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The role of trait emotional intelligence in task and conceptual performance: the case of functional managers in the hotel industry[12]

Unquestionably, adequate selection, recruitment, and retention of employees (for example through (re)training) results in high-quality work outcomes. 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. Research has confirmed the link between emotional intelligence and work outcomes (see, for example, Spencer Jr. and Spencer 1993; George 2000; Lopes et al. 2006)—emotional intelligence tests assist with the selection and recruitment of employees, more loyal and better performing than employees selected and recruited the 'usual' way, and with their subsequent training and retraining, through the identification of personal traits likely to affect their work (and life) outcomes. In the particular case of the hospitality sector, studies have started to emerge exploring the links between emotional intelligence and work outcomes (see, for example, Langhorn 2004; Sy, Tram, and O'Hara 2006; Scott-Halsell, Blum, and Huffman 2008; Min 2012). However, thorough research into the emotional intelligence of functional managers in the hotel industry—and into its role in task and contextual performance within given organisational cultures—is scant, both in Hungary and internationally.

Consequently, this article investigates the links between emotional intelligence and work outcomes—measured through task and contextual performance—in the particular context of the hotel industry. It is based on the author's extensive examination of the literature as part of her doctoral research, currently (February

2013) in midway progress, and it aims to make recommendations with regard to employee selection, recruitment, and retention. Customised (re)training, for example, enhances functional managers' awareness both of those personal traits that influence individual performance and of those organisational cultures that would most suit individual functional managers.

This article intends to synthesise the results of the literature review, not to reproduce the literature review in its entirety. To this end, the article is divided into six sections. Following this short introduction, the second section presents an overview of the hospitality sector in general and of the hotel industry in particular. The section examines the role tourism plays in the economy, with particular reference to the Hungarian economy and the wider EU economic context. The section also looks into possible explanations for the high employee turnover so characteristic of the tourism sector. The third section looks into similarities and differences between hospitality / hotel management and management in other industries. The section defines general and functional management and identifies the similarities and differences between them. It also examines the factors that lead to successful management and looks into the particular role personality plays. The fourth section defines the concept of performance and discusses ways in which performance could be measured. The section examines task and conceptual performance in particular. The fifth section introduces the concept of emotional intelligence and presents the theoretical and methodological evolution of this area of research. The section distinguishes between ability emotional intelligence and trait emotional intelligence, as well as between their respective methods of measurement. The link between emotional intelligence and performance at work is also discussed in this section, particularly with regard to the hospitality sector and the hotel industry. The final, sixth section summarises the findings of this extensive literature review. The section explains the implications these have for the author's wider, doctoral research and suggests further possible avenues for research.

The hospitality sector

Tourism is a key component of the service economy—in Hungary, it makes a direct contribution to the national economy of 4.6 per cent of GDP and an indirect contribution of 12 per cent (Hungarian Tourism Board 2011). According to the ITB *World Travel Trends Report* (2010), 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, 6.2 per cent of the working population are employed directly in the tourism sector and 5.1 per cent are employed indirectly (Hungarian Tourism Board 2011).

Hotels are a leading industry in the tourism sector. In the EU alone, for example, 1.1 per cent of the total working population are employed in the tourist accommodation industry—of these, about four out of every five people are employed on a fulltime basis (Eurostat 2011). Also, in Hungary, the average hotel occupancy is 75 per cent of the total capacity (Hungarian Hotel and Restaurant Association 2010). However, employment in this segment fluctuates more than just with seasonality—hotel jobs appear less stable than in the rest of the labour market (Eurostat 2011). According to István Németh, the Head of the Hungarian Spa Association (2011), guests are increasingly sophisticated, and expect customised service, not just quality service. Therefore, hiring highly qualified, loyal, self-motivated employees is essential, and hiring assertive functional managers[3] who deal well with conflicts, have a high empathy level, are adaptable, and perform well in stressful situations is vital.

