about labour-management relations aggregated to organisational level |
| Gunz (2000) | Organisational culture and careers | Careers at individual and organisational levels |
| Kuenzi and Schminke (2009) | Organisational work climate | Individual-, unit-, and collective-level facet-specific climates (e.g., service, safety, ethics, justice, involvement) |
| Lehman, Chiu and Schaller (2004) | Psychology and culture | Individual-level influences organisational collectives and collective-level influences on individuals |
| Major (2000) | Newcomer socialisation into organisation cultures | Individual-level processes |
| Markus (2000) | Reproduction of organisation culture | Individual-to organisational-level processes |
| Schneider, Bowen, Ehrhart and Holcomb (2000) | Climate for service | Individual perceptions aggregated to organisational level |
| | Organisational climate and culture | Organisational-level conceptualisation and individual-level perceptions aggregated to collective level |
| Stackman, Pinder and Connor (2000) | Values perspective on organisational culture | Values are individual- (and not organisational-) level concepts |
| Virtanen (2000) | Organisational culture, climate and commitment | Individual-level concepts |
| Wilderom, Glunk and Maslowski (2000) | Organisational culture and performance | Multilevel analysis of individual perceptions and organisational-level variables |
| Wiley and Brooks (2000) | High-performance organisational climate | Individual perception to organisational level |

Appendix 3

CSFs, C(K)PIs and performance measurement summarised in different hotel researches

| <i>Brotherton (2004), Brotherton et al (2003), Brotherton and Shaw (1996)</i> <i>the most important current and future CSFs and their associated CPIs by functions</i> | <i>Harris and Mongiel lo (2001)</i> <i>ranking key performance indicators related to general manager's actions</i> | <i>Wu (2006)</i> <i>external CSFs for International Tourist Hotels by categories</i> | <i>Melia and Robinson (2010)</i> <i>CSFs and structured model of performance measurement</i> | <i>Wandongo et al (2010)</i> <i>impact of managerial characteristics on KPIs in the Kenyan hotel industry</i> |
|---|---|---|--|--|
| staff attitude -customers' feedback/complaints (Front Office) | benchmarking against competitors | staffing and employee recruitment (Human Resource Management) | CSFs: -location -employees -management -quality of products, service and infrastructure -awards/affiliations -profitability | Result indicators - competitiveness (e.g. sales growth, customer satisfaction) -financial performance (e.g. total revenue, profitability ratio) |
| effective recruitment and selection procedure -customer feedback, recruitment and selection internal promotions, staff turnover (HR) | payroll percentage of revenue | market attractiveness and responsiveness (Marketing and Sales) | | |
| staff attitude and appearance - customers' feedback/complaints, repeated business (Food and Beverage, Service) | mystery guest in your hotel | environmental analyses, strategic planning and organizational structure (Organization) | | |
| minimizing food wastage – GP% (Food and Beverage, Production) | fair share analysis | customer relationship and satisfaction (Customers) | | |
| attention to detail – customers' feedback, repeated business (Conference and Banqueting) | customer payment time | | | |

| | | | | |
|--|--------------------------|---|---|---|
| increase market share hold - volume of Sales, occupancy levels (Marketing and Sales) | employee opinion surveys | scale of economy and investment (Finance) | measure ment: -CSFS -the competitive environment -employee performance measures -financial performance -customer satisfaction and quality -operational performance | -resource utilization -innovation -supplier performance -community /environmental specifications |
| prompt payment of all monies – gross profit %, recording of allowances (Accounting and Control) | training and development | | | |
| planned maintenance programme – customers' feedback, maintenance expenditure and cost (Back of House Operations) | | | | |

Appendix 4
Characteristics of reactive and proactive corporate cultures
 (based on Table 1. Glover, 1988:10-14)

| Trait | Reactive culture | Proactive culture |
|--|--|--|
| <i>How managers learn to manage</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • trial and error experience • keepers of the knowledge mentors • formal training in number crunching • focus on technical skills development | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • participation with total management team • learn consensus methods of decision-making • focus on people and product management skills development |
| <i>Motivators</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • individual career is paramount • financial incentives for individual, not group, successes • competition with peers to look good | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the group and the company are more important than the individual gain • recognition and security from group affiliations • cooperation and consensus with peers more important than looking good |
| <i>Accountability and productivity</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • revenues management is paramount • efficiency = productivity • revenues management = bottom line | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • people and product management is seen as most important influence on success and bottom line • effectiveness and efficiency = productivity • people and products and revenues = bottom line |
| <i>Decision-making and problem solving</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • unilateral, individual oriented • deal with symptoms, not problems | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • participative, focus groups and quality circles • use information from customers and employees |

| | | |
|---|--|---|
| <i>Communications</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • don't involve other managers and employees • individual responsibility and recognition | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • deal with causes, not symptoms • group responsibility and recognition |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • top down, one-way • many barriers • feedback from employees and customers is seldom sought or used | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • two-way • few barriers • feedback from employees and customers is used for operational decisions, standards, and evaluation |
| <i>Behaviour in the workplace</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • New employees learn job by trial and error • a trailing is used • blaming, defensiveness, conflict when things go wrong | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • new employees are trained by managers to agreed-upon standards • a teamwork and cooperation • employees feel a part of the company • quality circles for participative problem solving |
| <i>Priorities and focus of managers</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • putting out fires, dealing with crises • focus on getting good people • reacting to change | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • prevention • gaining consensus on how things are done • planning and orchestrating what happens • focus on keeping good people • anticipating changes |
| <i>Customer relations</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • focus on complaint handling • employees make excuses and blame others for problems • managers blame employees | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • focus on preventing conditions which foster complaints • input from managers employees, and customers is used to constantly evaluate and improve customer satisfaction |
| <i>Labour-relations management</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • adversarial • suspicion, conflict • defensiveness counter-productive • high frequency of grievances • social class system is the tradition | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • cooperation • productive • agreement on jobs • low frequency of grievances • more egalitarian, fewer social class distinctions |
| <i>Evaluation of performance</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • based on subjective traits, not results • undefined or vague goals • bean counting is a way of life | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • abased on standards, gods, and key results • clear expectations based on consensus • tracking systems include people and product management success indicators |
| <i>Product and service delivery quality</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • inconsistency • high internal and external production costs • focus on dealing with customer complaints instead of preventing them | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • consistent delivery according to expected standards • low internal and external production costs • focus on having the product or service delivered correctly the first time |
| <i>Prestige, social status</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • office size, trappings are important to | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • recognition and status given to the group |

| | | |
|--|---|---|
| <i>Operation costs</i> <i>Leadership</i> <i>Values</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • individuals who you know is stressed • prestige is associated with distance from service operations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • contribution to the company's success more important than competing with others for recognition • peer influence paramount • no one too good to work in the operations with employees |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • internal and external are high • appraisal and prevention are low | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • internal and external are low • appraisal and prevention are high |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • corporate heroes and villains make things happen • individual stars • autocratic • my way or the highway | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • support employees • group receives praise • participation by all staff • we have a problem, how can we solve it? |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • customer is a hassle sometimes the enemy • quality is secondary to efficiency • company success is measured in short-term | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • customer is reason for being • quality is key to financial success • company success is measured long-term |

Appendix 5a Interview questions

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Hotel Middle Managers' Performance Assessment Process and Performance Criteria by Functions

This interview aims to investigate hotel middle managers'* performance assessment, what performance criteria managers have to meet and what factors influence managers to reach high performance at a given functional area. Taking part in the interview is completely voluntary. The interviewee is informed about the aim and process of the interview and gives consent to record and use information for research purposes which is agreed on by signing the *Interviewee's Consent*.
*hotel middle managers by my definition is a manager who is not the director and/or owner but responsible for a function (e.g. housekeeping) and a team

| General Information | | | | |
|---|--|--|---|--|
| Gender: F/M | | | | |
| Date of birth: | | | | |
| Position: | How long have you been working in this position? | How long have you been working in this hotel? | | |
| Information on the hotel(<i>name, this is optional</i>): | region | Is it a chain member? | hotel function | number of rooms |
| Questions regarding performance | | | | |
| Does the hotel have a formal performance assessment system? | If not, what is the reason for that? | If not, do you think the hotel needs a formal performance assessment system? | If not, is informal performance assessment (e.g. occasional verbal praise from MD) present in the hotel? | |
| If the hotel has formal performance assessment system could you please tell the process of assessment? What and how does it measure? (e.g. target-achievement, personality trait-based, behaviour based). | Does the performance assessment system measure managers according to their functional area or is it a general system measuring everyone in the hotel the same way? | What method does the performance assessment system apply (nominal scale, informal talk, written assessment, etc.)? | How often are you assessed (quarterly, half a yearly, yearly)? | Who does the assessment (e.g. computer based and just MD sees or 360°, etc)? |
| Are you satisfied with this system? | | | | |
| How would you define performance assessment with your own words? | What is the aim of performance assessment in your point of view? | What are the influencing factors of a performance assessment system in your opinion? | | |
| What do you think of assessing hotel managers' performance according to their functions? | If you agree to assess managers according to their functions why is it appropriate? | If you do not agree to assess managers according to their functions what way(s) do you think managers' performance should be assessed? | | |
| What criteria must a manager fulfil at your functional area/position? | In your functional area/position what are the performance influencing factors? | | | |
| When would you call a performance excellent? | When would you call a performance good? | When would you call a performance weak/poor? | | |
| In your opinion what does a manager performance depend on? | | | | |
| Did you have application process (either written or oral) to win this manager position? | During the application were there any kinds of personality tests? If you can remember would you name or describe it, please? | During the application were there any kinds of competency test? If you can remember would you name or describe it, please? | To win a manager position like yours do you think one needs to have a personality test when applying for the position? Why/Why not? | |
| Could you please define emotional intelligence with your own words? | Is emotional intelligence important in your position/functional area? | How does emotional intelligence influence performance in your position/functional area? | | |
| Would you like to have any further comments about performance assessment or emotional intelligence? | Would you like to have any comments on the questions, method or structure of the interview? | | | |
| Thank you for your time, honesty and trust. | | | | |

Appendix 5b Interview consent

Interviewee's Consent

Consent to record the interview

I, _____ hereby give permission to record the interview. I understand the interview is part of a PhD research work for educational purposes by Edit Komlósi who uses the information confidentially and without revealing personal data recorded information will be applied in academic and scientific papers and/or conferences.

Date,

signature

Consent for using interview data

I hereby give consent that data recorded during the interview can be applied by Edit Komlósi for research and educational purposes. I understood that the aim of the interview was to investigate hotel middle managers' performance assessment, what performance criteria managers have to meet and what factors influence managers to reach high performance at a given functional area. Edit Komlósi will maintain my anonymity and does not allow third party to listen and use the recorded interview. I understand that I have the right for 4 weeks to withdraw from using my recorded data for educational and research purposes. If I do not send a withdrawing e-mail to the following address (editkomlosi@gmail.com) 4 weeks after the interview (see interview date below) then I give full consent for using data anonymously.

Date

signature

Appendix 6 The OCEQP questionnaire of the thesis in English and Hungarian

QUESTIONNAIRE

HOTEL FUNCTIONAL MANAGERS' PERFORMANCE, EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

The present research is part of an ongoing PhD thesis which focuses on hotel function managers to investigate their emotional work by examining their emotional intelligence in relation to task and contextual performance embedded in hotel culture. The research aims to seek your opinion therefore there are no RIGHT or WRONG answers. The collected data will be used exclusively for research purposes according to the research ethics requirements which means that your and the hotel name will not be revealed in any published documents. The research report will be available, so please indicate at the end of the Questionnaire how you wish to obtain the summary of the results.

The Questionnaire takes **app. 25** minutes to fill in. The online version of the Questionnaire is available at:
<http://kerdoiv.gtk.uni-pannon.hu/OCEQP>

**Thank you for taking your time and effort to
contribute to the success of the research.**

For further information please contact:

editkomlosi@gtk.uni-pannon.hu

**EDIT KOMLÓSI, PhD candidate, University of Derby,
UK**

OCEQP QUESTIONNAIRE

Completion instructions

Dear Hotel Manager,

Thank you for taking interest and I appreciate you sparing time to complete the questionnaire.

When answering the questions please choose only **ONE** option and put **X** in the

For question 5 and 16 please write exact numbers, for question 2 write the name of the hotel chain if applicable. Please mark only **ONE** possible answer for each question.

I. Hotel Information

1. Please indicate the **main function** of the hotel. Choose only **ONE** option.

| | | |
|--|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> wellness hotel | <input type="checkbox"/> sport and recreation hotel | <input type="checkbox"/> airport hotel |
| <input type="checkbox"/> conference hotel | <input type="checkbox"/> city hotel | <input type="checkbox"/> boutique hotel |
| <input type="checkbox"/> conference and wellness hotel | <input type="checkbox"/> health/spa and resort hotel | <input type="checkbox"/> apartment hotel |
| <input type="checkbox"/> other, please indicate: | | |

2. Is the hotel a member of a chain?

| | |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Yes | <input type="checkbox"/> No |
| if Yes, please indicate which one: | |

3. Please indicate where your hotel is located.

| | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> North East England | <input type="checkbox"/> North West England |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Yorkshire and the Humber | <input type="checkbox"/> East Midlands |
| <input type="checkbox"/> West Midlands | <input type="checkbox"/> East of England |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Greater London | <input type="checkbox"/> South East England |
| <input type="checkbox"/> South West England | <input type="checkbox"/> West Wales and The Valleys |
| <input type="checkbox"/> East Wales | <input type="checkbox"/> Eastern Scotland |
| <input type="checkbox"/> South Western Scotland | <input type="checkbox"/> North Eastern Scotland |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Highlands and Islands | <input type="checkbox"/> Northern Ireland |

4. How many rooms does the hotel have?

| | |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 50-150 | <input type="checkbox"/> 151-250 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 251-350 | <input type="checkbox"/> 351 or more |

5. How many employees does the hotel have?

| |
|--|
| |
|--|

6. Please give in % the 2011 year occupancy rate of the hotel according to the full capacity.

| | |
|---------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 0-10% | <input type="checkbox"/> 11-19% |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 20-30% | <input type="checkbox"/> 31-40% |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 41-50% | <input type="checkbox"/> 51-60% |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 61-70% | <input type="checkbox"/> 71-80% |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 81-90% | <input type="checkbox"/> 91-100% |

7. Please indicate the hotel category (if you apply star system).

| | | |
|--|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 3* | <input type="checkbox"/> 4* | <input type="checkbox"/> 5* |
| <input type="checkbox"/> we do not apply star system | | |

8. Is your category approved by AA rating system?

| | |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Yes | <input type="checkbox"/> No |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------|

II. Task and Contextual Performance

Please answer each statement below on a 6-point scale by putting an **X** in the box of the number that **best reflects the extent you feel** about a statement.

There are not right or wrong answers. There are 7 possible responses to each statement ranging from

- 0= 'not at all'
- 1= 'to a very small extent'
- 2= 'to a small extent'
- 3= 'to a moderate extent'
- 4= 'to a fairly great extent'
- 5= 'to a great extent'
- 6= 'to a very great extent'

TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU...?

NOT AT ALL

TO A VERY

| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| lead your functional area effectively, that is producing the intended and/or expected result(s) | | | | | | | |
| lead your functional area efficiently, that is performing with the least waste of time, resources and effort | | | | | | | |
| meet deadlines under any circumstances | | | | | | | |
| pay close attention to important details | | | | | | | |
| perform your functional duties with unusually few errors | | | | | | | |
| present proper appearance and manner required by the hotel | | | | | | | |
| follow standard operating procedures and avoid unauthorised shortcuts | | | | | | | |
| handle guest complaints and promote guest relations | | | | | | | |
| initiate to discuss and find solution to work related dilemma | | | | | | | |
| coordinate your job with other functional managers | | | | | | | |
| support and encourage co-operation among subordinates | | | | | | | |
| give feedback to stakeholders (owner, employees, customers etc.) | | | | | | | |
| help and pay attention to new employees | | | | | | | |
| empower subordinates | | | | | | | |
| encourage employees to have initiatives and realise and implement an idea if it is feasible | | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| exchange ideas and share information with all employees | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| arrive at work and appointments on time | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| exhibit attendance at work beyond the norms, e.g. take less days off than allowed or other functional managers in a hotel | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| help other functional managers and subordinates when their workload increases | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| make innovative suggestions to improve hotel performance | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| take part in trainings, conferences and/or further education to increase your job performance | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| seek for opportunities to apply what has been learnt at trainings, conferences or at further education courses | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| do things not formally required by your job | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| volunteer to be involved in deeds from which the local community and the hotel can both benefit from (e.g. support local events) | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| reply work-related e-mails and phone calls within a day | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| encourage open communication and information sharing without bias | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| ask everyone who is involved in a conflict at your unit before judging or finding a solution | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| aim to solve conflicts and negotiate to find a win-win solution | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| allow employees to approach you with work and/or private related problems | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| allow hotel guest to approach you with problems and/or suggestions | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| inform co-workers about a change in a program or an event in time | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| find important to organise regular staff meeting | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| defend your hotel when other employees criticise it | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| show pride when representing your hotel in public | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| actively promote your hotel's services to potential users | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| talk positively about the hotel with family and friends | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| have a better work and career opportunity in this hotel than other possible workplace | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| subscribe to the hotel mission, vision and have similar values to those of the hotel | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| care about the destiny of the hotel | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| feel not to leave the hotel because of changes in work requirement | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

III. Organisational Culture

You are asked to rate your hotel in the following questions. Each question has four alternatives. Divide 100 points among these four alternatives depending on the extent to which each alternative is similar to your own hotel by giving a higher number of points to the alternative that is most similar to your organization. For example, in question 1, if you think alternative A is very similar to your organization, alternative B and C are somewhat similar, and alternative D is hardly similar at all, you might give 55 points to A, 20 points to B and C, and 5 points to D. Just be sure your **total equals 100** points for each question. You can give a total of 100 to one alternative as well.

First, please fill the left-hand, **NOW** column which describes the present situation in your hotel. Then consider how you would like to see your hotel **in 5 years time** and fill in the right-hand, **PREFERRED** column.

| | | | |
|--|--|------------|------------------|
| 1. Dominant Characteristics | | Now | Preferred |
| <i>Our hotel is a very...</i> | | total 100 | total 100 |
| | ...personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves. | | |
| | ...dynamic entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks. | | |
| | ...results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented. | | |
| | ...controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do. | | |
| 2. Organisational Leadership | | Now | Preferred |
| <i>The leadership in our hotel is generally considered to exemplify...</i> | | total 100 | total 100 |
| | ... mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing. | | |
| | ... entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk taking. | | |
| | ... exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus. | | |
| | ... coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency. | | |
| 3. Management of Employees | | Now | Preferred |
| <i>The management style in the hotel is characterised by...</i> | | total 100 | total 100 |
| | ...teamwork, consensus, and participation. | | |
| | ...individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness. | | |
| | ...hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement. | | |
| | ...security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships. | | |
| 4. Organisation Glue | | Now | Preferred |
| <i>The glue that holds the organisation together is...</i> | | total 100 | total 100 |

| | | | |
|--|---|------------|------------------|
| | ...loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high. | | |
| | ...commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge. | | |
| | ...the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressiveness and winning are common themes. | | |
| | ...formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organisation is important. | | |
| 5. Strategic Emphases | | Now | Preferred |
| <i>The organisation emphasises...</i> | | total 100 | total 100 |
| | ...human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist. | | |
| | ...acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued. | | |
| | ...competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant. | | |
| | ...permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important. | | |
| 6. Criteria of Success | | Now | Preferred |
| <i>The organisation defines success on the basis of...</i> | | total 100 | total 100 |
| | ...the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people. | | |
| | ...having the most unique or latest products. It is a product leader and innovator. | | |
| | ...winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key. | | |
| | ...efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical. | | |

IV. Emotional Intelligence

Please answer each statement below on a 7-point scale by putting an X in the box of the number that best reflects your degree of agreement or disagreement with that statement. Do not think too long about the exact meaning of the statements.