Hospitality is a 24/7, 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, Lorena, and Khanna 2006). The career 'ladder' is rather horizontal—within the 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 to front office manager to general manager—restricts career development to different functional management positions, or to moving to a different hotel, eventually within the same hotel chain (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 characterise the hospitality sector, and require high levels of interpersonal skills and emotional intelligence (Testa 2004; Baum 2006). Constantly high work pressures result in high incident levels of burnout, 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).

However, when a subordinate's long and stressful hours result in reaching a managerial position, there is usually an urge to do the job well—or move elsewhere altogether. 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. This requires certain personality traits and competencies.

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

General and functional managers in the hotel industry: roles, competencies, and characteristics

Hotel managers differ from their counterparts in other industries in that they generally undertake a much wider range of activities and spend a major part of their time in frequent interactions with both guests and staff (Wood 1994). Hotel managers are thus key to shaping their organisations. According to Hayes and Ninemeier (2006: 2), hotel managers cannot 'fake'—they 'must have a genuine enthusiasm to please people who are visiting', and they must act as role models for their subordinates.

In the hotel industry, as elsewhere, awareness of personality traits and values minimises the risk of appointing unsuitable candidates to management positions and maximises the support organisations can offer with career development (Akrivos, Ladkin, and Reklitis 2007). According to Dalton (2010), successful management careers are characterised by mastery of multi-skilling: thinking skills, political skills, technical / professional skills, social and interpersonal skills, emotional understanding, and self-awareness. Wilson (1998) believed that successful management careers require workaholic and innovative managers— aware and knowledgeable of organisational policies and dynamics; effective negotiators, especially with fiscal authorities; and characterised by commitment, dynamism, and perfect appearance. Successful, effective hotel managers are characterised by personality traits (such as, for example, emotional stability and intelligence), good health, and a capacity to inspire the people around them (Morrison, Rimmington, and Williams 1999)—inborn characteristics, stable throughout adulthood. They are also characterised by personal values (Olver and Mooradian 2003)—learned characteristics, influenced by the environment. The two sets of characteristics are strongly interrelated.

Hotel managers can be categorised by task and by department—in turn, departments can be categorised by function, product / service, geography, customer, and process (Barrows and Powers 2009). Function and product / service are the two most common types of departmentalisation at organisational level, whilst geography and customer are the two most common types of departmentalisation at corporate level.

While managerial functions across the hospitality sector share many features in common, the hotel manager functions have five distinguishing characteristics (Guerrier 1987; Baum 1989; Wood 1994; Hayes and Ninemeier 2006; Barrows and Powers 2009). (1) Hotel managers joining the hospitality sector do not do so having followed a prescribed career pathway. (2) The extent of experience in the hospitality sector does not affect the hotel managers' career prospects. (3) Hotel managers may leave the hospitality sector altogether, if they perceive no long-term

benefit from their qualifications in the area. (4) Young managers are more likely to be committed to their company, if they can advance rapidly to functional management level. (5) Career development requires managerial mobility.

The head and leader of the hotel management team is the general manager, responsible for the hotel's short-term profitability and final decision making in policies and procedures regarding hotel-specific operation (Hayes and Ninemeier 2006). The general manager has a 'helicopter view of the organisation' (Dalton 2010: 19), and anticipates, conceptualises, and finds solutions to problems with assistance from functional managers. In a full-service hotel, to serve as a model for subordinates, the general manager job description includes specific duties (lead the revenue effort of the hotel by maximising the revenue per available room (RevPar), for example); minimum qualifications (strong interpersonal / leadership skills and caring behaviour toward both guests and team members, for example); and desirable qualifications (previous experience as department head, for example) (Hayes and Ninemeier 2006). By examining American hotels, Nebel, Lee, and Vidakovics (1995: 257–8) found that, far from being predestined for the job, 80 per cent of general managers had previously worked in functional manager positions for about three years, and had spent nearly 88 per cent of their time in only one hotel department. Nearly three quarters (72.5 per cent) of the general managers studied had worked in only one of only three departments (food and beverage, front office, and housekeeping)—only 20 per cent had worked in either sales and marketing or accounting and finance. Moreover, 69 per cent of the general managers investigated reported that experience in one of the operational departments (food and beverage, front office, and housekeeping) was essential in their appointment.