There are not right or wrong answers. There are 7 possible responses to each statement ranging from

1='completely disagree'

2='do not agree'

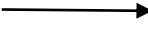
3= 'rather disagree'

4= 'agree to some extent'

5= 'rather agree'

6= 'agree'

7='completely agree'

DISAGREE  AGREE

COMPLETELY COMPLETELY

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I'm usually able to control other people | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Generally, I don't take notice of other people's emotions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| When I receive wonderful news, I find it difficult to calm down quickly | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I tend to see difficulties in every opportunity rather than opportunities in every difficulty | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| On the whole, I have a gloomy perspective on most things | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I don't have a lot of happy memories | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Understanding the needs and desires of others is not a problem for me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I generally believe that things will work out fine in my life | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I often find it difficult to recognise what emotion I'm feeling | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I'm not socially skilled | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I find it difficult to tell others that I love them even when I want to | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Others admire me for being relaxed | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I rarely think about old friends from the past | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Generally, I find it easy to tell others how much they really mean to me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Generally, I must be under pressure to really work hard | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I tend to get involved in things I later wish I could get out of | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I'm able to "read" most people's feelings like an open book | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I'm usually able to influence the way other people feel | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I normally find it difficult to calm angry people down | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I find it difficult to take control of situations at home | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I generally hope for the best | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Others tell me that they admire me for my integrity | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I really don't like listening to my friends' problems | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I'm normally able to "get into someone's shoes" and experience their emotions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I believe I'm full of personal weaknesses | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I find it difficult to give up things I know and like | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I always find ways to express my affection to others when I want to | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I feel that I have a number of good qualities | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I tend to rush into things without much planning | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I find it difficult to speak about my intimate feelings even to my closest friends | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I'm not able to do things as well as most people | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I'm never really sure what I'm feeling | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I'm usually able to express my emotions when I want to | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| When I disagree with someone, I usually find it easy to say so | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I normally find it difficult to keep myself motivated | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I know how to snap out of my negative moods | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| On the whole, I find it difficult to describe my feelings | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I find it difficult not to feel sad when someone tells me about something bad that happened to them | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| When something surprises me, I find it difficult to get it out of my mind | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I often pause and think about my feelings | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I tend to see the glass as half-empty rather than as half-full | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I often find it difficult to see things from another person's viewpoint | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I'm a follower, not a leader | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Those close to me often complain that I don't treat them right | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Many times, I can't figure out what emotion I'm feeling | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I couldn't affect other people's feelings even if I wanted to | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| If I'm jealous of someone, I find it difficult not to behave badly towards them | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I get stressed by situations that others find comfortable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I find it difficult to sympathize with other people's plights | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| In the past, I have taken credit for someone else's input | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| On the whole, I can cope with change effectively | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I don't seem to have any power at all over other people's feelings | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I have many reasons for not giving up easily | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I like putting effort even into things that are not really important | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I always take responsibility when I do something wrong | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I tend to change my mind frequently | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| When I argue with someone, I can only see my point of view | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Things tend to turn out right in the end | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| When I disagree with someone, I generally prefer to remain silent rather than make a scene | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| If I wanted to, it would be easy for me to make someone feel bad | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I would describe myself as a calm person | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I often find it difficult to show my affection to those close to me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| There are many reasons to expect the worst in life | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I usually find it difficult to express myself clearly | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I don't mind frequently changing my daily routine | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Most people are better liked than I am | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Those close to me rarely complain about how I behave toward them | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I usually find it difficult to express my emotions the way I would like to | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Generally, I'm able to adapt to new environments | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I often find it difficult to adjust my life according to the circumstances | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I would describe myself as a good negotiator | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

| | COMPLETELY | | | COMPLETELY | | | |
|--|------------|---|---|------------|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I can deal effectively with people | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| On the whole, I'm a highly motivated person | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I have stolen things as a child | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| On the whole, I'm pleased with my life | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I find it difficult to control myself when I'm extremely happy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Sometimes, it feels like I'm producing a lot of good work effortlessly | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| When I take a decision, I'm always sure it is the right one | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| If I went on a blind date, the other person would be disappointed with my looks | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I normally find it difficult to adjust my behaviour according to the people I'm with | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| On the whole, I'm able to identify myself with others | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I try to regulate pressures in order to control my stress levels | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I don't think I'm a useless person | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I usually find it difficult to regulate my emotions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I can handle most difficulties in my life in a cool and composed manner | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| If I wanted to, it would be easy for me to make someone angry | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| On the whole, I like myself | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I believe I'm full of personal strengths | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I generally don't find life enjoyable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I'm usually able to calm down quickly after I've got mad at someone | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I can remain calm even when I'm extremely happy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Generally, I'm not good at consoling others when they feel bad | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I'm usually able to settle disputes | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I never put pleasure before business | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Imagining myself in someone else's position is not a problem for me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I need a lot of self-control to keep myself out of trouble | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| It is easy for me to find the right words to describe my feelings | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I expect that most of my life will be enjoyable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I am an ordinary person | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I tend to get "carried away" easily | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I usually try to resist negative thoughts and think of positive alternatives | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I don't like planning ahead | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Just by looking at somebody, I can understand what he or she feels | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Life is beautiful | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I normally find it easy to calm down after I have been scared | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I want to be in command of things | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I usually find it difficult to change other people's opinions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I'm generally good at social chit-chat | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Controlling my urges is not a big problem for me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I really don't like my physical appearance | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I tend to speak well and clearly | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| On the whole, I'm not satisfied with how I tackle stress | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Most of the time, I know exactly why I feel the way I do | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

| | COMPLETELY | | | | COMPLETELY | | |
|--|------------|---|---|---|------------|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I find it difficult to calm down after I have been strongly surprised | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| On the whole, I would describe myself as assertive | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| On the whole, I'm not a happy person | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| When someone offends me, I'm usually able to remain calm | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Most of the things I manage to do well seem to require a lot of effort | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I have never lied to spare someone else's feelings | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I find it difficult to bond well even with those close to me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I consider all the advantages and disadvantages before making up my mind | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I don't know how to make others feel better when they need it | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I usually find it difficult to change my attitudes and views | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Others tell me that I rarely speak about how I feel | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| On the whole, I'm satisfied with my close relationships | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I can identify an emotion from the moment it starts to develop in me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| On the whole, I like to put other people's interests above mine | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Most days, I feel great to be alive | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I tend to get a lot of pleasure just from doing something well | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| It is very important to me to get along with all my close friends and family | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I frequently have happy thoughts | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I have many fierce arguments with those close to me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Expressing my emotions with words is not a problem for me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I find it difficult to take pleasure in life | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I'm usually able to influence other people | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| When I'm under pressure, I tend to lose my cool | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I usually find it difficult to change my behaviour | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Others look up to me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Others tell me that I get stressed very easily | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I'm usually able to find ways to control my emotions when I want to | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I believe that I would make a good salesperson | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I lose interest in what I do quite easily | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| On the whole, I'm a creature of habit | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I would normally defend my opinions even if it meant arguing with important people | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I would describe myself as a flexible person | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Generally, I need a lot of incentives in order to do my best | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Even when I'm arguing with someone, I'm usually able to take their perspective | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| On the whole, I'm able to deal with stress | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I try to avoid people who may stress me out | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I often indulge without considering all the consequences | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I tend to "back down" even if I know I'm right | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I find it difficult to take control of situations at work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Some of my responses on this questionnaire are not 100% honest | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

V. General Information

1. What is your gender?

| | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> female | <input type="checkbox"/> male |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|

2. Please indicate which age group you belong to.

| | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 18-25 | <input type="checkbox"/> 26-35 | <input type="checkbox"/> 36-50 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 51-64 | <input type="checkbox"/> 65+ | |

3. Please indicate your highest qualification?

| | | |
|--|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> GCSE | <input type="checkbox"/> BTEC award/certificate of diploma (level 1-4) | <input type="checkbox"/> A/AS qualification |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor degree | <input type="checkbox"/> Master degree | <input type="checkbox"/> PhD |
| <input type="checkbox"/> other, please name: | | |

4. How long have you been working in the hotel industry?

| | |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1-3 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 4-10 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 11-20 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 21 or more years |

5. How long have you been working in this hotel?

| | |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1-3 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 4-6 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 7-10 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 11 or more years |

6. How long have you been working as a functional manager in this hotel?

| | |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1-3 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 4-6 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 7-10 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 11 or more years |

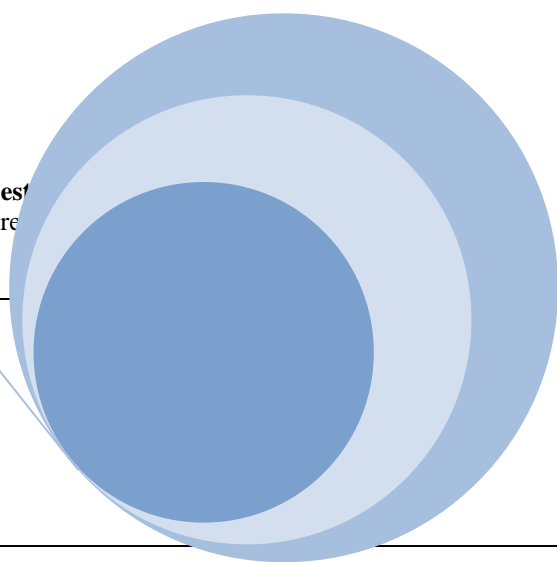
7. Please indicate the functional area/unit you are manager of.

| | | |
|--|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Front Office | <input type="checkbox"/> Housekeeping | <input type="checkbox"/> Food and Beverage |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Kitchen | <input type="checkbox"/> Maintenance | <input type="checkbox"/> Wellness (and spa) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Sales and Marketing | <input type="checkbox"/> Finance | <input type="checkbox"/> other, please indicate... |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Human Resources | <input type="checkbox"/> Guest Relation | |

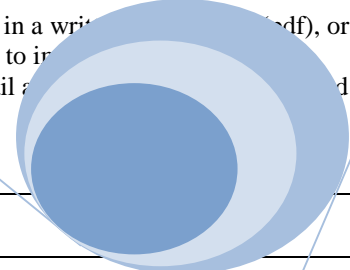
8. How many employees are you responsible for in your unit?

| | | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1-5 | <input type="checkbox"/> 6-10 | <input type="checkbox"/> 11-15 | <input type="checkbox"/> 16 or more |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------------|

I appreciate the time and effort you took to fill in the **Quest** recommendations, please feel free to comment here. All re



I would like to offer the possibility to share the results of the research either in a written report (pdf), or in a presentation. Additionally if your hotel wishes to learn more about how to improve intelligence for effective and efficient performance please supply your e-mail address and I will get in touch with you.



e-mail address:

Please indicate if you wish to receive the report in:

Please indicate if you wish to receive the report in:

pdf. form or a

personally presented

Thanks you very much for your cooperation!

Edit Komlósi, PhD candidate

University of Derby, Kedleston Rd Derby, DE22 1GB, United Kingdom editkomlosi@gtk.uni-pannon.hu

KÉRDŐÍV

OCEQP KÉRDŐÍV

Kitöltési útmutató

Tisztelt Részlegvezető,

Köszönöm, hogy időt szán a kérdőív kitöltésére.

Ha lát, akkor az Ön által megfelelőnek gondolt helyen ezt **X-szel** jelölje. A nyílt kérdéseknél vagy számot kel írni (5. és 16. kérdésnél) vagy a hotel lánc nevét (2. kérdés). Kérem a válaszlehetőségek közül minden kérdésnél csak **EGYET** jelöljön meg.

Tisztelt Részlegvezető!

I. Információk a szállodáról

1. Kérem, jelölje meg **X-szel** a szálloda fő profilját.

A kérdőív kitöltése **kb. 25 percet** vesz igénybe, az online változat a következő linken található:

<http://kerdoiv.gtk.uni-pannon.hu/OCEQP-HU>

Köszönöm, hogy idejével és együttműködésével hozzájárul a kutatás sikerességéhez.

Kérdéseire és észrevételeire szívesen válaszolok a következő elérhetőségek egyikén:

editkomlosi@gtk.uni-pannon.hu / 0036-20-2567242

tanszek

- | | | |
|---|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> wellness szálloda | <input type="checkbox"/> üdülő- és sportszálloda | <input type="checkbox"/> repülőtéri szálloda |
| <input type="checkbox"/> konferencia szálloda | <input type="checkbox"/> városi szálloda | <input type="checkbox"/> boutique szálloda |
| <input type="checkbox"/> konferencia és wellness szálloda | <input type="checkbox"/> gyógy- és wellness szálloda | <input type="checkbox"/> apartman szálloda |
| <input type="checkbox"/> egyéb, éspedig: | | |

2. A szálloda tagja valamelyik szállodaláncnak?

Igen

Nem

Kérem, írja ide melyik szállodalánchoz tartoznak:

3. Kérem, jelölje meg **X-szel**, hogy szállodájuk Magyarország melyik régióban helyezkedik el:

Észak-Magyarország

Közép-Magyarország

Észak-Alföld

Közép-Dunántúl

Dél-Alföld

Nyugat-Dunántúl

4. Hány szobával rendelkezik a szállodájuk? Kérem, jelölje meg **X-szel**.

10-49

151-250

50-150

251-350

több, mint 351

5. Kérem, adja meg a szállodai alkalmazottak teljes létszámát (beleértve a kölcsönzött és a kisegítő munkaerőt is) _____

6. Kérem, jelölje meg **X-szel** a **2011 évi** szállodai kihasználtságot a teljes kapacitáshoz képest.

0-10%

11-20%

21-30%

31-40%

41-50%

51-60%

61-70%

71-80%

81-90%

91-100%

7. Kérem, jelölje meg **X-szel**, milyen besorolással rendelkezik az Önök szállodája.

3*/3* superior

4*/4* superior

5*/5* superior

8. Az Önök szállodájának csillag szerinti minősítése a HOTELSTARS UNION végezte?

igen

nem

II. Egyéni teljesítmény

Kérem, egy 0-6 fokú skálán jelölje be milyen mértékben ért Ön egyet a következő kérdésekkel.
Nincs JÓ vagy ROSSZ válasz.

0= „*semmilyen mértékben*”

1= „*nagyon kis mértékben*”

2= „*kis mértékben*”

3= „*közepes mértékben*”

4= „*számottevő mértékben*”

5= „*nagymértékben*”

6 = „*teljes mértékben*”

Kérem, jelölje meg **X-szel** válaszát.

ÖN MILYEN MÉRTÉKBEN...?

semmilyen mértékben \longrightarrow teljes mértékben

| | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| vezeti eredményesen a részlegét, azaz a kitűzött és/vagy elvárt eredményeket teljesíti | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| vezeti hatékonyan a részlegét, azaz a legkevesebb idő-, erőforrás- és erőfeszítés veszteséggel | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

| | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| tartja be a határidőket minden körülmények között | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| figyel a fontos részletekre | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| végzi el a részterülete feladatait igen kevés hibával | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| teszt eleget a szálloda által előírt/elvárt öltözködési szabályoknak és magatartásformáknak | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| követi az előírt működési szabályzatokat, és kerüli el a nem hivatalos megoldásokat/„kiskapukat” | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| tudja kezelni a vendégpanaszokat és fektet hangsúlyt a vendéggel való kapcsolattartásra | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| kezdeményezi, hogy a munkával kapcsolatos dilemmákat megbeszéljék, és megoldást találjanak | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| működik együtt a többi részlegvezetővel | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| kezdeményezi és támogatja a beosztottak közötti együttműködést | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| ad visszacsatolást a szállodai érintettnek (tulajdonos, alkalmazottak, vendégek stb.) | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| segíti az új alkalmazottakat és figyel rájuk | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| hatalmazza fel beosztottait annak érdekében, hogy minél önállóbban, minél nagyobb felelősséggel járjanak el, minél szélesebb hatáskört élvezve munkájukban | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| bátorítja a beosztottait, hogy új, megvalósítható ötletekkel álljanak elő, amit a szálloda realizál | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| osztja meg az információkat valamint saját ötleteit a munkatársaival | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| érkezik meg időben a munkahelyére és a megbeszélésekre | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| haladja meg a munkakörében elvárt normákat, pl. kevesebb szabadságot veszek ki a megengedettnél vagy a többi részlegvezetőhöz képest | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| segít be a többi részlegvezetőnek és beosztottainak, ha munkaterhelésük növekszik | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| áll elő újító ötletekkel a szálloda teljesítményének növekedése érdekében | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| vesz részt szakmai továbbképzéseken, konferenciákon, egyetemi képzésben annak érdekében, hogy egyéni teljesítménye növekedjen/javuljon | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| keresi a lehetőséget, hogy alkalmazza a továbbképzéseken, konferenciákon, egyetemi képzésben tanultakat | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| végez el olyan feladatokat is, ami nem kötődik a részlegvezetői munkaköréhez | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| vállal önként szerepet olyan feladatban, amely a szállodának és a helyi közösségnek is javára válik (pl. helyi rendezvény támogatása). | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| válaszol az üzleti levelekre/e-mailekre és nem fogadott hívásokra egy napon belül | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| támogatja az előítélet-mentes, nyílt kommunikációt és az információ megosztást | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| kérdez meg minden érintettet, mielőtt ítélné, vagy megoldást találna, amikor a részlegén belül konfliktus helyzet alakul ki | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| törekszik arra, hogy megoldja a problémákat, és hogy mindegyik fél lehetőleg jó érzéssel kerüljön ki a helyzetből | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| engedi, hogy a munkatársai felkeressék munkahelyi és/vagy magánéleti problémáikkal | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| nyitott arra, hogy a szállodavendégek bármikor őszintén fordulhassanak Önhöz problémáikkal és/vagy javaslaikkal | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| tájékoztatja időben munkatársait egy eseményben vagy programban bekövetkező változásról | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| tartja fontosnak, hogy rendszeres megbeszéléseket szervezzen | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| áll ki a szállodáért, amikor munkatársai kritizálják | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

| | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| büszke a szállodára, amikor nyilvánosan képviseli | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| hirdeti tevékenyen a szállodai szolgáltatásokat a potenciális ügyfeleknek és vendégeknek | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| beszél családtagjainak és barátainak pozitívan a szállodáról | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| érzi úgy, hogy ebben a szállodában jobb munka- és karrierlehetősége van, mint más lehetséges munkahelyen | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| azonosul a szálloda küldetésével és jövőképével és vall hasonló értékrendet | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| törődik a szálloda sorsával | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| érzi, hogy nem hagyná ott a szállodát azért, ha változás következne be az Ön munkaköri leírásában | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

III. Szervezeti kultúra

Kérem, a következő részben értékelje a szállodát. A következő 1-6 állítás mindegyikéhez 4 lehetőség tartozik. **Osszon fel 100 pontot az egyes állítások között**, úgy, hogy magasabb pontszámot ad arra az állításra, amely leginkább jellemző az Ön szállodájára.

Például, ha egy kérdésnél az **A** lehetőség jellemzi legjobban, a **B** és a **C** részben és a **D** a legkevésbé az Ön szállodáját, akkor a következőképpen pontozhat: A: 55 pont, B és C: 20-20 pont és D: 5 pont. Természetesen adhat 100 pontot egy lehetőségnek is, ilyenkor a többi lehetőség 0 pontos.