Soft skills (such as interpersonal skills), contextual behaviour, and desirable traits (such as sociability and self-control) were also essential in appointments to general management positions. Worsfold (1989a; 1989b) identified the necessary personal characteristics based on interviews with 28 successful general managers. He divided these personal characteristics into five categories, by ranking, where the figures inside the brackets indicate the numbers of general managers who thought that category important (Worsfold 1989a: 58): people skills (skills related to understanding people, leadership skills, ability to motivate, caring for people, interest in people, and the ability to communicate; 19); resilience, mental and physical (courage, stamina, energy, the need to be thick skinned, and good health; 10); motivation (dedication, drive, self motivation, and the need to succeed; 8); personality characteristics (personality, style, flair, extraversion, tolerance, aggression with the willingness to take risks, and the need to be stable; 7); and intelligence (intelligence, common sense, and the necessity of a good memory; 6).

However, general managers have to wear several 'hats'—'I'm wearing my sales manager's hat today` (Barrows and Powers 2009: 567)—and are not easy to

observe. Nevertheless, since 80 per cent of general managers had previously worked in functional manager positions (Nebel, Lee, and Vidakovics 1995: 257), it makes sense to examine the features that enable functional managers to advance into general manager positions.

Functional departments are specialist hotel units that bring together employees with certain skills and competencies. Functional managers are in charge of such specialist hotel units—in rest, their job descriptions are similar to those of general managers. The skills required from functional managers can be divided into four categories (Hayes and Ninemeier 2006: 64): 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, owners, etc.); administrative skills (the ability to organise and direct required work efforts); and technical skills (the ability to perform hotel management-specific tasks).

According to O'Fallon and Rutherford (2011), the key competencies for functional managers in the lodging industry are, in order: self-management, strategic positioning, implementation, critical thinking, interpersonal skills, leadership, and industry knowledge.

Alongside authorities relevant to their capacity as heads of units, functional managers are also accountable for specific responsibilities (Barrows and Powers 2009). Mintzberg (1973) believed that it is impossible to separate and categorise the different roles functional managers fulfil—all performances include informational and interpersonal elements, and these appear particularly influential in hotel and catering. Nevertheless, all functional managers' main role is to lead their units effectively and efficiently (Larkin 2009). According to Wood (1994), roles are sets of behaviour patterns in an organisation, and 'multiple role holder managers' experience stress. Hotel functional managers are such multiple role holders, with organisational responsibilities towards the guests of the hotel, the hotel owners, the general managers of the hotel, their staff, their peers, the suppliers to the hotel, etc.—in addition of course to personal responsibilities towards their families, their friends, and the wider community.

Role expectations can lead to conflict, stress, work overload, and role bargaining, with major influences on unhappiness, poor performance, and intention to quit (Macaulay and Wood 1992). Moreover, according to Brymer (1979; 1982), all hotel managers encounter stress at some point or other in their careers. Brymer (1979: 62) divided the stressors into four categories: individual (type A, workaholic, as most hotel managers are, or type B, laidback); family (the effects of work relocation on the entire family, for example); organisation (high responsibility in combination with inter-unit dependence, for example); and social and environmental (economic changes or public distrust, for example). Drummond (1990) grouped the symptoms of stress into psychological symptoms (low self-esteem, depression, etc.); physiological symptoms (headache, high blood pressure,