Kérem, először a bal oldali, **JELLENLEGI** oszlopot töltsse ki, amely a szálloda jelenlegi körülményeit jellemzi, majd a jobb oldali, **KÍVÁNT** oszlopot, amely arra irányul, hogy milyennek szeretné látni Ön **5 év múlva** a szállodát.

| 1. Főbb szervezeti jellemzők | | JELLENLEGI összesen 100 pont | KÍVÁNT összesen 100 pont |
|--|--|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <i>Szállodánk...</i> | | | |
| A | ...olyan, mint egy nagy család, az emberek jól ismerik egymást. | | |
| B | ...egy dinamikus vállalkozó szellemű hely, ahol az emberek hajlandóak kockáztatni. | | |
| C | ...eredményorientált, ahol a feladatok elvégzése prioritást élvez, az emberek teljesítményorientáltak és versenyző szelleműek. | | |
| D | ...szabályozott és strukturált, ahol az emberek cselekedeteit formális előírások szabályozzák. | | |
| 2. Szervezeti vezetés | | JELLENLEGI összesen 100 pont | KÍVÁNT összesen 100 pont |
| <i>A szálloda vezetését általában...</i> | | | |
| A | ...az alkalmazottak mentorálásának, támogatásának és gondoskodásának elősegítése jellemzi. | | |
| B | ... a vállalkozó szelleműség, az innováció és kockázatvállalás jellemzi. | | |
| C | ...a mellébeszélés mentes, rámenős és eredményorientált hozzáállás jellemzi. | | |
| D | ...a koordináció, a szervezés és a szabályozott működés jellemzi. | | |
| 3. Vezetési stílus | | JELLENLEGI összesen 100 pont | KÍVÁNT összesen 100 pont |
| <i>A szállodában a vezetési stílust...</i> | | | |
| A | ...a csapatmunka, egyetértésre törekvés és aktív részvétel jellemzi. | | |
| B | ...az egyéni kockázatvállalás, innováció, szabadság és egyediség jellemzi. | | |
| C | ... versenyszellem ösztönzése, a magas elvárások és az eredményorientáció jellemzi. | | |
| D | ... a foglalkoztatás biztonsága, a szabályozottság, a kiszámíthatóság és a kapcsolatok stabilitása jellemzi. | | |

| 4. Szervezeti összetartó erő | | JELENLEGI | KÍVÁNT |
|-------------------------------------|---|-------------------|-------------------|
| A szálloda összetartó erejét... | | összesen 100 pont | összesen 100 pont |
| A | ...a lojalitás, a kölcsönös bizalom, és a szervezet iránti nagyfokú elkötelezettség jelenti. | | |
| B | ... az innováció és a fejlődés iránti elkötelezettség jelenti, ahol a hangsúlyt az élen járásra helyezik. | | |
| C | ... az eredmények és célok elérésének hangsúlyozása jelenti, ahol a támadás és nyereség elve mindenki által elfogadott motiváció. | | |
| D | ... a formális szabályok és irányelvek jelentik, ahol fontos az egyenletesen szabályozott működés fenntartása. | | |
| 5. Stratégiai hangsúlyok | | JELENLEGI | KÍVÁNT |
| A szálloda hangsúlyt fektet... | | összesen 100 pont | összesen 100 pont |
| A | ...a személyes fejlődésre, a nagyfokú bizalomra, a nyitottságra és a folyamatos részvételre. | | |
| B | ...az új erőforrások megszerzésére és új kihívások keresésére, valamint értékeli az új feladatok kipróbálását, és az új lehetőségek felkutatását. | | |
| C | ... versengésre és az eredményre, ahol fontos a kihívó célok megvalósítása és a piacvezető pozíció elérése. | | |
| D | ... az állandóságra és a stabilitásra, ahol fontos a hatékonyság, a kontroll és a gördülékeny működés. | | |
| 6. Sikerkritériumok | | JELENLEGI | KÍVÁNT |
| A szálloda sikerének alapja... | | összesen 100 pont | összesen 100 pont |
| A | ... az emberi erőforrás fejlesztése, a csapatmunka, a munkatársi elkötelezettség és az emberekkel való törődés. . | | |
| B | ... az egyedi és a legújabb szolgáltatások, csomagok megléte és kitalálása, szállodánk a szolgáltatás és az innováció területén vezető szervezet. | | |
| C | ... a piacvezető pozíció elérése és konkurencia megelőzése, valamint alapvető fontosságú a piaci versenyelőny. | | |
| D | ... a hatékonyság, a megbízható teljesítés, a gördülékeny ütemezés és az alacsony költségű szolgáltatásnyújtás. | | |


IV. Érzelmi intelligencia

Kérem, egy 1-7 fokú skálán válaszoljon minden állításra annak tükrében, hogy Ön mennyire ért egyet az egyes állításokkal. Ne gondolkozzon sokat az egyes állítások pontos értelmén, nincs JÓ vagy ROSSZ válasz.

- 1= „Egyáltalán nem értek egyet”
 2= „Nem értek egyet”
 3= „Inkább nem értek egyet”
 4= „Részben egyetértek”
 5= „Inkább egyetértek”
 6= „Egyetértek”
 7= „Teljes egyetértek”

Kérem, jelölje meg **X-szel** választát.

egyáltalán nem 

| | | | | | | | |
|---|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| alában tudok más embereket irányítani. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| ndszerint nem veszem észre mások érzéseit. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| kor csodálatos hírt kapok, nem nyugszom meg gyorsan. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| lamos vagyok inkább nehézséget látni minden lehetőségben, mint lehetőséget minden nehézségben. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| szességében sötétben látom a legtöbb dolgot. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| ics sok boldog emlékem. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| m probléma számomra megérteni mások szükségleteit és vágyait. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| alában hiszek benne, hogy a dolgok jól mennek majd az életemben. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| akran nehezen ismerem fel az érzéseimet. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| ics gyakorlatom a társasági életben. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| hezen tudom elmondani másoknak, hogy szeretem őket. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| sok csodálnak engem a lazáságomért. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| kán gondolok a régi barátaimra. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| ndszerint könnyen el tudom mondani másoknak, hogy valóban mennyit jelentenek nekem. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| alában nyomás alatt kell lennem, hogy igazán keményen dolgozzak. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| lamos vagyok belekeveredni olyan dolgokba, amikből később szeretnék kikerülni. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| y „olvasom” mások érzéseit, mint egy nyitott könyvet. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| alában befolyásolni tudom mások érzéseit. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| ndszerint nehezen tudok dühös embereket megnyugtatni. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| hezen tudom kézben tartani az otthoni helyzeteket. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| alában a legjobbat remélem. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| sok azt mondják, csodálnak engem az összeszedettségemért. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| m nagyon szeretem a barátaim problémáit hallgatni. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| alában könnyen bele tudom képzelni magam mások helyzetébe, és átérzem az érzéseiket. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| t hiszem, tele vagyok személyes gyengeségekkel. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| hezen mondom le azokról a dolgokról, amiket ismerek és szeretek. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gtöbbször megtalálom a módját annak, hogy kifejezzem a vonzalmamat mások felé, amikor ezt akarom. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| y érzem, hogy sok jó tulajdonságom van. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| lamos vagyok túl sok tervezés nélkül belerohanni valamibe. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| hezen tudok a bensőséges érzéseimről beszélni még a legközelebbi barátaimnak is. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| m tudok olyan jól csinálni dolgokat, mint a legtöbb ember. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| nte soha nem vagyok igazán biztos abban, hogy mit érzek. | egyáltalán nem  | | | | | | |
| alában ki tudom fejezni az érzéseimet, amikor szeretném. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| nem értek egyet valakivel, könnyen ki tudom ezt mondani. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| alában nehezen motiválom magamat. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| dom, hogyan kerüljek ki a negatív hangulataimból. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| szességében nehezen tudom leírni az érzéseimet. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| nehéz megállnom, hogy ne legyek szomorú, ha valaki elmeséli, hogy valami rossz történt vele. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| amikor meglep valami, nehezen tudom kiverni a fejemből. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran megállok és átgondolom az érzéseimet. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| világos vagyok arra, hogy a poharat inkább félig üresnek, mint félig telinek lássam. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran nehezen tudom a dolgokat egy másik ember nézőpontjából látni. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakrabban követő vagyok, mint vezető. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| amikor közel állnak hozzám gyakran panaszkodnak, hogy nem jól bánok velük. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran nem tudok rájönni, mit is érzek. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| nem tudnám befolyásolni mások érzéseit, még ha akarnám sem. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran irigy vagyok valakire, nehezen tudom megállni, hogy rosszul ne bánjak velem. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran észreveszek olyan helyzeteket, amelyekben mások kényelmesen érzik magukat. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran nehezen tudok együtt érezni más emberekkel, amikor nehéz helyzetben vannak. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran fordult néhányszor, hogy más munkájáért fogadtam el elismerést. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran általában hatékonyan boldogulok a változásokkal. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran úgy tűnik, egyáltalán nincs hatalmam más emberek érzései felett. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran okom van arra, hogy ne adjam fel egykönnyen. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran kimerítek energiát belefektetni még olyan dolgokba is, amelyek nem olyan fontosak. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran szinte mindig vállalom a felelősséget, ha valamit rosszul csinállok. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran világos vagyok gyakran megváltoztatni a véleményemet. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran kor vitatkozom valakivel, csak a saját nézőpontomat látom. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran dolgok végül általában jóra fordulnak. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran kor nem értek egyet valakivel, általában inkább csendben maradok, minthogy jelenetet rendezzek. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran akarnék, könnyen meg tudnék bántani valakit. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran nyugodt embernek jellemezném magam. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran gyakran nehezen tudom kimutatni a szeretetemet a hozzám közel állók iránt. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran ok oka van annak, hogy a legrosszabbat várjuk az életben. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran általában nehezen tudom világosan kifejezni magam. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran nem bánom, ha gyakran megváltozik a napirendem. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran sokakat jobban kedvelnek, mint engem. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran hozzám közel állók ritkán panaszkodnak arra, hogyan viselkedem velük. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran általában nehezen fejezem ki az érzéseimet úgy, ahogy szeretném. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran rendszerint alkalmazkodni tudok új környezetekhez. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran gyakran nehezen tudom az életemet a körülményekhez igazítani. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran tárgyalópartnernek tartom magam. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran tékonyan tudok bánni az emberekkel. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran szességében erősen motivált ember vagyok. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran erekkoromban loptam dolgokat. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran szességében elégedett vagyok az életemmel. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran nehezen tudom kontrollálni magam, amikor rendkívül boldog vagyok. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran ha úgy tűnik, sok munkát tudok jól elvégezni megerőltetés nélkül. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran kor döntést hozok, mindig biztos vagyok benne, hogy jól döntök. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran úgy mennék randira, hogy előtte nem látott a partnerem, csalódna a kinézetemben. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran rendszerint nehezen igazítom a viselkedésemet a körülöttem lévő emberekhez. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran szességében képes vagyok azonosulni másokkal. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran megpróbálom a rám nehezedő nyomást szabályozni, hogy kontrolláljam a feszültség szintemet. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran nem hiszem, hogy haszontalan ember lennék. | egyáltalán nem → | | | | | | |
| gyakran általában nehezen szabályozom az érzéseimet. | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| gyakran nyugodt és nyugodt módon tudom kezelni a legtöbb nehézséget az életemben. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran könnyen fel tudnék dühíteni valakit, ha ezt szeretném. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran szességében kedvelem önmagamot. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran hiszem, hogy sok jó jellemvonásom van. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyakran rendszerint nem találok élvezetesnek az életet. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

| | | | | | | | |
|--|------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| alában hamar lenyugszom, miután felmérgesített valaki. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| ugodt tudok maradni még akkor is, ha rendkívül boldog vagyok. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| alában nem tudok jól megvizsgálni másokat, ha rosszul érzik magukat. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| alában jól meg tudom oldani a vitás kérdéseket. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| nte soha nem fontosabbak számomra a kedvteléseim, mint a munkám. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| m probléma számomra, hogy beleképzeljem magam más helyzetébe. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| k önuralomra van szükségem ahhoz, hogy elkerüljem a problémás helyzeteket. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| nnyen megtalálom a helyes szavakat az érzéseim leírására. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| lószerűnek tartom, hogy az életem nagy része élvezetes lesz. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| agos ember vagyok. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| lamos vagyok könnyen "elragadtatni magam". | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| alában megpróbálok ellenállni a negatív gondolatoknak, és inkább pozitívan gondolkodni. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| m szeretek előre tervezni. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| nézésre megértem, hogy mit érez valaki. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| élet csodálatos. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| ndszerint könnyen megnyugszom egy ijedtség után. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| íránytásom alatt akarom tartani a dolgokat. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| alában nehezen tudom megváltoztatni más emberek véleményét. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| alában jól tudok társaságban csevegni. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| m jelent nagy problémát számomra, hogy a vágyaimat kontrol alatt tartsam. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| zán nem szeretem a külső megjelenésemet. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| alában jól és tisztán beszélek. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| szességében nem vagyok megelégedve azzal, ahogy a stresszt kezelem. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gtöbbször pontosan tudom, miért érzek úgy, ahogy érzek. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| hezen tudok megnyugodni nagy meglepődés után. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| ndent egybevetve hatékony embernek tartom magam. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| szességében nem vagyok boldog ember. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| valaki megbánt, általában nyugodt maradok. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| egtöbb dolog, amit jól csinálok, nagyon sok erőfeszítést követel. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| nte soha nem hazudtam azért, hogy megkíméljem valakinek az érzéseit. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| hezen kötődöm még a hozzám közel álló emberekhez is. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| nden előnyt és hátrányt megfontolok, mielőtt döntést hozok. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| m tudom, hogyan derítsek jobb kedvre másokat, amikor erre szükségük van. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| alában nehezen változtatom meg a hozzáállásomat és a nézeteimet. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| sok azt mondják, hogy ritkán beszélek az érzéseimről. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| szességében elégedett vagyok a közeli kapcsolataimmal. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| onosítani tudom az érzéseimet a keletkezéstől a kifejlődéséig. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| szességében szeretem mások érdekeit a magamé elé helyezni. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| egtöbb napon nagyon örülök, hogy élek. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| alában nagy örömet okoz, ha valamit jól csinálok. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gyon fontos számomra, hogy jól kijöjjek a közeli barátaimmal és a családommal. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| akran vannak vidám gondolataim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| k heves vitám van a hozzám közel állókkal. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| m esik nehezemre szavakkal kifejezni az érzéseimet. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| hezen tudom élvezni az életet. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| alában tudom befolyásolni az embereket. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| hikor nyomás van rajtam, hajlamos vagyok elveszíteni a higgadtságomat. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| alában nehezen tudom megváltoztatni a viselkedésemet. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| sok felnéznek rám. | egyáltalán nem → | | | | | | |
| sok azt mondják, hogy nagyon könnyen felidegesítem magam. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| alában megtalálom a módját annak, hogy kordában tartsam az érzéseimet, amikor szeretném. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| rintem jó kereskedő lenne belőlem. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| nnyen elveszítem az érdeklődésemet abban, ami nagyon könnyen megy. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| szességében a szokásaim rabja vagyok. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| alában kiállok a véleményem mellett akkor is, ha emiatt fontos emberekkel keveredek vitába. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| galmas embernek tartom magam. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| gtöbbször sok ösztönzésre van szükségem ahhoz, hogy a legjobbat nyújtsam. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| g ha vitázok is valakivel, képes vagyok az ő szemszögéből is nézni a dolgokat. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| alában kezelni tudom a stresszt. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| ekszem kerülni az olyan embereket, akik felidegesítenek. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| akran elcsábulok valamire és nem is törődöm a következményekkel. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| lamos vagyok "meghátrálni" még az igazam tudatában is. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| hezen tudom kontrollálni a munkahelyi helyzeteket. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| térdőívben néhány válaszom nem 100%-osan őszinte | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

V. Általános információk

Kérem, válaszait jelölje **X**-szel.

1. Kérem, adja meg a nemét.

nő férfi

2. Kérem, jelölje be, melyik korcsoportba tartozik.

18-25 26-35 36-50
 51-64 65+

3. Kérem, jelölje meg a legmagasabb iskolai végzettségét.

érettségi oklevél felsőfokú szakképesítés (OKJ) főiskola/egyetemi alapidiploma
 főiskolai/egyetemi mesterdiploma PhD egyéb, éspedig....

4. Hány éve dolgozik a szállodaiiparban összesen?

1-3 éve 4-10 éve
 11-20 éve 21 +

5. Hány éve dolgozik ebben a szállodában?

1-3 éve 4-6 éve
 7-10 éve 11 +

6. Hány éve dolgozik részlegvezetőként ebben a szállodában?

1-3 éve 4-6 éve
 7-10 éve 11+

7. Kérem, jelölje meg, melyik szállodai részleg vezetője Ön.

Front Office Housekeeping F&B

- | | | |
|--|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Konyha | <input type="checkbox"/> Karbantartás | <input type="checkbox"/> Wellness (és gyógy) részleg |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Sales and Marketing | <input type="checkbox"/> Pénzügyi/gazdasági | <input type="checkbox"/> egyéb, éspedig... |
| <input type="checkbox"/> HR | <input type="checkbox"/> Guest Relation | |

8. Hány beosztottja van a részlegén?

- 1-5
- 6-10
- 11-15
- 16 +

Megtisztelt, hogy időt és energiát szánt a kérdőív kitöltésére. Szívesen veszem a kérdőívvel és a témával kapcsolatos észrevételeit, kérdéseit és megjegyzéseit.

Szeretném felajánlani a lehetőséget, hogy a kutatás eredményit megosszam Önnel írott anyag formájában (pdf. formátumban) vagy személyesen. Továbbá, amennyiben Ön és szállodája igényli, hogy többet tudjon meg a kutatásról, illetve, hogy az érzelmi intelligencia hogyan fejleszthető a hatékonyabb és eredményesebb munkateljesítmény érdekében, kérem, adja meg a következő elérhetőségeket, hogy kapcsolatba léphessek Önnel. Adatait bizalmasan kezelem.

Az Ön e-mail címe:

Kérem, jelezze, milyen formában szeretne a kutatás eredményéről értesülni.

- pdf. forma
- személyes megbeszélés
- köszönöm, nem kérem

Együttműködését köszönöm!

Komlósi Edit
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**Appendix 7 Letter of support from Professor Petrides and Hungarian translation of TEIQue
facets**

**Trait Emotional Intelligence Model (TEIQue) Factors and Indicators Explained
in Hungarian**

**Személyiség Alapú Érzelmi Intelligencia Modell
(TEIQue)**



Az érzelmi intelligencia fogalma több mint 15 éve él a nemzetközi köztudatban. Szerepe egyre fontosabb helyet tölt be ma már a magyarországi gazdasági és társadalmi életben is. Egyre több kiválasztási folyamatban illetve vállaltvezetésben bizonyosodott be, hogy az emberi személyiségjegyek markánsan befolyásolják az együttműködés eredményességét és a vállalat teljesítményét.

Személyiség Alapú Érzelmi Intelligencia kutatások több mint 10 éve kezdődtek és nemzetköz kutatások eredményeképp született meg egy validált, szigorú standardoknak megfelelő pszichometriai teszt, a Személyiség Alapú Érzelmi Intelligencia (Trait Emotional Intelligence, TEIQue), amelynek kidolgozója Dr. K.V. Petrides.

A Személyiség Alapú Érzelmi Intelligencia Modell (angol rövidítés TEIQue) sikeresen ötvözi és kibővíti az érzelmi intelligenciával kapcsolatos gondolatokat egy rendszerbe gyűjtve 5 területet és a hozzájuk tartozó 15 alkotóelemet, amelyet a lenti ábra részletesen ismertet.

A TEIQue a fent említett tulajdonságokat 15 alskálán méri. Továbbá, egy szélesebb négy együtthatós alkalmazhatóságú skálán pontoz (úgy mint 'jól- lét', 'önuralom', 'érzelmesség' és 'társas hajlam') valamint a kiegészítő tényezőket is figyelembe véve határozza meg az egyén érzelmi intelligencia szintjét. A következőkben részletes leírást olvashat arról, mit is jelent valójában az érzelmi intelligencia 15 alkotóelemének magas és alacsony értéke.

Amennyiben felkeltettük érdeklődését és szívesen megtudna többet a Személyiség Alapú Érzelmi Intelligencia tesztről (TEIQue) és annak alkalmazásáról, kérem, vegye fel velünk a kapcsolatot.

TEIQue, személyiségvonás alapú érzelmi intelligencia modell magyar adaptációka (K.V. Petrides modellje alapján)

| A TEIQue (Személyiség Alapú Érzelmi Intelligencia) értéktartományai: | Ilyennek látja önmagát | |
|--|---|---|
| | aki magas pontszámot ér el: | aki alacsony pontszámot ér el: |
| JÓL-LÉT | | |
| <i>Optimizmus</i> | Magabiztos és az élet jó oldalát látja, azt várja, hogy az életben pozitív dolgok történnek. Csakúgy, mint a boldogság skála itt is a jövőbe tekintő szemlélet mutatkozik meg. | Pesszimista és mindent negatív nézőpontból szemlél. Valószínűleg nem ismeri fel az új lehetőségeket és kerüli a kockázatokat. A boldogság és önbecsülés skálákkal együtt ez a skála a kitöltő jelenlegi általános pszichológiai állapotát tükrözi. |
| <i>Boldogság</i> | Vidám és elégedett az életével, jó kedélyű és jól érzi magát, jóban van önmagával. | Gyakran szomorú és túlságosan negatív mindennel kapcsolatban. Hajlamos rá, hogy csalódott legyen jelenlegi életével. Az önbecsülés és az optimizmus skálákkal együtt ez a skála a kitöltő jelenlegi általános pszichológiai állapotát tükrözi. |
| <i>Önbecsülés</i> | Sikerés és magabiztos, pozitív önértékelés jellemzi és a legtöbb dologgal az életében elégedett. | Többnyire nem becsüli, és nem értékeli önmagát eléggé. Az alacsony önbecsülés pontszámok gyakran a kérdőív más skálái által érintett területek tényezőiből származnak. |
| TÁRSAS HAJLAM | | |
| <i>(mások) érzéseinek kezelése</i> | Képes hatni más emberek érzéseire (pl. megnyugtató, motiválni valakit). Tudja, mit kell tenni, hogy a másik jobban érezze magát, amikor szükséges. | Nincs hatással mások érzéseire és kezelni sem tudja azokat. Túlterheli, ha meg kell küzdenie mások érzelmi kitérésével, és valószínűleg nem élvezzi a társaságot és a kapcsolatépítést. |
| <i>Asszertivitás</i> | Egyenes, őszinte, és hajlandó kiállni a jogaiért és meggyőződéséért; tudja, hogyan kérjen dolgokat, nem fukarkodik elismerésekben (kap és ad is), és ha kell, szembeszáll másokkal. | Valószínűleg akkor is meghátrál, amikor tudja, hogy igaza van. Akkor is nehezen mond nemet, amikor úgy érzi, hogy azt kellene tennie. Ezek eredményeképpen gyakran olyan dolgokat is megtesz, amiket nem is akar. Legtöbbször jobban szeret egy csapat tagjaként működni, semmint hogy vezesse azt. |
| <i>Társas tudatosság</i> | Kiváló társas készségekkel, szociális érzékenységgel, alkalmazkodó készséggel és jó | Korlátozott társas készségekkel rendelkezik, gyakran aggodalmaskodik számára |

| | | |
|---|--|--|
| | <p>ítélőképességgel rendelkezik. Általában jó a tárgyalásokban, az ügyintézésben, és hatással van másokra.</p> <p>Hajlamos arra, hogy kontrollálja az érzéseit és érzelmkifejezése módját, ami lehetővé teszi, hogy magabiztos legyen különböző társadalmi helyzetekben, pl. partikon vagy kapcsolatépítési események során.</p> | <p>ismeretlen helyzetekben, mert bizonytalan, hogy ilyenkor miként kell viselkedni. Nehézséget okoz számára, hogy világosan fejezze ki magát és szűk körű ismeretséggel rendelkezik.</p> |
| ÉRZELMESSÉG | | |
| <i>Empátiás készség</i> | <p>Valószínűleg gyakorlott „beszélgető”- illetve tárgyaló-partner, mert képes számításba venni azok szempontjait, akikkel éppen beszél. Képes önmagát más helyébe „képzelt”, és belátni, milyenek is látszódnának „onnan” a dolgok.</p> | <p>Nehézséget okoz számára, hogy mások szempontjait megértse, elfogadja.</p> |
| <i>(önmaga és mások) érzéseinek észlelése</i> | <p>Tisztában van a saját érzéseivel és megérti mások érzelmi üzeneteit.</p> | <p>Gyakran nincs tisztában azzal, hogy ő maga mit is érez, illetve nem figyel oda azokra az érzelmi jelzésekre, amiket mások küldenek.</p> |
| <i>Érzések kifejezése</i> | <p>Képes saját érzéseit másokkal megosztani. Megtalálja a legjobb szavakat, amelyekkel pontosan és egyértelműen tudja kifejezni érzéseit.</p> | <p>Nehézségekkel küzd érzelmei kifejezésében, olyan helyzetekben is, amelyek ezt egyébként szükségessé tennék. Általában nehéznek találja, hogy érzéseit tudassa másokkal. Az érzelmek kifejezésére való képtelenség jelezheti az önbizalom és az önérvényesítési képesség hiányát is.</p> |
| <i>Kapcsolatok</i> | <p>Sikeres kapcsolatokat ápol, melyek hozzájárulnak teljesítményéhez és érzelmi jólétéhez. Meghallgatja a másikat és megfelelően reagál az elhangzottakra.</p> | <p>Nehezen kötődik másokhoz és hajlamos alulértékelni személyes kapcsolatait. Gyakran viselkedik úgy, hogy az megbántja a hozzá közel állókat.</p> |
| | | |

| ÖNURALOM | | |
|---------------------------------|--|--|
| <i>Érzések szabályozása</i> | Képes kontrollálni érzéseit és megváltoztatni rossz, vagy meghosszabbítani kellemes hangulatát, azzal, hogy van rálátása és hatása önmagára. Pszichésen stabil és össze tudja szedni magát egy érzelmi csalódást követően. | Saját érzelmei hullámzásainak hatása alatt áll, ismétlődően szorong és depresszióssá is válhat. Nehézséget okoz számára saját érzelmeinek kezelése, gyakran kedvetlen és ingerlékeny. |
| <i>(alacsony)lobbanékonyság</i> | Megfontolt és jól átgondolja a dolgokat, mielőtt cselekedne. Még mások nyomására sem valószínű, hogy beadja a derekát, Igyekszik minden információt megfontolni, anélkül, hogy túl óvatossá válna | Indulatos és hagyja, hogy az ösztönei vezessék. Legtöbbször, mint egy gyerek, szeretné azonnal kielégíteni az igényeit és alacsony önkontrollal rendelkezik. Gyakran előbb szól, mint hogy átgondolná a dolgokat, és gyakran változtatja a véleményét. |
| <i>Stressz kezelése</i> | Bírja (kiállja) a nyomást, nyugodtan és hatékonyan képes kezelni a stresszt, mert sikeresen kifejlesztett technikát alkalmaz. Legtöbbször úrrá tud lenni érzésein, amely segít leküzdeni a stresszt. | Összességében inkább elkerüli a kiélezett, nem egyértelmű helyzeteket, mintsem hogy kezelje a feszültségeket. Nem alakítja ki a stresszel való megküzdés stratégiáit. Stressznek való kiszolgáltatottsága problematikus lehet, mert oda vezethet, hogy elutasít fontos, de időigényes projekteken való részvételt. |
| KIEGÉSZÍTŐ TÉNYEZŐK | | |
| <i>Alkalmazkodóképesség</i> | Rugalmasan közelíti meg az élettel és munkával kapcsolatos dolgokat és kész alkalmazkodni új környezethez és helyzetekhez, sőt élvezi az újdonságot és a rendszeres változást. | Ellenáll a változásnak és nehézséget okoz számára, hogy változtasson munka - vagy életstílusán. Általában rugalmatlan és merev gondolkodás illetve szemlélet jellemzi. |
| <i>Belső motiváció</i> | Belső hajtóerő vezérli, és akkor sem adja fel, ha nehézségekkel kell szembenéznie. Motivált arra, hogy magas minőségű munkát végezzen. Többnyire határozott és kitartó, nem igényli a külső jutalmazást az erőfeszítéseieért, mert erős teljesítmény iránti érzéke belső motivációból fakad. | Sok ösztönzésre és bátorításra van szüksége, hogy elvégezze a feladatát. Folyamatos jutalmazást (megerősítést) igényel, mert nehézségek esetén hajlamos feladni és elveszíteni motivációját és kitartását. |

Appendix 8

Hungarian and British case studies

Case studies: *Hungarian cases*

I. Case study

The first interview took place at a 4-star resort, conference and wellness chain hotel with 309 rooms in Budapest with a female room division (previously general) manager on 15 July 2011. The interview took 33 minutes.

The hotel is a new business (3 years old) therefore the whole management is in the initial stage of development. The hotel does not have a formal performance assessment system. The present owner and general manager leadership style is described as autocratic who believes that money is the key motivator. According to the interviewee this style was needed at the beginning to start operation however, unfortunately most functional managers still rather rely on their experiences than an objective system when it comes to performance assessment. In every second week the management has a meeting where they focus rather on the small projects and other operational process and mistakes. Time and cohesive team work are needed to complete small projects because as if one does not finish the task within a project it can influence the others' and the whole team's performance. In the interviewee's point of view the hotel should be an employee-focused workplace as "*there is no such a place when the guests are satisfied and the employees hate to come to work*". Although a developed performance assessment system is needed, the interviewee is convinced that no system is perfect. Thus if PAS has an aim it gives target activities to employees that can be measured. Employees' morality, flexibility, adaptation to different situations and resilience can give the framework to such performance assessment system. The room division manager defines performance as goal-assigned effectiveness which aim is to allow people to do good work in their own way. Functional managers have a vital responsibility to operate a good performance assessment system by setting and communicating organisational and individual goals clearly and paying attention to regular feedback. When it comes to assessment there are job specific tasks that can be measured according to the function and there are specific items that should be measured individually. According to the interviewee each hotel has its organisation culture and policy, therefore job descriptions and performance assessment system would differ in each place. Her position for instance is very special as she reports and mediates between the top managers and she has not a specific job description. Organisational performance depends on employees' and guests' satisfaction which results in financial turnover. Excellent, good and poor performance of hotel and individuals can only be defined by the management. Excellent performance is when both individual and organisational annual target aims are maximally realised and poor if both are unsatisfied with the results. For selection purposes the hotel does not use tests (neither skill nor psychometrics), candidates are called in for an interview where management discuss the results. The interviewee defined emotional intelligence as "*sensing non-measurable things*" which she believes to affect individual performance immensely and is a vital competence in hospitality. However she would consult an expert to help and include other (ability, skill) tests for selection purposes.

II. Case study

The second interview took place on 18 July 2011 at a 4-star conference and wellness chain hotel that is with 208 rooms in Balatonalmádi (by the Lake Balaton) with a front office manager who won the best young hospitality

manager award by the Hungarian Hotel and Restaurant Association in 2011. The interview took 68 minutes (once it was interrupted).

The hotel was opened in 2005 and since then the management is said to have no time to develop a performance assessment system. Although the hotel is a member of international chain from which there are suggestions and framework how to implement a performance assessment system, but as it is not a requirement this hotel does not apply a PAS. According to the interviewee it is very difficult to measure individual performance objectively with numbers, as it varies by functions. While sale and finance managers' performance can be measured according to the turnover and income, a front office manager deals mainly with guest already booked or paid through finance. Therefore it cannot be clearly stated and separated who contributed with how much to the business. The interviewee explained that *"as a front office manager I can motivate my staff to pay attention to and attract walk-in guest, but it is not supported by the management and it is not in the hotel policy"*. Performance depends on a manager's inner motivation, extra effort, however in this hotel neither the staff nor the managers are praised if they do extra. The hotel has a guest satisfaction questionnaire that is sent to the guest after their stay, but it is long (takes 20 minutes to fill in) and only in English. Although the hotel receives the annual guest satisfaction results from the mother company, it is not broken down to individual members of the chain, consequently this feedback is not useful. The hotel has a Human Resources Manager, yet the role is rather about payrolls and not about personnel. In the job descriptions there are specific requirements and standards that can be measured: such as check-in should take less than 3 minutes, or leaving guest's room should be clean in no more than 20 minutes. These are task requirements which have to be completed. Performance is defined as a relative concept measuring an individual task and specific required work. Formal performance assessment system is needed along with informal and regular positive feedback from functional managers to staff. A performance assessment system need to have elements that are the same for everyone, such as behavioural items, but there are job specific performance that should be measured according to the function and task. A mutual aim, such as applying for an award, certificate (e.g ISO) might help to work for a collective target. Personally the interviewee is not satisfied with their informal performance rating that actually looks at the hotel RevPar and room occupancy or annual income and treats individuals according to the general organisational results. According to her it does not motivate employees, therefore if someone does not have an inner motivation he/she leaves the hotel. It results in high staff turnover. The aim of a formal performance assessment system is to give a framework and order but it must be combined with regular individual feedback. *"The lack of performance assessment leads to loss of inner motivation on the long term. Even employees with high inner motivation long to have external feedback and praise"*. A good performance assessment system would include both objective measurement such as a Likert scale, and informal feedback discussion part. As stated by the interviewee the excellent performance on a 10 point Likert scale would be 10, good performance is 8-9 and poor performance is under 6. A 360 degree assessment is identified as an effective method where an employee is assessed by peer, managers and perhaps owner or other functional manager and/or guests. Managers should be also assessed on the bases of the effectiveness of their team performance which would include hard and soft elements. Hard could include completing a task by deadline, reducing repetitive mistakes and improve customer satisfaction, and the soft factors would include stress-control, remaining kind to guest despite of personal life difficulties, willingness to learn from the mistakes and improve and educate oneself. A performance assessment system should motivate employees who feel useful part of the organisation and believes

to contribute to the organisational vision. According to her the managers' performance depend mainly on external circumstances (e.g. owner, time, family) but colleagues and a good team as well as inner values and attitudes can help to overcome external negative influence. Education and training can help to learn and strengthen methods to cope with the turbulent business environment. The interviewee states that to fulfil a front-office functional manager position beside education and experience personality traits such as empathy, sociability, self-confidence and competencies such as stress and conflict management, communication skills, cooperative leadership style and long-term thinking are the key factors. She adds that novice graduates are more likely to find a job and make a career in hospitality based on their right traits and competencies no matter if they lack experience at the beginning. Even though during her selection process the interviewee did not have any test only an informal interview and CV, she would find it useful to apply valid competence test (either learn to use or invite an expert) especially if there are many applicants to select from. The term emotional intelligence is defined by the front-office manager as *"personality traits that are difficult to measure such as empathy, social awareness, own and other's feelings"*. She added that emotional intelligence can influence performance positively, however too high emotional intelligence might be a disadvantage in some position or circumstances.

III. Case study

The third interview took place at a 4-star conference and wellness independent hotel with 38 rooms in Veszprém with the male marketing and sales manager on 21 July 2011. The interview took 29 minutes. This hotel was not a member of the Hungarian Hotel and Restaurant Association at the time of the interview but was preparing its membership.

The hotel operates more than 20 years. However the owner is present and plays active part on a daily bases the general manager with the marketing and sales manager run the business. The hotel does not have a formal performance assessment system and according to the marketing and sales manager's opinion they do not need one. He supports this idea with the following reason: the hotel is too small to operate a performance assessment system as the management is in control, therefore they can get an overall and better picture of performance than from a result of a Likert scale rating. He would only introduce a formal performance assessment system if the owner does not play an active daily part in the hotel's life or if the hotel had more than 100 rooms. In his opinion daily informal performance evaluation is much more effective than a half-a year or annual one, consequently he is satisfied with not having a formal performance assessment system. The marketing and sales manager defines the notion of performance as a phenomenon measured by the staff turnover, annual income and the success of projects (e.g. the new wellness part was built due to a successful tender the hotel won) as well as attracting new business partners and returning guest. Functional managers' performance results in organisational performance, but each function should be measured according to their specific task requirements. The aim of the performance assessment system is to satisfy the owner's vision. Therefore employees *"have to strive for high performance by reducing the number of mistakes and weaknesses"*. Individual performance depends only on the person itself. Feedback and control from management and the owner is vital. According to the interviewee a well developed performance assessment system is on the one hand task- and job-description based and at the same time competence based. Furthermore it would take trends and seasons into consideration and use weighted evaluation (e.g. in summer occupancy rate is high in winter it is lower). Collective employees' performance might be effective to measure as managers'

performance is influenced by the performance of the team and the employees they work with. He gives the wellness part construction project as an example: *“I can win a project and invest the money but if the receptionist is not kind to a customer or if the food is awful there is no return on investment, so the whole investment is not a success and the collective performance is poor”*. According to the interviewee to fulfil a managerial position besides meeting the job-description criteria one must have *“excellent communication skills, social capital, have to be flexible and adaptive”*. Furthermore in a managerial position decision making and taking the responsibility for decisions and deeds are vital. The interviewee defines excellent performance as an extraordinary achievement; good performance is a continuous quality work when mistakes are corrected; and poor performance depends on the lengths someone work for the hotel, the shorter the tenure the less the management are willing to tolerate repetitive mistakes. The interviewee won this position based on an informal interview and CV, also the owner already knew some of his previous achievements. Nevertheless the marketing and sales manager regards personality tests essential. He says as *“guests allow us in their lives and mouths”* it is important to see if one has high self-control, good at assertive communication, conflict management and able to decide alone. Emotional intelligence is defined as a competence that *“enables one to deal with people, handle situations and resolve conflicts with colleagues and guests”*. He indicates that emotional intelligence can be a manipulation tool that influence objective decision making and hence leaders rather put employees’ interest forward instead of the organisational one. However the interviewee admits that it would be important to learn more about emotional intelligence and its relation to performance.

Case studies: *British cases*

IV. Case study

The fourth interview took place at a 4-star corporate city chain hotel with 233 rooms in Derby with the male general manager on 19 October 2011. The interview took 25 minutes.

Out of the six cases this is the only hotel that applies a central formal performance assessment system by all chain members. It operates in the following way. Each new employee receives an individual performance checklist of his/her area and there is a 30-day and 90-day performance appraisal whether they are suitable to work in the hotel. Then when they are applied there is a continuous appraisal for 6 months. Applied full-time and regular part-time employees go through a performance assessment and feedback in every half a year. Management often does informal job chats (e.g. communication between manager and employees) and do an employee survey annually. Based on the previous year the ‘grey areas’ are detected and an in-house training is adjusted to the problematic area. At the time of the interview communication training and job chats between line-managers and staff took place to improve performance. The concept of the functional managers’ performance assessment is the same and the hotel also does a one-on-one performance assessment. There is a daily checklist based on the job-descriptions and the tasks. According to the interviewee the hotel managers are also provided general and tailored training on the web (webinars) which are popular, time-saving and useful. These trainings develop both standardised skill and behavioural tasks for line-managers (e.g. how to give appraisal). Although in the interviewee’s opinion it can become very formative and impersonal, he is satisfied with the existing performance assessment system. The general manager defines performance as *“the outcome of employees’ day-to day work”* and the two principles of individual performance assessment are communication and personality. The influencing factors of employees’ performance are *“morale, good management and manager who helps and show example with his/her attitude and*

behaviour". There are general and function specific items managers should be assessed on. Functional managers' performance on the one hand should be measured based on general requirements such as communication, task and job required skill and on the other hand morale and attitude. The latter are difficult to train according to the interviewee. The aim of the performance assessment system is to measure annually how an individual's realistic target performance that was put together with HR and line-manager is achieved. The document of the performance assessment systems have not been provided to use for the case study for confidentiality reasons. The interviewee defines excellent performance in the following way: *"even if the skills are not exceptionally good but attitude and moral are excellent I would assess employees' work as excellent"*. Poor performance is when job requirement is not meet by an employee and moral and attitude are low. At the selection process the general manager and the HR manager pay high attention to future employee's attitude and behaviour: *"when we hire somebody we do not necessary look for the best skills but we hire on the best personality"*. When they do interviews the first question to ask from themselves: *'Is this person exceptional?'*. The hotel management is convinced that hiring someone with the right attitude, personality and motivation leads to high performance. If they lack job related skills they have an open chat which area the employee might fit in and the management can help them in that. The majority of employees (including managers) leave the hotel because of low payment, and also for better choice in other hotel (horizontal career). According to the interviewee this phenomenon in some way is a natural process as hotels have flat organisational structures and people wish to try themselves out. Nevertheless the hotel tries to keep its employees as much as it can. In the last three years the hotel came on the top third chain in the UK based on employees' satisfaction. As a manager the interviewee motivates the staff *"but at the end of the day they (the employees) will decide how to improve themselves"*. Functional and general managers' performance depends on the feedback from the stakeholders and on their personal lives. To the general manager's point of view to become a manager one need to experience the different hotel functional areas and be excellent in soft, people-relationship skills. The interviewee was selected for this position based on his skill and the fact that the management new him. However there was a formal job interview and a psychometric test of which results the interviewee has not been informed about. The general manager was not familiar with the emotional intelligence term and could not define it with a sentence. After explaining the notion he immediately realised that this was what he really talked about during the interview, the soft emotional competences (e.g. morale, attitude). Personally he would apply a valid emotional intelligence test. As he explained there are certain personality traits that are hard to train therefore it would be good to know during the selection process which competencies a candidate has and lacks to avoid poor performance. The general manager expressed his intention to learn more about emotional intelligence and is looking forward to the outcome of this research.