etc.); and performance symptoms (inability to make decisions, avoiding guests, tasks, and situations, etc.). Since stress affects individual and organisational performance alike, hotels have to strive to minimise pressure at work (Kusluvan 2003). Mullins (1992; 2005) took this view further when he stated that it is the hospitality management's responsibility to reduce and control stress at work. In his opinion, there are three measures hotel managements can take. The first measure is to remove the stress latent in the structure of the hotel—in order to cut costs, most hotels hire fewer and less carefully selected staff than optimally required, then expect them to perform well. According to Riley (1996), this is an unrealistic expectation. The second measure is to remove the stress inbuilt in the hotels' information and communication structures. Roles—defined through responsibilities, authorities, and accountabilities—must be clearly specified to prevent interdepartmental conflicts. The third measure is to design and implement a recruitment strategy that secures the human resources most relevant to the hotel industry—the kind of human resources that 'do an emotionally great job' (Wood 1994: 79).

Stress is the primary explanation behind high levels of intention to leave and high labour turnover (Macaulay and Wood 1992), but not the only explanation by any means. Johnson (1985) showed that highly rated hotels have low labour turnovers due to the employment of more—and more carefully selected and recruited—staff (Riley 1996); due to clearly specified roles and effective communication (Kusluvan 2003); as well as due to good working environments (Brymer 1982). Other factors influencing hotel managers' high turnover include (Deery and Iverson 1996; Jackson and DeFranco 2005) the high ratio of young, part-time, especially female employees; the low pay; the limited training; and (Deery and Shaw 1999) the organisational culture. Garavan, O'Brien, and O'Hanon (2006: 671) revealed that the 'combination of demographic, human capital, psychological attributes and hotel characteristics, explain significant variance in the turnover cognitions of hotel managers', with the most significant explanation for management turnover being their perceived commitment to the organisation. High management turnover has financial drawbacks, and the more is 'invested' into a manager, the higher the financial loss is (Guilding 2003; 2009). This loss includes leaving costs, replacement costs, training costs, and indirect costs (in customer satisfaction, for example)—all costs hotels are mostly unaware of (Lashley and Rowson 2000). Kaufmann, Lashley, and Schreier (2009) counselled that hotels' lack of adequate management (and staff) training results in low customer satisfaction and productivity as well as high staff turnover. 'Pull' factors (such as better salary, better working hours, permanent and alternative employment, improved career prospects, training and development, and empowerment) contribute to retaining hotel managers, whilst 'push' factors (such as lack of training, poor organisational image, unfavourable terms and conditions,

discontent with superiors, irregular work patterns and work hours, poor payment, and lack of autonomy) influence them to leave (Lashley 2000).

These factors confirm the importance of human resources practices (Lashley and Rowson 2000). A well-planned selection and recruitment strategy secures high levels of required competencies, social skills, and emotional intelligence from the start (Langhorn 2004)—characteristics which can be further developed, if necessary. Understanding of the interconnections among recruitment, training, and retention of managers and staff is fairly recent in the hotel industry (Jackson and DeFranco 2005). However, emotionally intelligent managers place high priority on (re)training and retaining skilled employees, in order to enhance performance (Rosete and Ciarrochi 2005; Rojek 2010), as well as customer satisfaction and organisational commitment (Vance 2006). Mann (1998) argued that there are three emotional states when dealing with customers: emotions felt, emotions displayed, and the job-role-required emotional performance—emotional intelligence is a key influence on business success in the hotel industry (Kaufmann, Lashley, and Schreier 2009).

Different competencies contribute to individual work outcomes in different ways. Therefore, while individual employee performance is influenced by personal abilities and personality traits, the concept of performance and the methods of measuring performance need to be explored in further detail.

Measuring task and contextual performance

The concept of measuring performance dates back to the early days of the Twentieth Century, when Frederick Taylor's (1911) 'scientific management' advanced the idea that work can be measured, analysed, and controlled. Any complex task can be viewed as an assembly of simple tasks that are easy to standardise, and that enable measuring actual performance against prescribed, standardised performance (Kaplan 1990).