V. Case study

The fifth interview took place at a 4-star corporate and conference chain hotel that includes two buildings next to each other in Derby. Altogether they have 190 rooms (102 in one and 88 in the other hotel). The interview was carried out on 18 January 2012 with the male general manager who is responsible for the two hotels. The interview lasted 43 minutes.

The hotel (and as far as the interviewee knows the chain) does not have a formal performance appraisal system. However there is an informal system where new employees after 3 months, full-time and regular part-time employees annually sit down with the operation manager and/or general manager to discuss performance. The

general manager assesses the senior management team performance verbally while the operational manager does it for the functions. Each functional manager has a formal and informal target that is included in the job descriptions on printed paper. It is a very flat organisation structure so the general manager reports directly to the owner based on the feedback from the operational managers. Also there is daily informal feedback based on a general manager observation that he reports to the functional manager and asks to talk it over with the employee who commits a mistake. The interviewee admits that in reality there is no reciprocity; although he has been working in this hotel for 18 months he has not yet received any feedback from the owner or the top management. What general managers of all chain member hotels have is a meeting in every third months where they discuss what have happened in the previous period focusing on financial awareness and guest satisfaction. There is an interesting performance indicator that the interviewee mentions: they follow guests' routes in the hotels. These data based on staff informal observations of guests' journey in the hotel that is written in 'diaries'. They are compiled, analysed and discussed during the general managers' meetings. Although the interviewee is satisfied with this informal assessment system he admits that performance assessment should also have a formal part both centrally and within each chain hotel. The interviewee states that performance assessment is "*assuring the teams to do what they have to do: whether employee follows the job description and outperform where it is possible*". The aim of the performance assessment is to be ascertain if the mission of the hotel chain, 'The best covered, the best service and the best guest care', is realised through providing excellent quality service for guests. In hospitality like in other sectors to compete for returning guest and attracting new ones is essential, therefore high standards and excellent service are key to win. To the interviewee's mind measuring managers' performance assessment according to their different tasks is adequate however there are general soft competencies which can be measured in the same way. Managers with long tenure in hospitality can train newly appointed managers, thus an in-house mentor program can be applied. Excellent performance is when employees keep high standards and attitude, provide outstanding customer service, and customise the service especially for regular corporate guests even in turbulent times. That would be 9 and 10 on a 10 point Likert scale. The general manager defines good performance when targeted financial budget is met and the majority of customers' feedback from Tripadvisor, Laterooms and Booking is good. Measuring on a 10-point Likert scale that would be between 5-8. Poor performance is when revenue drops 10% or more and guests complaints on poor service rise, which would be under 5 on the scale. To fulfil a managerial position one must do continuous research and development in how to improve the quality of the service; need to be open to learn from colleagues in order to lead employees effectively and have a various experience and/or financial background. The interviewee was offered this position by the previous general manager based on his vast experiences having worked his way up on the career ladder by starting as a waiter at the age of 16. To gain a managerial position one needs to have the ability and experience to know how a hotel is run: HR, finance, law etc. An excellent functional manager is motivating and managing the team, extravert, honest, straight with staff and guest but in an assertive way. Emotional intelligence is determined as a competence "*to be aware of your emotion, how you react to other people and situation or person that annoys you*". If people are treated in a nice way then they are motivated and working together becomes easier. For selection purposes the general manager would use a valid emotional intelligence tool depending on the position and provided that the candidate meets skill requirements.

VI. Case study

The sixth interview took place at a 4-star corporate and conference individual hotel in Derby that with 3 other small Derbyshire hotels are under the same ownership. Altogether they have 139 rooms: 38 room at the place of the interview, plus 42+29+30 rooms in the other 3 hotels. The 32-minute interview was carried out on 19 January 2012 with the human resources manager who is responsible for all the 4 hotels. All information enquired during the interview and written down in the case study applies for all 4 hotels.

The human resource manager came into the hotel business from a multinational production company starting his HR career in this hotel group when changes started with the new owner. Although four years have passed the hotels are still under the process of change and development which is the reason for not having a formal performance assessment system. Nevertheless the HR manager in 2011 started to develop a performance review system which was under assessment by the management at the time of the interview and that was said to be introduced in the near future. This system would be used first with managers based on the core functional and managerial competencies. It is planned to be objective using quantifiable elements on 5 point Likert-scale (e.g. department revenue plan) and assessment would take place in every half a year. There are set of criteria according to which the functional managers first measure themselves and then the management measure each functional manager. Finally the management and each manager come together to discuss and make a consensus. It would be a 180 degree assessment rather than a 360 degree one. Latter the performance review system would be introduced and applied for each employee. The human resource manager defines performance assessment system as a *“continually involving process towards as what not expected. It is about how people develop or willing to develop their strengths and then how the organisation develops. It measures someone against a set of criteria”*. Measuring managers by function is important to dissolve ambiguities *“as there are different SMART objectives”*. On the other hand managers have to work for the mutual organisational aim and ought to target feasible financial budget for their functional area as *“to a certain extend departments depend on each other”*. The aim of a performance assessment system would be to observe how realistic the targets and roles are taking circumstances and structures into account. It is important that people are involved in the process of developing the system and when applied be honest to themselves, and how their performance is perceived and received by people: *“people need to respond to feedback and give feedback objectively”*. The following criteria are essential to fulfil a human manager position: know about labour law, recruitment and selection methods and processes, be able to develop job-descriptions, develop and organise in-house trainings, and understand payroll system. In the hotels there is not a formal process for recruiting and selection, it is done on individual bases. If a manager decides to select someone they contact the human resource manager with whom they read the CVs, shortlist the candidates and then do the interviews. The human resource manager can suggest but it is the functional manager who decides at the end. Deciding a senior manager position there is a set of questions that the human resource manager developed for the interview. The questions include role-specific, behavioural and competency items and the answers are scored by the human resource and CEO of the hotel group. The example of how the interviewee was selected for the position presents the process. He applied for the human resource position after seeing a job advertisement and had two interviews by the head of the hotel group and the operation manager. One interview was just a screen and the second involved a set of profile testing. It was not a competence interview but set of formal questions. His novelty in hotel business and experience in multinational and multicultural circumstances helped to win this position. Additionally to fulfil a functional manger position one must have critical thinking, be able to listen what people ask and relying on what

people say and do more face-to-face communication. According to the interviewee performance is excellent “*when target is met, when there is little scope to develop further*” while poor performance is “*when individual performance does not allow to meet target organisational performance*” A manager performance depends on personality such as self-motivation and confidence, and on the other hand on business circumstances and situations. Also individual performance is influenced by private life. The interviewee defines emotional intelligence as part of “*cognitive thinking that is in connection with NLP (neuro-linguistic programming)*” which can influence and motivate people. Emotional intelligence plays an important role in a managerial position if it is applied consciously. The human resources manager is eager to learn more about emotional intelligence and the outcome of this research to know which way he can develop the hotels human resource practises, the recruitment and selection process and the performance assessment system.

Appendix 9

Functional managers' performance dimensions and its description by Umbreit, 1986:5 compared to the results from the case studies

| Performance Dimensions of hotel managers (Umbreit, 1986, 2003 in Kusluvan) | Description (Umbreit, 1986) | CSF(s) and KPI(S) based on the case studies |
|--|--|--|
| Handling complaints and promoting relations guest and guest | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provides assistance to guests • handles guest complaints either in writing or by visiting with guests personally • provides restitution or instructs staff to correct service | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reduce repetitive mistakes • willingness to learn from mistake • be kind to guest • resilience • feedback from guests • communication skills • assertiveness • people-relationship skills • listen and face-to-face communication |
| Developing market strategy and monitoring sales programs | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • evaluates and approves sales strategies • alters strategy and market mix and shifts sales emphasis when necessary • monitors sales, public relations, and advertising efforts | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SMART objectives • critical thinking • adaptation to different situations • effective team work • income • returning guest • attracting new business partners • social capital • observing guests' routes • staff turnover • attitude |
| Communicating with employees | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • attends departmental staff meetings and involves subordinates in discussions • visits with executive committee regularly on personal basis • uses memos to communicate special instructions and policies to departments • disseminates financial and other operating information to subordinates • conducts periodic meetings with employees | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • employee-focus • keep deadlines • decisiveness • experience how hotel is run • listen and face-to-face communication • attention to (daily) feedback • giving feedback • straightforwardness |
| Motivating and modifying behaviour | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • establishes motivational programs • congratulates staff on a job well done when warranted • provides encouragement • modifies behaviour when appropriate | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • self(inner) motivation • positive attitude • values • high standard attitude • open to learn • moral • leadership style • motivate staff • flexibility • responsible for decision • giving feedback • honesty • confidence |

| | | |
|--|---|--|
| Implementing policy, making decisions and delegating responsibility | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • implements corporate policy and guides policy development • prepares fiscal plans and budget documentation • establishes controls • makes decisions • modifies organization structure • initiates purchase orders and signs contracts • delegates authority and responsibility to subordinates | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SMART objectives • job description related task requirements • effective team-work • critical thinking • realise financial aims • high standard attitude • decisive • responsible for decision • confidence • assertive • communication skills |
| Monitoring operations and maintaining product quality | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • monitors daily operations • assures established standards and product quality are consistently maintained • institutes inspection programs • tours the property and notifies department heads of problems • attends to the safety and security of guests and their possessions | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • job description related task requirements • high standard attitude • critical thinking • attention to daily and guest feedback • giving feedback • observe guests' routes • listen and face-to-face communication • mediation (between functions) |
| Handling personnel responsibilities | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • develops an effective wage administration program for all positions • implements and monitors a systematic performance review program • approves promotions • terminates subordinates when necessary • engages in coaching and counselling of subordinates • supervises the training and development of managerial employees | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • communicate organisation and personal goals • (alter, develop) job descriptions • organise/develop training • open to learn • motivate staff • decisive • flexibility • soft skills |

Appendix 10 (PCA_PERFORMANCE ALL)

KMO and Bartlett's Test for all 40 performance variables

| | |
|--|--------------------|
| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. | ,865 |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square |
| | 3057,695 |
| | df |
| | 780 |
| | Sig. |
| | ,000 |

Communalities of all 40 performance variables

| | Initial | Extraction |
|------------|--------------|-------------|
| TR1 | 1,000 | ,283 |
| TR2 | 1,000 | ,188 |
| TR3 | 1,000 | ,346 |
| TR4 | 1,000 | ,487 |
| TR5 | 1,000 | ,355 |
| TR6 | 1,000 | ,289 |
| TR7 | 1,000 | ,325 |
| TR8 | 1,000 | ,366 |
| CW1 | 1,000 | ,439 |
| CW2 | 1,000 | ,369 |
| CW3 | 1,000 | ,531 |
| CW4 | 1,000 | ,367 |
| CW5 | 1,000 | ,524 |
| CW6 | 1,000 | ,465 |
| CW7 | 1,000 | ,487 |
| CW8 | 1,000 | ,395 |
| EF1 | 1,000 | ,192 |
| EF2 | 1,000 | ,346 |
| EF3 | 1,000 | ,296 |
| EF4 | 1,000 | ,490 |
| EF5 | 1,000 | ,568 |
| EF6 | 1,000 | ,583 |
| EF7 | 1,000 | ,405 |
| EF8 | 1,000 | ,495 |
| CO1 | 1,000 | ,137 |
| CO2 | 1,000 | ,514 |
| CO3 | 1,000 | ,421 |
| CO4 | 1,000 | ,456 |
| CO5 | 1,000 | ,347 |
| CO6 | 1,000 | ,249 |
| CO7 | 1,000 | ,400 |
| CO8 | 1,000 | ,423 |
| LO1 | 1,000 | ,629 |
| LO2 | 1,000 | ,661 |
| LO3 | 1,000 | ,265 |
| LO4 | 1,000 | ,737 |
| LO5 | 1,000 | ,707 |
| LO6 | 1,000 | ,754 |
| LO7 | 1,000 | ,703 |
| LO8 | 1,000 | ,644 |

**Appendix 11 Communalities of
the 36 performance variables**

| | Initial | Extraction |
|-----|---------|------------|
| TR1 | 1,000 | ,263 |
| TR3 | 1,000 | ,304 |
| TR4 | 1,000 | ,487 |
| TR5 | 1,000 | ,332 |
| TR6 | 1,000 | ,254 |
| TR7 | 1,000 | ,325 |
| TR8 | 1,000 | ,357 |
| CW1 | 1,000 | ,471 |
| CW2 | 1,000 | ,418 |
| CW3 | 1,000 | ,600 |
| CW4 | 1,000 | ,372 |
| CW5 | 1,000 | ,542 |
| CW6 | 1,000 | ,480 |
| CW7 | 1,000 | ,499 |
| CW8 | 1,000 | ,397 |
| EF2 | 1,000 | ,341 |
| EF3 | 1,000 | ,293 |
| EF4 | 1,000 | ,493 |
| EF5 | 1,000 | ,578 |
| EF6 | 1,000 | ,592 |
| EF7 | 1,000 | ,408 |
| EF8 | 1,000 | ,498 |
| CO2 | 1,000 | ,509 |
| CO3 | 1,000 | ,432 |
| CO4 | 1,000 | ,440 |
| CO5 | 1,000 | ,347 |
| CO7 | 1,000 | ,396 |
| CO8 | 1,000 | ,433 |
| LO1 | 1,000 | ,628 |
| LO2 | 1,000 | ,655 |
| LO3 | 1,000 | ,260 |
| LO4 | 1,000 | ,740 |
| LO5 | 1,000 | ,707 |
| LO6 | 1,000 | ,759 |
| LO7 | 1,000 | ,703 |
| LO8 | 1,000 | ,657 |

**Appendix 12 Pattern Matrix of
Performance**

| | Component | |
|-----|-----------|-------|
| | 1 | 2 |
| CW3 | ,834 | |
| TR4 | ,749 | |
| CW5 | ,732 | |
| CO2 | ,677 | |
| CW2 | ,638 | |
| TR3 | ,616 | |
| CW1 | ,595 | |
| CO7 | ,583 | |
| CO3 | ,582 | |
| TR5 | ,567 | |
| TR7 | ,567 | |
| CO4 | ,540 | |
| TR1 | ,534 | |
| CW7 | ,531 | |
| CW6 | ,523 | |
| CW8 | ,487 | |
| TR8 | ,476 | |
| CO8 | ,454 | -,313 |
| TR6 | ,410 | |
| CW4 | ,371 | -,344 |
| LO8 | | -,877 |
| LO6 | | -,817 |
| LO5 | | -,776 |
| LO7 | | -,761 |
| LO4 | | -,753 |
| LO2 | | -,726 |
| EF7 | | -,692 |
| EF8 | | -,665 |
| LO1 | | -,660 |
| EF2 | | -,653 |
| EF5 | | -,645 |
| EF6 | | -,628 |
| EF3 | | -,468 |
| EF4 | ,392 | -,431 |
| LO3 | | -,384 |
| CO5 | ,338 | -,353 |

**Appendix 13a Structure
Matrix of Performance**

| | Component | |
|-----|-----------|-------|
| | 1 | 2 |
| CW3 | ,762 | |
| CW5 | ,736 | -,340 |
| CO2 | ,710 | -,381 |
| TR4 | ,687 | |
| CW1 | ,670 | -,436 |
| CW7 | ,659 | -,524 |
| CW6 | ,648 | -,512 |
| CW2 | ,646 | -,308 |
| CO3 | ,645 | -,404 |
| CO4 | ,636 | -,456 |
| CO7 | ,624 | -,354 |
| CO8 | ,596 | -,519 |
| CW8 | ,594 | -,457 |
| TR5 | ,576 | |
| TR7 | ,570 | |
| TR8 | ,569 | -,421 |
| CW4 | ,527 | -,512 |
| TR3 | ,511 | |
| TR1 | ,511 | |
| TR6 | ,483 | -,347 |
| LO6 | ,478 | -,866 |
| LO4 | ,538 | -,842 |
| LO5 | ,478 | -,833 |
| LO7 | ,492 | -,828 |
| LO2 | ,485 | -,797 |
| LO8 | | -,794 |
| LO1 | ,531 | -,765 |
| EF6 | ,528 | -,738 |
| EF5 | ,497 | -,738 |
| EF8 | ,382 | -,702 |
| EF7 | | -,625 |
| EF4 | ,588 | -,609 |
| EF2 | | -,541 |
| EF3 | ,345 | -,528 |
| CO5 | ,498 | -,506 |
| LO3 | ,378 | -,477 |

**Appendix 13b Rotated
Component Matrix of
Performance ^a**

| | Component | |
|-----|-----------|------|
| | 1 | 2 |
| LO6 | ,826 | |
| LO8 | ,811 | |
| LO5 | ,790 | |
| LO4 | ,786 | ,349 |
| LO7 | ,781 | ,304 |
| LO2 | ,749 | ,305 |
| LO1 | ,704 | ,364 |
| EF5 | ,683 | ,335 |
| EF6 | ,675 | ,369 |
| EF8 | ,670 | |
| EF7 | ,639 | |
| EF2 | ,575 | |
| EF4 | ,521 | ,471 |
| EF3 | ,491 | |
| CO5 | ,431 | ,401 |
| LO3 | ,427 | |
| CW3 | | ,773 |
| CW5 | | ,710 |
| TR4 | | ,695 |
| CO2 | | ,670 |
| CW2 | | ,621 |
| CW1 | ,314 | ,611 |
| CO3 | | ,592 |
| CO7 | | ,583 |
| CW7 | ,412 | ,574 |
| CO4 | ,343 | ,567 |
| CW6 | ,402 | ,564 |
| TR5 | | ,553 |
| TR7 | | ,550 |
| TR3 | | ,547 |
| CW8 | ,355 | ,521 |
| TR1 | | ,506 |
| CO8 | ,422 | ,505 |
| TR8 | ,321 | ,504 |
| CW4 | ,431 | ,432 |
| TR6 | | ,431 |

Extraction Method: Principal

Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with

Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3

iterations.

Appendix 14 Performance Item Statistics

| | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|-----|--------|----------------|-----|
| TR1 | 5,7156 | ,87233 | 109 |
| TR3 | 5,7890 | ,93366 | 109 |
| TR4 | 6,1376 | ,78726 | 109 |
| TR5 | 5,7431 | ,87563 | 109 |
| TR6 | 6,3761 | ,77923 | 109 |
| TR7 | 6,0092 | ,93784 | 109 |
| TR8 | 6,2569 | ,77464 | 109 |
| CW1 | 6,0275 | ,88672 | 109 |
| CW2 | 6,3303 | ,68116 | 109 |
| CW3 | 6,1927 | ,84412 | 109 |
| CW4 | 5,8899 | ,92636 | 109 |
| CW5 | 5,8440 | ,95427 | 109 |
| CW6 | 5,4771 | ,90877 | 109 |
| CW7 | 5,7706 | 1,06834 | 109 |
| CW8 | 5,8532 | 1,07001 | 109 |
| EF2 | 5,2569 | 1,37709 | 109 |
| EF3 | 5,4587 | 1,21360 | 109 |
| EF4 | 5,5413 | 1,07611 | 109 |
| EF5 | 4,1284 | 1,68381 | 109 |
| EF6 | 4,5046 | 1,79311 | 109 |
| EF7 | 5,2844 | 1,24790 | 109 |
| EF8 | 4,3578 | 1,72950 | 109 |
| CO2 | 6,3028 | ,73918 | 109 |
| CO3 | 5,7982 | ,89007 | 109 |
| CO4 | 6,0642 | ,85283 | 109 |
| CO5 | 5,7523 | 1,17974 | 109 |
| CO7 | 6,2202 | ,77409 | 109 |
| CO8 | 5,7798 | ,94632 | 109 |
| LO1 | 6,0183 | ,88172 | 109 |
| LO2 | 6,3761 | ,86911 | 109 |
| LO3 | 6,3028 | ,96709 | 109 |
| LO4 | 5,7523 | 1,13982 | 109 |
| LO5 | 5,2110 | 1,47870 | 109 |
| LO6 | 5,7706 | 1,18347 | 109 |
| LO7 | 6,2018 | ,93075 | 109 |
| LO8 | 5,1009 | 1,57495 | 109 |

Appendix 15 Final performance factors and facets with their codes and Cronbach alphas

| Factor | Facet | Question with code | Cronbach's alpha |
|-------------------------|--|---|--|
| TASK PERFORMANCE | task-requirement | TR1 lead your functional area effectively, that is producing the intended and /or expected result(s) | ,948 |
| | | TR3 meet deadlines under any circumstances | ,948 |
| | | TR4 pay close attention to important details | ,948 |
| | | TR5 perform your functional duties with unusually few errors | ,948 |
| | | TR6 present proper appearance and manner required by the hotel | ,947 |
| | | TR7 follow standard operating procedures and avoid unauthorised shortcuts | ,947 |
| | | TR8 handle guest complaints and promote guest relations | ,947 |
| | | co-working | CW1 initiate to discuss and find solution to work related dilemma |
| | CW2 coordinate your job with other functional managers | | ,947 |
| | CW3 support and encourage co-operation among subordinates | | ,947 |
| | CW4 give feedback to stakeholders (owner, employees, customers, suppliers etc.) | | ,947 |
| | CW5 help and pay attention to new employees | | ,947 |
| | CW6 empower subordinates | | ,946 |
| | CW7 encourage employees to have initiatives and realise and implement an idea if it is feasible | | ,947 |
| | CW8 exchange ideas and share information with all employees | | ,947 |
| | communication | CO2 encourage open communication and information sharing without bias | ,947 |
| | | CO3 ask everyone who is involved in a conflict at your unit before judging or finding a solution | ,947 |
| | | CO4 aim to solve conflicts and negotiate to find a win-win solution | ,947 |
| | | CO5 allow employees to approach you with work and/or private related problems | ,947 |
| | | CO7 inform co-workers about a change in a program or an event in time | ,947 |
| | | CO8 find important to organise regular staff meeting | ,947 |

| | | | |
|-----------------------------------|--|---|--|
| CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE | extra effort | EF2 exhibit attendance at work beyond the norms, e.g. take less days off than allowed or other functional managers in a hotel | ,949 |
| | | EF3 help other functional managers and subordinates when their workload increases | ,948 |
| | | EF4 make innovative suggestions to improve hotel performance | ,946 |
| | | EF5 take part in trainings, conferences and/or further education to increase your job performance | ,946 |
| | | EF6 seek for opportunities to apply what has been learnt at trainings, conferences or at further education courses | ,948 |
| | | EF7 do things not formally required by your job | ,947 |
| | | EF8 volunteer to be involved in deeds from which the local community and the hotel can both benefit from (e.g. support local events) | |
| | | loyalty | LO1 defend your hotel when other employees criticise it |
| | LO2 show pride when representing your hotel in public | | ,946 |
| | LO3 actively promote your hotel's services to potential users | | ,948 |
| | LO4 talk positively about the hotel with family and friends | | ,945 |
| | LO5 have a better work and career opportunity in this hotel than other possible workplace | | ,945 |
| | LO6 subscribe to the hotel mission, vision and have similar values to those of the hotel | | ,946 |
| | LO7 care about the destiny of the hotel | | ,947 |
| | LO8 feel not to leave the hotel because of changes in work requirement | | |

Appendix 16 Summary of other category regarding functional area

| functional position | no of rooms | no of employees | occupancy rate | star | Hotelstars member |
|------------------------|-------------|-----------------|----------------|------|-------------------|
| GM | 10-49 | 25 | 31-40% | 4 | N |
| GM | 50-150 | 26 | 51-61% | 3 | Y |
| GM | 50-150 | 42 | 31-40% | 3 | Y |
| GM/FO before | 10-49 | 21 | 51-61% | 4 | Y |
| GM | 50-150 | 26 | 61-70% | 3 | Y |
| GM | 50-150 | 60 | 51-61% | 3 | Y |
| RESERVATION | 50-150 | 17 | 90-100% | 3 | Y |
| GM+KITCHEN, +SALES, | 50-150 | 43 | 61-70% | 4 | Y |
| GM | 10-49 | 16 | 31-40% | 4 | N |
| GM+MAINTENANCE | 50-150 | 50 | 71-80% | 5 | N |
| GM | 10-49 | 20 | 71-80% | 4 | Y |
| GM | 50-150 | 23 | 61-70% | 4 | N |
| GM | 10-49 | 26 | 61-70% | 3 | N |

| | | | | | |
|-----|-------|-----|--------|-----|-----|
| GM | 10-49 | N/A | 31-40% | 4 | Y |
| N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A |

Appendix 17

Independent Samples Test for EQ 15 facets and gender

| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------|---|------|------------------------------|---------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|---|---------|
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| | | | | | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| self esteem | Equal variances assumed | ,438 | ,510 | ,004 | 107 | ,997 | ,00061 | ,17363 | -,34359 | ,34481 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | ,004 | 106,364 | ,997 | ,00061 | ,17374 | -,34382 | ,34505 |
| emotion expression | Equal variances assumed | ,001 | ,976 | 2,917 | 107 | ,004 | ,57183 | ,19603 | ,18322 | ,96045 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 2,916 | 106,452 | ,004 | ,57183 | ,19612 | ,18302 | ,96064 |
| self-motivation | Equal variances assumed | 4,476 | ,037 | 2,561 | 107 | ,012 | ,38932 | ,15200 | ,08799 | ,69065 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 2,542 | 96,808 | ,013 | ,38932 | ,15315 | ,08535 | ,69329 |
| emotion regulation | Equal variances assumed | 1,441 | ,233 | -3,701 | 107 | ,000 | -,54206 | ,14648 | -,83244 | -,25168 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -3,685 | 102,570 | ,000 | -,54206 | ,14711 | -,83382 | -,25030 |
| happiness | Equal variances assumed | 4,611 | ,034 | 2,200 | 107 | ,030 | ,46770 | ,21256 | ,04631 | ,88908 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 2,188 | 100,737 | ,031 | ,46770 | ,21372 | ,04372 | ,89167 |
| empathy | Equal variances assumed | 5,670 | ,019 | 3,608 | 107 | ,000 | ,57877 | ,16040 | ,26079 | ,89674 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 3,579 | 95,552 | ,001 | ,57877 | ,16171 | ,25775 | ,89978 |
| social awareness | Equal variances assumed | 5,454 | ,021 | 1,435 | 107 | ,154 | ,23211 | ,16170 | -,08843 | ,55265 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 1,427 | 99,700 | ,157 | ,23211 | ,16267 | -,09063 | ,55486 |
| impulsivity (low) | Equal variances assumed | 3,365 | ,069 | -,121 | 107 | ,904 | -,01681 | ,13946 | -,29327 | ,25965 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -,120 | 98,613 | ,905 | -,01681 | ,14038 | -,29537 | ,26175 |
| emotion perception | Equal variances assumed | ,448 | ,505 | 2,164 | 107 | ,033 | ,32810 | ,15162 | ,02753 | ,62867 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 2,163 | 106,393 | ,033 | ,32810 | ,15170 | ,02735 | ,62885 |
| stress management | Equal variances assumed | 3,863 | ,052 | -1,153 | 107 | ,251 | -,19710 | ,17087 | -,53584 | ,14164 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -1,147 | 100,321 | ,254 | -,19710 | ,17184 | -,53802 | ,14382 |
| emotion management | Equal variances assumed | ,215 | ,644 | ,583 | 107 | ,561 | ,08393 | ,14394 | -,20140 | ,36927 |

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------------|--------|------|--------------|---------|-------------|---------|--------|---------|--------|
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | ,583 | 106,583 | ,561 | ,08393 | ,14396 | -,20147 | ,36933 |
| optimism | Equal variances assumed | ,049 | ,826 | 1,390 | 107 | ,168 | ,29410 | ,21165 | -,12547 | ,71367 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 1,388 | 106,187 | ,168 | ,29410 | ,21184 | -,12588 | ,71407 |
| relationships | Equal variances assumed | 16,730 | ,000 | 2,898 | 107 | ,005 | ,45025 | ,15535 | ,14228 | ,75822 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 2,867 | 89,690 | ,005 | ,45025 | ,15704 | ,13825 | ,76224 |
| adaptability | Equal variances assumed | ,085 | ,772 | ,889 | 107 | ,376 | ,15169 | ,17055 | -,18640 | ,48978 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | ,888 | 105,139 | ,377 | ,15169 | ,17091 | -,18720 | ,49058 |
| assertiveness | Equal variances assumed | ,763 | ,384 | -1,123 | 107 | ,264 | -,18374 | ,16364 | -,50813 | ,14066 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -1,121 | 105,599 | ,265 | -,18374 | ,16391 | -,50872 | ,14125 |

Group Statistics for gender regarding EQ 15 facets

| | gender | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|---------------------------|--------|----|---------------|----------------|-----------------|
| self esteem | Female | 56 | 5,1104 | ,89639 | ,11979 |
| | Male | 53 | 5,1098 | ,91612 | ,12584 |
| emotion expression | Female | 56 | 5,1643 | 1,01488 | ,13562 |
| | Male | 53 | 4,5925 | 1,03140 | ,14167 |
| self-motivation | Female | 56 | 5,1554 | ,67982 | ,09084 |
| | Male | 53 | 4,7660 | ,89763 | ,12330 |
| emotion regulation | Female | 56 | 4,0208 | ,70501 | ,09421 |
| | Male | 53 | 4,5629 | ,82251 | ,11298 |
| happiness | Female | 56 | 5,9040 | ,99801 | ,13336 |
| | Male | 53 | 5,4363 | 1,21579 | ,16700 |
| empathy | Female | 56 | 5,2937 | ,70669 | ,09444 |
| | Male | 53 | 4,7149 | ,95569 | ,13127 |
| social awareness | Female | 56 | 5,3539 | ,74919 | ,10011 |
| | Male | 53 | 5,1218 | ,93341 | ,12821 |
| impulsivity (low) | Female | 56 | 4,5933 | ,63750 | ,08519 |
| | Male | 53 | 4,6101 | ,81231 | ,11158 |
| emotion perception | Female | 56 | 5,1036 | ,78346 | ,10469 |
| | Male | 53 | 4,7755 | ,79926 | ,10979 |
| stress management | Female | 56 | 4,1821 | ,79798 | ,10663 |
| | Male | 53 | 4,3792 | ,98104 | ,13476 |
| emotion management | Female | 56 | 5,1468 | ,74854 | ,10003 |
| | Male | 53 | 5,0629 | ,75375 | ,10354 |
| optimism | Female | 56 | 5,4710 | 1,08711 | ,14527 |
| | Male | 53 | 5,1769 | 1,12244 | ,15418 |
| relationships | Female | 56 | 5,7123 | ,63768 | ,08521 |
| | Male | 53 | 5,2621 | ,96030 | ,13191 |
| adaptability | Female | 56 | 4,4683 | ,85562 | ,11434 |
| | Male | 53 | 4,3166 | ,92486 | ,12704 |
| assertiveness | Female | 56 | 5,1349 | ,82870 | ,11074 |
| | Male | 53 | 5,3187 | ,87977 | ,12085 |

Appendix 18

**Report the emotional intelligence median
on different hotel categories**

| hotel star | | well being | self-control | emotionality | sociability | global trait EI |
|------------|--------|------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|-----------------|
| 3* | N | 36 | 36 | 36 | 36 | 36 |
| | Median | 5,0928 | 4,2231 | 4,9736 | 4,8502 | 4,7610 |
| 4* | N | 64 | 64 | 64 | 64 | 64 |
| | Median | 5,6648 | 4,4278 | 5,3375 | 5,3283 | 5,1684 |
| 5* | N | 9 | 9 | 9 | 9 | 9 |
| | Median | 6,3636 | 4,4796 | 5,3111 | 5,6128 | 5,1533 |
| Total | N | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 |
| | Median | 5,5114 | 4,3796 | 5,1861 | 5,2290 | 5,0955 |

**Multiple Comparisons of managers' emotional intelligence
within hotel categories**

Dunnnett t (>control)^a

| Dependent Variable | (I) hotel star | (J) hotel star | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval |
|------------------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------------|------------|------|-------------------------|
| | | | | | | Lower Bound |
| well being | 3* | 5* | -.90036 | ,34960 | ,998 | -1,5466 |
| | 4* | 5* | -.37821 | ,33395 | ,918 | -,9955 |
| self-control | 3* | 5* | -.33873 | ,24387 | ,951 | -,7895 |
| | 4* | 5* | -.20708 | ,23296 | ,873 | -,6377 |
| emotionality | 3* | 5* | -.28688 | ,28258 | ,898 | -,8092 |
| | 4* | 5* | -.01364 | ,26994 | ,612 | -,5126 |
| sociability | 3* | 5* | -.72316 | ,25287 | ,999 | -1,1906 |
| | 4* | 5* | -.16855 | ,24155 | ,828 | -,6151 |
| global trait EI | 3* | 5* | -.54136 | ,24202 | ,994 | -,9887 |
| | 4* | 5* | -.19203 | ,23119 | ,861 | -,6194 |

a. Dunnnett t-tests treat one group as a control, and compare all other groups against it.

Appendix 19

**Independent samples test of functional managers' global and factorial emotional intelligence in relation to
Hotelstars member and non-member hotels**

| Independent Samples Test | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|---|------|------------------------------|--------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|---|--------|
| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| | | | | | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| well being | Equal variances assumed | ,008 | ,927 | -1,127 | 107 | ,262 | -,23039 | ,20435 | -,63549 | ,17471 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -1,094 | 54,433 | ,279 | -,23039 | ,21060 | -,65253 | ,19175 |
| self-control | Equal variances assumed | ,366 | ,546 | -,208 | 107 | ,836 | -,02880 | ,13836 | -,30308 | ,24548 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -,198 | 52,256 | ,844 | -,02880 | ,14549 | -,32072 | ,26312 |
| emotionality | Equal variances assumed | ,255 | ,614 | -,955 | 107 | ,342 | -,15315 | ,16041 | -,47114 | ,16484 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -,923 | 53,991 | ,360 | -,15315 | ,16597 | -,48590 | ,17960 |
| sociability | Equal variances assumed | ,997 | ,320 | -1,910 | 107 | ,059 | -,28835 | ,15097 | -,58762 | ,01093 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -1,769 | 49,662 | ,083 | -,28835 | ,16299 | -,61579 | ,03909 |
| global trait EI | Equal variances assumed | ,457 | ,500 | -1,305 | 107 | ,195 | -,18310 | ,14027 | -,46116 | ,09497 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -1,225 | 50,953 | ,226 | -,18310 | ,14941 | -,48306 | ,11687 |

Appendix 20
Independent samples test for performance on factorial and facet level by gender

| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|---|-------------|------------------------------|---------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|---|--------|
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| | | | | | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| Task Performance | Equal variances assumed | 1,155 | ,285 | 1,544 | 107 | ,126 | ,16259 | ,10530 | -,04616 | ,37134 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 1,540 | 104,766 | ,127 | ,16259 | ,10557 | -,04673 | ,37192 |
| Contextual Performance | Equal variances assumed | 10,227 | ,002 | 1,229 | 107 | ,222 | ,22574 | ,18365 | -,13832 | ,58980 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 1,219 | 95,923 | ,226 | ,22574 | ,18512 | -,14172 | ,59320 |
| PERFORMANCE | Equal variances assumed | 4,172 | ,044 | 1,505 | 107 | ,135 | ,18785 | ,12483 | -,05961 | ,43531 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 1,496 | 99,698 | ,138 | ,18785 | ,12558 | -,06131 | ,43701 |
| task requirement | Equal variances assumed | ,057 | ,812 | 1,093 | 107 | ,277 | ,11783 | ,10778 | -,09583 | ,33149 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 1,095 | 106,993 | ,276 | ,11783 | ,10764 | -,09555 | ,33121 |
| co-working | Equal variances assumed | 1,099 | ,297 | 1,662 | 107 | ,099 | ,21311 | ,12820 | -,04104 | ,46725 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 1,656 | 103,454 | ,101 | ,21311 | ,12867 | -,04206 | ,46827 |
| communication | Equal variances assumed | ,120 | ,730 | 1,240 | 107 | ,218 | ,15684 | ,12649 | -,09391 | ,40759 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 1,238 | 105,836 | ,218 | ,15684 | ,12666 | -,09429 | ,40797 |
| extra effort | Equal variances assumed | 2,075 | ,153 | ,288 | 107 | ,774 | ,05877 | ,20433 | -,34629 | ,46383 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | ,287 | 103,229 | ,775 | ,05877 | ,20510 | -,34800 | ,46554 |
| loyalty | Equal variances assumed | 15,092 | ,000 | 2,085 | 107 | ,039 | ,39271 | ,18836 | ,01932 | ,76611 |

| | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|--|--|-------|--------|-------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Equal variances not assumed | | | 2,064 | 91,399 | ,042 | ,39271 | ,19026 | ,01481 | ,77061 |
|-----------------------------|--|--|-------|--------|-------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|

Appendix 21
Multiple comparisons of hotel occupancy rate and performance
Dunnnett t (>control)^a

| Dependent Variable | (I) hotel capacity | (J) hotel capacity | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval |
|------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|------------|-------|-------------------------|
| | | | | | | Lower Bound |
| PERFORMANCE | 21-30% | 81-90% | ,16332 | ,43602 | ,666 | -,8147 |
| | 31-40% | 81-90% | -,38435 | ,29249 | ,991 | -1,0404 |
| | 41-50% | 81-90% | -,68619 | ,27275 | 1,000 | -1,2980 |
| | 51-60% | 81-90% | -,31542 | ,26905 | ,986 | -,9189 |
| | 61-70% | 81-90% | -,19250 | ,28145 | ,950 | -,8238 |
| | 71-80% | 81-90% | -,11075 | ,28145 | ,905 | -,7421 |
| Task Performance | 21-30% | 81-90% | -,11102 | ,36104 | ,887 | -,9209 |
| | 31-40% | 81-90% | -,50113 | ,24219 | ,999 | -1,0444 |
| | 41-50% | 81-90% | -,63316 | ,22584 | 1,000 | -1,1398 |
| | 51-60% | 81-90% | -,26301 | ,22278 | ,986 | -,7627 |
| | 61-70% | 81-90% | -,29929 | ,23305 | ,990 | -,8220 |
| | 71-80% | 81-90% | -,03606 | ,23305 | ,849 | -,5588 |
| Contextual Performance | 21-30% | 81-90% | ,57483 | ,64821 | ,439 | -,8792 |
| | 31-40% | 81-90% | -,20918 | ,43484 | ,921 | -1,1846 |
| | 41-50% | 81-90% | -,76575 | ,40549 | ,999 | -1,6753 |
| | 51-60% | 81-90% | -,39403 | ,39999 | ,976 | -1,2913 |
| | 61-70% | 81-90% | -,03231 | ,41842 | ,828 | -,9709 |
| | 71-80% | 81-90% | -,22279 | ,41842 | ,929 | -1,1613 |

a. Dunnnett t-tests treat one group as a control, and compare all other groups against it.

Appendix 22

Independent samples test for functional managers' performance
between Hotelstars members and non-members

| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------------|---|-------------|------------------------------|--------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|---|---------|
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2 tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| | | | | | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| Task Performance | Equal variances assumed | 1,644 | ,203 | -3,399 | 107 | ,001 | -,37734 | ,11101 | -,59741 | -,15727 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -3,235 | 52,338 | ,002 | -,37734 | ,11664 | -,61136 | -,14332 |
| Contextual Performance | Equal variances assumed | 1,060 | ,306 | -3,244 | 107 | ,002 | -,62825 | ,19368 | -1,01219 | -,24431 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -3,114 | 53,261 | ,003 | -,62825 | ,20173 | -1,03283 | -,22367 |
| PERFORMANCE | Equal variances assumed | ,568 | ,453 | -3,660 | 107 | ,000 | -,47770 | ,13052 | -,73643 | -,21897 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -3,544 | 54,183 | ,001 | -,47770 | ,13481 | -,74795 | -,20745 |
| task requirement | Equal variances assumed | ,110 | ,740 | -2,566 | 107 | ,012 | -,29627 | ,11545 | -,52513 | -,06740 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -2,586 | 59,013 | ,012 | -,29627 | ,11457 | -,52552 | -,06701 |
| co-working | Equal variances assumed | ,679 | ,412 | -2,960 | 107 | ,004 | -,40549 | ,13701 | -,67710 | -,13388 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -2,791 | 51,395 | ,007 | -,40549 | ,14530 | -,69713 | -,11385 |
| communication | Equal variances assumed | 4,457 | ,037 | -3,223 | 107 | ,002 | -,43026 | ,13349 | -,69489 | -,16564 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -2,890 | 46,808 | ,006 | -,43026 | ,14890 | -,72985 | -,13068 |
| extra effort | Equal variances assumed | ,304 | ,582 | -3,024 | 107 | ,003 | -,65109 | ,21533 | -1,07796 | -,22422 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -3,008 | 57,372 | ,004 | -,65109 | ,21647 | -1,08450 | -,21768 |
| loyalty | Equal variances assumed | 5,075 | ,026 | -2,988 | 107 | ,003 | -,60540 | ,20260 | -1,00703 | -,20378 |

| | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|--|--|---------------|--------|-------------|---------|--------|----------|---------|
| Equal variances not assumed | | | -2,698 | 47,402 | ,010 | -,60540 | ,22438 | -1,05670 | -,15410 |
|-----------------------------|--|--|---------------|--------|-------------|---------|--------|----------|---------|

Appendix 23

Independent t-test for present hotel organisation culture by gender

| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------------|---|-------------|------------------------------|---------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|---|---------|
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| | | | | | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| clan now | Equal variances assumed | 4,146 | ,044 | ,310 | 107 | ,757 | ,81288 | 2,62387 | -4,38864 | 6,01439 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | ,306 | 89,228 | ,760 | ,81288 | 2,65283 | -4,45805 | 6,08380 |
| adhocracy now | Equal variances assumed | 2,674 | ,105 | 2,676 | 107 | ,009 | 4,40164 | 1,64481 | 1,14101 | 7,66228 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 2,667 | 103,505 | ,009 | 4,40164 | 1,65070 | 1,12807 | 7,67522 |
| market now | Equal variances assumed | ,919 | ,340 | ,265 | 107 | ,791 | ,49230 | 1,85459 | -3,18422 | 4,16882 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | ,264 | 100,938 | ,792 | ,49230 | 1,86444 | -3,20627 | 4,19087 |
| hierarchy now | Equal variances assumed | 16,155 | ,000 | -2,035 | 107 | ,044 | -5,70682 | 2,80443 | -11,26628 | -,14736 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -2,009 | 85,072 | ,048 | -5,70682 | 2,84035 | -11,35412 | -,05952 |

Appendix 24

Independent t-test for present and preferred organisational culture difference by gender

| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|---|------|------------------------------|---------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|---|----------|
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| | | | | | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| clan difference | Equal variances assumed | 2,930 | ,090 | -1,355 | 107 | ,178 | -1,61513 | 1,19213 | -3,97840 | ,74813 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -1,348 | 101,496 | ,181 | -1,61513 | 1,19805 | -3,99161 | ,76134 |
| adhocracy difference | Equal variances assumed | 17,260 | ,000 | -2,613 | 107 | ,010 | -2,53475 | ,97019 | -4,45803 | -,61146 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -2,580 | 85,470 | ,012 | -2,53475 | ,98245 | -4,48797 | -,58152 |
| market difference | Equal variances assumed | ,043 | ,836 | -1,045 | 107 | ,299 | -,91362 | ,87457 | -2,64735 | ,82011 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -1,045 | 106,826 | ,298 | -,91362 | ,87420 | -2,64665 | ,81940 |
| hierarchy difference | Equal variances assumed | 17,572 | ,000 | -2,564 | 107 | ,012 | -4,47274 | 1,74438 | -7,93078 | -1,01470 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -2,519 | 73,365 | ,014 | -4,47274 | 1,77532 | -8,01064 | -,93484 |

Appendix 25

The Kruskal-Wallis test statistics in present organisational culture regarding different qualifications ^{a,b}

a,b

| | clan now | adhocracy now | market now | hierarchy now |
|-------------|----------|---------------|------------|---------------|
| Chi-square | 2,438 | 6,926 | 5,647 | 11,312 |
| df | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Asymp. Sig. | ,487 | ,074 | ,130 | ,010 |

a. Kruskal Wallis Test; b. Grouping Variable: qualification

Appendix 26

ANOVA

| | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|----------------------|----------------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|-------------|
| clan now | Between Groups | 962,605 | 4 | 240,651 | 1,309 | ,271 |
| | Within Groups | 19114,184 | 104 | 183,790 | | |
| | Total | 20076,788 | 108 | | | |
| adhocracy now | Between Groups | 527,720 | 4 | 131,930 | 1,741 | ,147 |
| | Within Groups | 7882,092 | 104 | 75,789 | | |
| | Total | 8409,811 | 108 | | | |
| market now | Between Groups | 1672,407 | 4 | 418,102 | 5,204 | ,001 |
| | Within Groups | 8355,381 | 104 | 80,340 | | |
| | Total | 10027,788 | 108 | | | |
| hierarchy now | Between Groups | 2566,089 | 4 | 641,522 | 3,142 | ,018 |
| | Within Groups | 21235,250 | 104 | 204,185 | | |
| | Total | 23801,339 | 108 | | | |

**Report the present organisational culture median
on qualification**

| qualification | | clan now | adhocracy now | market now | hierarchy now |
|---------------|--------|----------|---------------|------------|---------------|
| Other | N | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| | Median | 13,3333 | 17,0833 | 37,0833 | 25,0000 |
| GSCE | N | 12 | 12 | 12 | 12 |
| | Median | 25,6944 | 22,5000 | 19,8840 | 25,3472 |
| BTEC | N | 17 | 17 | 17 | 17 |
| | Median | 16,6667 | 11,6667 | 21,6667 | 43,3333 |
| Bachelor | N | 55 | 55 | 55 | 55 |
| | Median | 24,9158 | 22,8620 | 24,8316 | 25,0000 |
| Master | N | 21 | 21 | 21 | 21 |
| | Median | 22,5172 | 23,3333 | 23,9774 | 26,6667 |
| Total | N | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 |
| | Median | 24,5781 | 20,9155 | 24,0813 | 26,6667 |

Multiple comparisons of qualification in relation to organisational culture
Dunnett t (>control)^a

| Dependent Variable | (I) qualification | (J) qualification | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|--------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|------------|-------|-------------------------|-------------|
| | | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| clan now | Other | Master | -10,79068 | 7,39591 | ,419 | -29,2620 | 7,6807 |
| | GSCE | Master | 4,73191 | 4,90589 | ,757 | -7,5206 | 16,9844 |
| | BTEC | Master | -4,06199 | 4,42302 | ,786 | -15,1085 | 6,9845 |
| | Bachelor | Master | -,61714 | 3,47758 | ,999 | -9,3024 | 8,0681 |
| adhocracy now | Other | Master | -3,48112 | 4,74935 | ,889 | -15,3427 | 8,3804 |
| | GSCE | Master | -1,39484 | 3,15036 | ,980 | -9,2629 | 6,4732 |
| | BTEC | Master | -5,93068 | 2,84028 | ,131 | -13,0243 | 1,1629 |
| | Bachelor | Master | ,12179 | 2,23316 | 1,000 | -5,4555 | 5,6991 |
| market now | Other | Master | 17,31800* | 4,88986 | ,002 | 5,1055 | 29,5305 |
| | GSCE | Master | -4,78010 | 3,24357 | ,410 | -12,8809 | 3,3207 |
| | BTEC | Master | -3,00533 | 2,92431 | ,715 | -10,3088 | 4,2982 |
| | Bachelor | Master | ,91623 | 2,29923 | ,986 | -4,8261 | 6,6586 |
| hierarchy now | Other | Master | -3,04620 | 7,79547 | ,987 | -22,5155 | 16,4231 |
| | GSCE | Master | 1,44303 | 5,17093 | ,996 | -11,4714 | 14,3575 |
| | BTEC | Master | 12,99800* | 4,66197 | ,023 | 1,3547 | 24,6413 |
| | Bachelor | Master | -,42088 | 3,66545 | 1,000 | -9,5754 | 8,7336 |

a. Dunnnett t-tests treat one group as a control, and compare all other groups against it.

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Multiple comparisons of qualification in relation to organisational culture

Dunnett t (>control)^a

| Dependent Variable | (I) qualification | (J) qualification | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|--------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|------------|-------|-------------------------|-------------|
| | | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| clan now | Other | Master | -10,79068 | 7,39591 | ,419 | -29,2620 | 7,6807 |
| | GSCE | Master | 4,73191 | 4,90589 | ,757 | -7,5206 | 16,9844 |
| | BTEC | Master | -4,06199 | 4,42302 | ,786 | -15,1085 | 6,9845 |
| | Bachelor | Master | -,61714 | 3,47758 | ,999 | -9,3024 | 8,0681 |
| adhocracy now | Other | Master | -3,48112 | 4,74935 | ,889 | -15,3427 | 8,3804 |
| | GSCE | Master | -1,39484 | 3,15036 | ,980 | -9,2629 | 6,4732 |
| | BTEC | Master | -5,93068 | 2,84028 | ,131 | -13,0243 | 1,1629 |
| | Bachelor | Master | ,12179 | 2,23316 | 1,000 | -5,4555 | 5,6991 |
| market now | Other | Master | 17,31800* | 4,88986 | ,002 | 5,1055 | 29,5305 |
| | GSCE | Master | -4,78010 | 3,24357 | ,410 | -12,8809 | 3,3207 |
| | BTEC | Master | -3,00533 | 2,92431 | ,715 | -10,3088 | 4,2982 |
| | Bachelor | Master | ,91623 | 2,29923 | ,986 | -4,8261 | 6,6586 |
| hierarchy now | Other | Master | -3,04620 | 7,79547 | ,987 | -22,5155 | 16,4231 |
| | GSCE | Master | 1,44303 | 5,17093 | ,996 | -11,4714 | 14,3575 |
| | BTEC | Master | 12,99800* | 4,66197 | ,023 | 1,3547 | 24,6413 |
| | Bachelor | Master | -,42088 | 3,66545 | 1,000 | -9,5754 | 8,7336 |

a. Dunnett t-tests treat one group as a control, and compare all other groups against it.

Appendix 27

Multiple comparisons of hotel size in relation to present organisational culture

Hotel category
Dunnett t (2-sided)^a

| Dependent Variable | (I) hotel star | (J) hotel star | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|--------------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------------|------------|------|-------------------------|-------------|
| | | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| clan now | 3* | 5* | 3,68170 | 5,10640 | ,612 | -7,3769 | 14,7403 |
| | 4* | 5* | 4,66887 | 4,87788 | ,456 | -5,8948 | 15,2326 |
| adhocracy now | 3* | 5* | ,11715 | 3,21374 | ,998 | -6,8426 | 7,0769 |
| | 4* | 5* | 4,56101 | 3,06992 | ,200 | -2,0873 | 11,2093 |
| market now | 3* | 5* | -8,19067* | 3,53641 | ,035 | -15,8492 | -,5321 |
| | 4* | 5* | -6,58439 | 3,37815 | ,081 | -13,9002 | ,7314 |
| hierarchy now | 3* | 5* | 4,39183 | 5,44895 | ,554 | -7,4086 | 16,1923 |
| | 4* | 5* | -2,64550 | 5,20510 | ,766 | -13,9178 | 8,6268 |

a. Dunnett t-tests treat one group as a control, and compare all other groups against it.

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Present dominant culture mean rank by hotel size

| | number of rooms | N | Mean Rank |
|---------------|-----------------|-----------|--------------|
| clan now | 10-49 | 37 | 59,53 |
| | 50-150 | 42 | 58,07 |
| | 151-250 | 13 | 53,46 |
| | 251-350 | 15 | 39,97 |
| | 351+ | 2 | 29,50 |
| | Total | 109 | |
| adhocracy now | 10-49 | 37 | 62,19 |
| | 50-150 | 42 | 52,25 |
| | 151-250 | 13 | 48,35 |
| | 251-350 | 15 | 52,63 |
| | 351+ | 2 | 40,75 |
| | Total | 109 | |
| market now | 10-49 | 37 | 48,91 |
| | 50-150 | 42 | 58,13 |
| | 151-250 | 13 | 53,15 |
| | 251-350 | 15 | 58,43 |
| | 351+ | 2 | 88,25 |
| | Total | 109 | |
| hierarchy now | 10-49 | 37 | 48,45 |
| | 50-150 | 42 | 56,04 |
| | 151-250 | 13 | 57,42 |
| | 251-350 | 15 | 65,20 |
| | 351+ | 2 | 62,25 |
| | Total | 109 | |

Appendix 28

Correlations of depended and independent variables

| | | PERFORMANCE | global trait EI | hierarchy now | caln preferred |
|---------------------|-----------------|-------------|-----------------|---------------|----------------|
| Pearson Correlation | PERFORMANCE | 1.000 | .610 | -.528 | .232 |
| | global trait EI | .610 | 1.000 | -.314 | -.110 |
| | hierarchy now | -.528 | -.314 | 1.000 | -.281 |
| | clan preferred | .232 | -.110 | -.281 | 1.000 |
| Sig. (1-tailed) | PERFORMANCE | | .000 | .000 | .008 |
| | global trait EI | .000 | | .000 | .127 |
| | hierarchy now | .000 | .000 | | .002 |
| | clan preferred | .008 | .127 | .002 | |
| N | PERFORMANCE | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 |
| | global trait EI | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 |
| | hierarchy now | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 |
| | clan preferred | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 |

Coefficients^a

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | 95.0% Confidence Interval for B | | Correlations | | | Collinearity Statistics | |
|-------|-----------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|--------|------|---------------------------------|-------------|--------------|---------|-------|-------------------------|-------|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound | Zero-order | Partial | Part | Tolerance | VIF |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | (Constant) | 3.172 | .450 | | 7.049 | .000 | 2.280 | 4.064 | | | | | |
| | global trait EI | .527 | .070 | .538 | 7.491 | .000 | .388 | .667 | .610 | .590 | .499 | .859 | 1.165 |
| | hierarchy now | -.013 | .003 | -.300 | -4.035 | .000 | -.020 | -.007 | -.528 | -.366 | -.269 | .800 | 1.249 |
| | clan preferred | .012 | .004 | .207 | 2.918 | .004 | .004 | .021 | .232 | .274 | .194 | .877 | 1.140 |

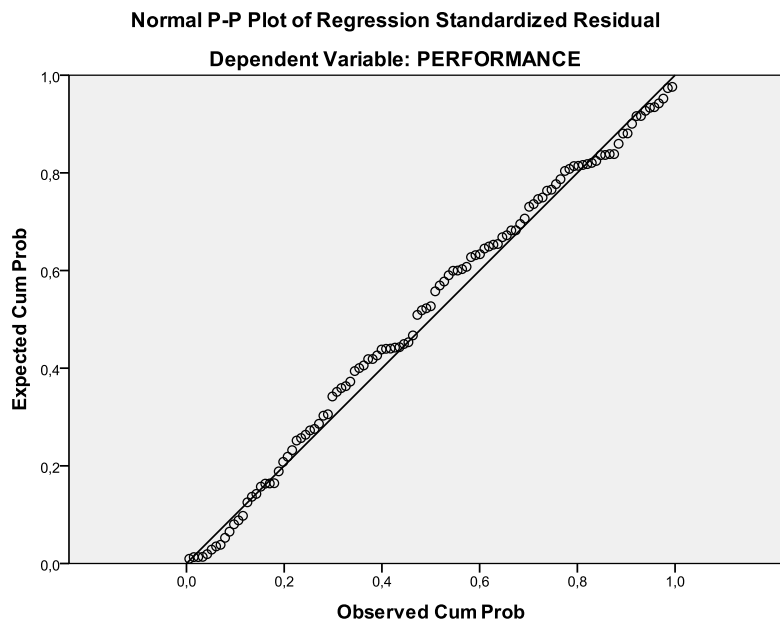
a. Dependent Variable: PERFORMANCE

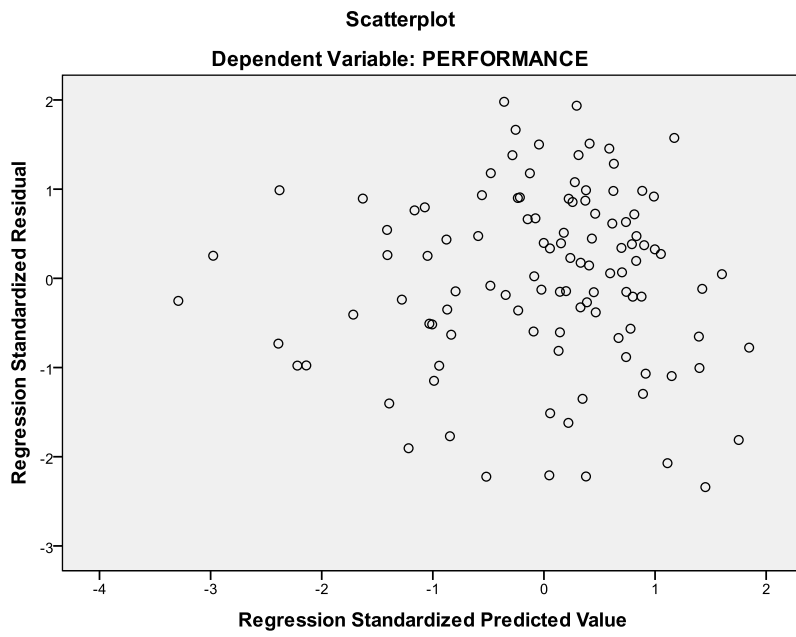
ANOVA^b

| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|-------|------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|-------------------|
| 1 | Regression | 24.788 | 3 | 8.263 | 40.215 | .000 ^a |
| | Residual | 21.573 | 105 | .205 | | |
| | Total | 46.361 | 108 | | | |

a. Predictors: (Constant). caln preferred. global trait EI. hierarchy now

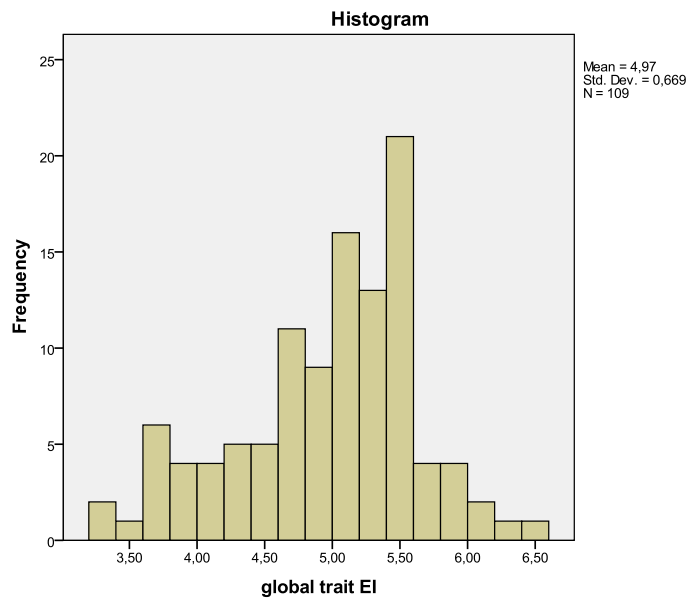
b. Dependent Variable: PERFORMANCE

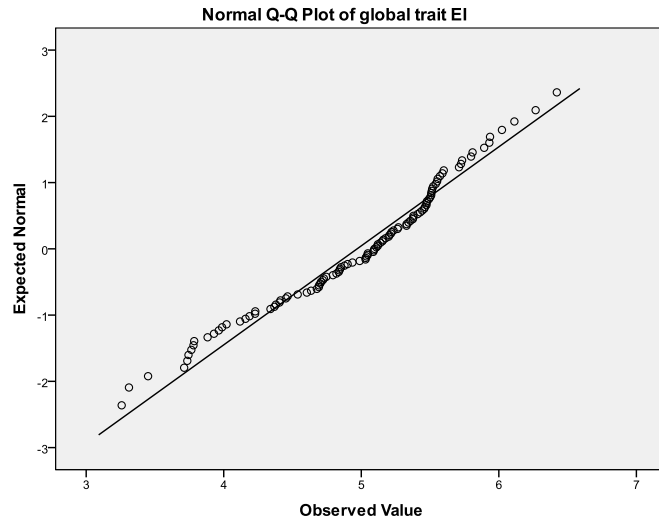




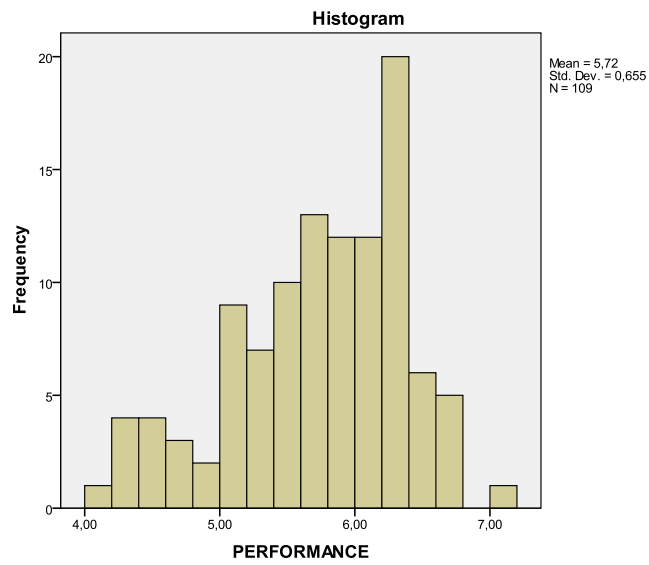
Appendix 29

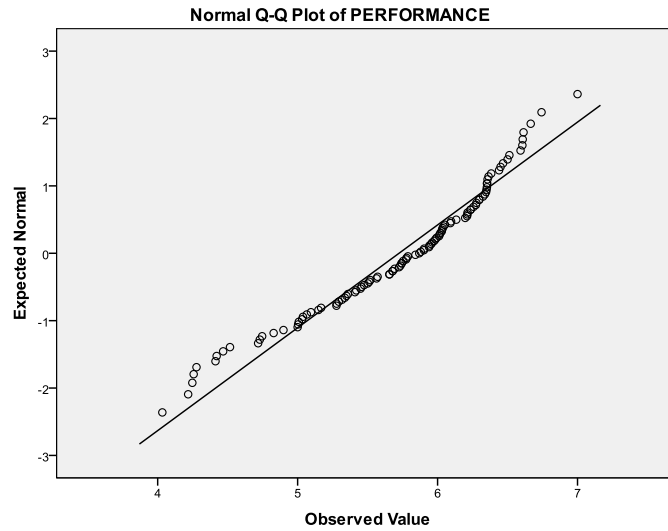
Histogram and Normality plot of Emotional Intelligence





Histogram and Normality plot of Performance





Appendix 30

Pearson product-moment correlations between emotional intelligence and performance at global and factorial level

| Scale | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|----------------------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| 1. Performance | - | .610** | .583** | .393** | .516** | .544** | - | - |
| 2. Emotional Intelligence | .610** | - | - | - | - | - | .535** | .578** |
| 3. Well being | .583** | - | - | - | - | - | .507** | .556** |
| 4. Self-control | .393** | - | - | - | - | - | .326** | .388** |
| 5. Emotionality | .516** | - | - | - | - | - | .467** | .476** |
| 6. Sociability | .544** | - | - | - | - | - | .483** | .511** |
| 7. Task performance | - | .535** | .507** | .326** | .467** | .483** | - | - |
| 8. Contextual performance | - | .578** | .556** | .388** | .476** | .511** | - | - |

** p < .001 level (2-tailed).

blue=medium correlation; red=strong correlation

Appendix 31

Correlations between emotional intelligence facets and total-, task- and contextual performance

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 |
| performance | 1 | .901** | .927** | .493** | .374** | .538** | .202* | .544** | .543** | .565** | .322** | .395** | .421** | .439** | .580** | .454** | .504** | .442** |
| Task Performance | .901** | 1 | .673** | .416** | .320** | .489** | .167 | .484** | .468** | .502** | .278** | .346** | .341** | .384** | .504** | .470** | .416** | .397** |
| Contextual Performance | .927** | .673** | 1 | .481** | .360** | .496** | .200* | .510** | .522** | .529** | .309** | .374** | .423** | .417** | .553** | .368** | .500** | .411** |
| self esteem | .493** | .416** | .481** | 1 | .576** | .690** | .467** | .774** | .430** | .826** | .367** | .586** | .579** | .673** | .735** | .499** | .579** | .688** |
| emotion expression | .374** | .320** | .360** | .576** | 1 | .558** | .098 | .630** | .570** | .639** | .305** | .719** | .364** | .419** | .515** | .549** | .470** | .468** |
| self-motivation | .538** | .489** | .496** | .690** | .558** | 1 | .306** | .812** | .549** | .724** | .393** | .621** | .537** | .578** | .737** | .640** | .657** | .635** |
| emotion regulation | .202* | .167 | .200* | .467** | .098 | .306** | 1 | .269** | .056 | .433** | .463** | .243* | .591** | .375** | .383** | .116 | .400** | .377** |
| happiness | .544** | .484** | .510** | .774** | .630** | .812** | .269** | 1 | .625** | .786** | .350** | .607** | .595** | .588** | .860** | .687** | .698** | .641** |
| empathy | .543** | .468** | .522** | .430** | .570** | .549** | .056 | .625** | 1 | .566** | .310** | .649** | .418** | .509** | .467** | .717** | .487** | .357** |
| social awareness | .565** | .502** | .529** | .826** | .639** | .724** | .433** | .786** | .566** | 1 | .372** | .652** | .613** | .706** | .761** | .545** | .639** | .740** |
| impulsivity (low) | .322** | .278** | .309** | .367** | .305** | .393** | .463** | .350** | .310** | .372** | 1 | .425** | .379** | .281** | .313** | .327** | .290** | .310** |
| emotion perception | .395** | .346** | .374** | .586** | .719** | .621** | .243* | .607** | .649** | .652** | .425** | 1 | .459** | .527** | .504** | .599** | .490** | .538** |
| stress management | .421** | .341** | .423** | .579** | .364** | .537** | .591** | .595** | .418** | .613** | .379** | .459** | 1 | .492** | .623** | .421** | .662** | .567** |
| emotion management | .439** | .384** | .417** | .673** | .419** | .578** | .375** | .588** | .509** | .706** | .281** | .527** | .492** | 1 | .528** | .407** | .435** | .602** |
| optimism | .580** | .504** | .553** | .735** | .515** | .737** | .383** | .860** | .467** | .761** | .313** | .504** | .623** | .528** | 1 | .545** | .744** | .619** |
| relationships | .454** | .470** | .368** | .499** | .549** | .640** | .116 | .687** | .717** | .545** | .327** | .599** | .421** | .407** | .545** | 1 | .599** | .440** |
| adaptability | .504** | .416** | .500** | .579** | .470** | .657** | .400** | .698** | .487** | .639** | .290** | .490** | .662** | .435** | .744** | .599** | 1 | .553** |
| assertiveness | .442** | .397** | .411** | .688** | .468** | .635** | .377** | .641** | .357** | .740** | .310** | .538** | .567** | .602** | .619** | .440** | .553** | 1 |

** p < .001 level (2-tailed).

*. p < .005 level (2-tailed).

Strengths of the correlations between emotional intelligence facets and total-, task- and contextual performance

| | SE | EE | SM | ER | HA | EMP | SA | I(L) | EP | STM | EM | OP | RS | AD | AS |
|-------------------------------|--------|--------|--------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Performance | .493** | .374** | .538** | .202* | .544** | .543** | .565** | .322** | .395** | .421** | .439** | .580** | .454** | .504** | .442** |
| Task Performance | .416** | .320** | .489** | .167 | .484** | .468** | .502** | .278** | .346** | .341** | .384** | .504** | .470** | .416** | .397** |
| Contextual Performance | .481** | .360** | .496** | .200* | .510** | .522** | .529** | .309** | .374** | .423** | .417** | .553** | .368** | .500** | .411** |

** p < .001 level (2-tailed).

grey= small correlation; blue=medium correlation; red=strong correlation

Appendix 32

Correlations between emotional intelligence and performance facets

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 |
|-----------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1.task requirement | 1 | .617* | .582* | .409* | .481* | .382* | .184 | .382* | .204* | .423* | .315* | .455* | .270* | .240* | .336* | .281* | .463* | .355* | .333* | .342* |
| 2.co-working | .617* | 1 | .718* | .590* | .586* | .297* | .294* | .430* | .120 | .404* | .432* | .406* | .209* | .302* | .294* | .283* | .425* | .402* | .386* | .333* |
| 3.communicati on | .582* | .718* | 1 | .625* | .567* | .416* | .347* | .462* | .124 | .441* | .466* | .458* | .253* | .356* | .269* | .436* | .437* | .467* | .367* | .366* |
| 4.extra effort | .409* | .590* | .625* | 1 | .740* | .426* | .329* | .426* | .181 | .435* | .473* | .447* | .266* | .328* | .389* | .342* | .475* | .349* | .464* | .358* |
| 5.loyalty | .481* | .586* | .567* | .740* | 1 | .473* | .344* | .501* | .193* | .518* | .501* | .544* | .311* | .371* | .400* | .439* | .560* | .337* | .468* | .411* |
| 6.self esteem | .382* | .297* | .416* | .426* | .473* | 1 | .576* | .690* | .467* | .774* | .430* | .826* | .367* | .586* | .579* | .673* | .735* | .499* | .579* | .688* |
| 7.emotion expression | .184 | .294* | .347* | .329* | .344* | .576* | 1 | .558* | .098 | .630* | .570* | .639* | .305* | .719* | .364* | .419* | .515* | .549* | .470* | .468* |
| 8.self-motivation | .382* | .430* | .462* | .426* | .501* | .690* | .558* | 1 | .306* | .812* | .549* | .724* | .393* | .621* | .537* | .578* | .737* | .640* | .657* | .635* |
| 9.emotion regulation | .204* | .120 | .124 | .181 | .193* | .467* | .098 | .306* | 1 | .269* | .056 | .433* | .463* | .243* | .591* | .375* | .383* | .116 | .400* | .377* |
| 10.happiness | .423* | .404* | .441* | .435* | .518* | .774* | .630* | .812* | .269* | 1 | .625* | .786* | .350* | .607* | .595* | .588* | .860* | .687* | .698* | .641* |
| 11.empathy | .315* | .432* | .466* | .473* | .501* | .430* | .570* | .549* | .056 | .625* | 1 | .566* | .310* | .649* | .418* | .509* | .467* | .717* | .487* | .357* |
| 12.social awareness | .455* | .406* | .458* | .447* | .544* | .826* | .639* | .724* | .433* | .786* | .566* | 1 | .372* | .652* | .613* | .706* | .761* | .545* | .639* | .740* |
| 13.impulsivity (low) | .270* | .209* | .253* | .266* | .311* | .367* | .305* | .393* | .463* | .350* | .310* | .372* | 1 | .425* | .379* | .281* | .313* | .327* | .290* | .310* |
| 14.emotion perception | .240* | .302* | .356* | .328* | .371* | .586* | .719* | .621* | .243* | .607* | .649* | .652* | .425* | 1 | .459* | .527* | .504* | .599* | .490* | .538* |
| 15.stress management | .336* | .294* | .269* | .389* | .400* | .579* | .364* | .537* | .591* | .595* | .418* | .613* | .379* | .459* | 1 | .492* | .623* | .421* | .662* | .567* |
| 16.emotion management | .281* | .283* | .436* | .342* | .439* | .673* | .419* | .578* | .375* | .588* | .509* | .706* | .281* | .527* | .492* | 1 | .528* | .407* | .435* | .602* |
| 17.optimism | .463* | .425* | .437* | .475* | .560* | .735* | .515* | .737* | .383* | .860* | .467* | .761* | .313* | .504* | .623* | .528* | 1 | .545* | .744* | .619* |
| 18.relationships | .355* | .402* | .467* | .349* | .337* | .499* | .549* | .640* | .116 | .687* | .717* | .545* | .327* | .599* | .421* | .407* | .545* | 1 | .599* | .440* |
| 19.adaptability | .333* | .386* | .367* | .464* | .468* | .579* | .470* | .657* | .400* | .698* | .487* | .639* | .290* | .490* | .662* | .435* | .744* | .599* | 1 | .553* |
| 20.assertiveness | .342* | .333* | .366* | .358* | .411* | .688* | .468* | .635* | .377* | .641* | .357* | .740* | .310* | .538* | .567* | .602* | .619* | .440* | .553* | 1 |

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The strengths of correlations between emotional intelligence and performance facets

| | Task requirement | Co-working | Communication | Extra effort | Loyalty |
|---------------------|------------------|------------|---------------|--------------|---------|
| Self esteem | .382** | .297** | .416** | .426** | .473** |
| Emotion expression | .184 | .294** | .347** | .329** | .344** |
| Self-motivation | .382** | .430** | .462** | .426** | .501** |
| Emotion regulation | .204* | .120 | .124 | .181 | .193* |
| Happiness | .423** | .404** | .441** | .435** | .518** |
| Empathy | .315** | .432** | .466** | .473** | .501** |
| Social awareness | .455** | .406** | .458** | .447** | .544** |
| Impulsiveness (low) | .270** | .209* | .253** | .266** | .311** |
| Emotion perception | .240* | .302** | .356** | .328** | .371** |
| Stress management | .336** | .294** | .269** | .389** | .400** |
| Emotion management | .281** | .283** | .436** | .342** | .439** |
| Optimism | .463** | .425** | .437** | .475** | .560** |
| Relationships | .355** | .402** | .467** | .349** | .337** |
| Adaptability | .333** | .386** | .367** | .464** | .468** |
| Assertiveness | .342** | .333** | .366** | .358** | .411** |

** p<.001 level (2-tailed).

*. p<.005 level (2-tailed).

grey= small correlation; blue=medium correlation; red=strong correlation

Appendix 33

Strengths of the correlations between organisational culture and total-, task- and contextual performance

| | clan now | adhocracy now | market now | hierarchy now |
|-------------------------------|----------|---------------|------------|---------------|
| Performance | .407** | .359** | -.092 | -.528** |
| Task Performance | .273** | .280** | -.089 | -.360** |
| Contextual Performance | .459** | .371** | -.081 | -.589** |

** p< .001 level (2-tailed).

grey= small correlation; blue=medium correlation; red=strong correlation

Appendix 34

Correlations between organisational culture types and performance facets

| | | task requirement | co- working | commun ication | extra effort | loyalty | clan now | adhocracy now | market now | hierarchy now |
|---------------------|------------------------|---------------------|----------------|-------------------|-----------------|---------|-------------|------------------|---------------|------------------|
| task requirement | Pearson Correlation | 1 | ,617** | ,582** | ,409** | ,481** | ,073 | ,232* | ,057 | -,242* |
| | Sig. (2- tailed) | | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 | ,453 | ,015 | ,559 | ,011 |
| | N | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 |
| co- working | Pearson Correlation | ,617** | 1 | ,718** | ,590** | ,586** | ,341** | ,288** | -,137 | -,396** |
| | Sig. (2- tailed) | ,000 | | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 | ,002 | ,156 | ,000 |
| | N | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 |
| communic ation | Pearson Correlation | ,582** | ,718** | 1 | ,625** | ,567** | ,275** | ,210* | -,131 | -,293** |
| | Sig. (2- tailed) | ,000 | ,000 | | ,000 | ,000 | ,004 | ,028 | ,175 | ,002 |
| | N | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 |
| extra effort | Pearson Correlation | ,409** | ,590** | ,625** | 1 | ,740** | ,412** | ,291** | -,113 | -,479** |
| | Sig. (2- tailed) | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 | | ,000 | ,000 | ,002 | ,244 | ,000 |
| | N | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 |
| loyalty | Pearson Correlation | ,481** | ,586** | ,567** | ,740** | 1 | ,444** | ,405** | -,036 | -,625** |
| | Sig. (2- tailed) | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 | | ,000 | ,000 | ,708 | ,000 |
| | N | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 |
| clan now | Pearson Correlation | ,073 | ,341** | ,275** | ,412** | ,444** | 1 | ,041 | -,626** | -,537** |
| | Sig. (2- tailed) | ,453 | ,000 | ,004 | ,000 | ,000 | | ,671 | ,000 | ,000 |
| | N | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 |
| adhocracy now | Pearson Correlation | ,232* | ,288** | ,210* | ,291** | ,405** | ,041 | 1 | ,108 | -,702** |
| | Sig. (2- tailed) | ,015 | ,002 | ,028 | ,002 | ,000 | ,671 | | ,265 | ,000 |
| | N | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 |

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|------------------|-----------------|--------|---------|---------|---------|---------|--------|---------|-------|-------|
| market now | Pearson | ,057 | -,137 | -,131 | -,113 | -,036 | - | ,108 | 1 | -,138 |
| | Correlation | | | | | | ,626** | | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,559 | ,156 | ,175 | ,244 | ,708 | ,000 | ,265 | | ,152 |
| | N | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 |
| hierarchy now | Pearson | -,242* | -,396** | -,293** | -,479** | -,625** | - | -,702** | -,138 | 1 |
| | Correlation | | | | | | ,537** | | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,011 | ,000 | ,002 | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 | ,152 | |
| | N | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 | 109 |

** p< .001 level (2-tailed).

*. p< .005 level (2-tailed).

Appendix 35

Coefficients of hierarchical multiple regression^a

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | Correlations | | | Collinearity Statistics | |
|-------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|--------|-------------|--------------|---------|-------|-------------------------|-------|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | Zero-order | Partial | Part | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | (Constant) | 4,774 | ,352 | | 13,570 | ,000 | | | | | |
| | gender | ,098 | ,138 | ,075 | ,712 | ,478 | ,144 | ,070 | ,064 | ,733 | 1,365 |
| | age | ,091 | ,109 | ,125 | ,838 | ,404 | ,022 | ,082 | ,076 | ,367 | 2,722 |
| | qualification | ,231 | ,062 | ,359 | 3,697 | ,000 | ,382 | ,341 | ,333 | ,861 | 1,161 |
| | tenure in the present position | -,034 | ,087 | -,055 | -,390 | ,697 | -,053 | -,038 | -,035 | ,409 | 2,446 |
| 2 | (Constant) | 2,371 | ,461 | | 5,137 | ,000 | | | | | |
| | gender | ,090 | ,115 | ,069 | ,782 | ,436 | ,144 | ,077 | ,059 | ,732 | 1,365 |
| | age | ,057 | ,091 | ,077 | ,621 | ,536 | ,022 | ,061 | ,047 | ,366 | 2,731 |
| | qualification | ,113 | ,055 | ,175 | 2,046 | ,043 | ,382 | ,198 | ,154 | ,774 | 1,291 |
| | tenure in the present position | ,034 | ,074 | ,054 | ,457 | ,649 | -,053 | ,045 | ,034 | ,401 | 2,493 |
| | global trait EI | ,543 | ,080 | ,555 | 6,759 | ,000 | ,610 | ,554 | ,510 | ,846 | 1,183 |
| 3 | (Constant) | 3,553 | ,450 | | 7,892 | ,000 | | | | | |
| | gender | ,006 | ,101 | ,005 | ,062 | ,951 | ,144 | ,006 | ,004 | ,718 | 1,393 |
| | age | ,025 | ,080 | ,034 | ,312 | ,755 | ,022 | ,031 | ,021 | ,365 | 2,743 |
| | qualification | ,138 | ,048 | ,215 | 2,865 | ,005 | ,382 | ,273 | ,188 | ,768 | 1,302 |
| | tenure in the present position | ,099 | ,065 | ,160 | 1,523 | ,131 | -,053 | ,149 | ,100 | ,389 | 2,569 |
| | global trait EI | ,426 | ,073 | ,435 | 5,849 | ,000 | ,610 | ,501 | ,384 | ,781 | 1,281 |
| | hierarchy now | -,018 | ,003 | -,417 | -5,821 | ,000 | -,528 | -,499 | -,382 | ,841 | 1,189 |

a. Dependent Variable: PERFORMANCE