Thus, performance can be defined variously, for example as measuring individuals' actual performance against objectives and responsibilities (Neale 1991) or as measuring the efficiency and effectiveness of an activity, where efficiency corresponds to organisational aims and customer demands and effectiveness represents the utilisation of resources to reach set aims (Neely, Gregory, and Platts 1995; Walters 1995). According to Ingram (1996), performance refers either to successful outcome or to the way business is conducted, and managers have to consider both—in addition, employees' performance in supplying goods and / or services may be rated by customers too. Gallwey (1974) defined performance simply as opportunities minus obstacles, with opportunities realised only if internal and external conditions are favourable.

Controversially, Aguinis (2009) argued that performance is not the direct or indirect outcomes of employees' endeavours, but what employees do and how they behave—therefore, he argued, performance is 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). According to Boyatzis (1982), effective performance has three interlinked elements: individual competencies, job demand, and organisational environment. These definitions of performance differ from one another, but overlap to a large extent, and indicate that performance can be managed and measured, both individually and collectively, at both unit / team level and organisational level.

Performance in the hospitality sector is defined similarly to performance in other service sector organisations, and is managed and measured from financial and operational (hard), organisational (hard and soft), and human (soft) perspectives (Goldsmith et al. 1997; Claver-Corte's, Molina-Azori'n, and Pereira-Moliner 2007; Klidas, van den Berg, and Wilderom 2007; O'Fallon and Rutherford 2011).

Measuring performance is a means of managing performance (Halachmi 2005). It is a good indicator of an organisation's state of play, and of its likely trajectory (Armstrong and Baron 2011). However, measuring performance is hampered by a number of factors (Furnham 1996). (1) Managers feel uncomfortable with giving negative or corrective feedback, and most are unaware of the negative consequences (Adams 2005). (2) Managers are not adequately trained in measuring performance. This may cause uncertainty and feelings of unfairness among employees. (3) Managers opt for outsourcing performance measurement, for example through emotional intelligence software, in lieu of face-to-face discussions with the employees. In addition, managers restrict measuring performance to checking the financial (hard) outcomes. (4) At the very worst, the organisation does not take performance measurement seriously.

A number of performance measurement ideas, models, and systems were developed for the hotel industry (see, for example, Mattsson 1994; Phillips 1999; Denton and White 2000; Doran, Haddad, and Chow 2002), most of which are based on the balanced scorecard theory and focus on financial performance. In the aftermath of the global economic crisis of 2008, human resources performance re-emerged as the focus of performance measurement, both at individual level and at functional level (see, for example, Murphy and Murrmann 2009; Zigan and Zeglat 2010).

However, evaluating managers across a wide range of job categories is difficult, not least because developing evaluation criteria is complex. Traditionally, in the hotel industry, the focus has been on short-term results. Consequently, hotel managers have been assessed primarily on control of expenses and profitability criteria (Umbreit 1986). Behavioural performance studies did not start until the

mid-1970s, based on the behaviourally anchored rating scale (BARS) developed by Smith and Kendall (1963) and extended to the service sector (Campbell et al. 1973), ten years later. Umbreit (1986) refined BARS by validating hotel managers' performance dimensions rigorously—seven independent criteria and their accompanying behavioural statements were thus defined: handling guest complaints and promoting guest relations; developing market strategy and monitoring sales programmes; communicating with employees; motivating and modifying behaviour; implementing policy, making decisions, and delegating responsibility; monitoring operations and maintaining product quality; and handling personnel responsibilities.

Behaviour influences managers' performance directly—in turn, this determines team and organisational success or failure (Boyatzis 1982). Certain behaviours and an environment allowing for the correction of behaviour may result in high hotel manager effectiveness (Umbreit 1986). Consciously or unconsciously, behaviour is embedded in personality traits and attitudes (Ajzen 2005).

Task and contextual performance

Among the factors influencing performance (work environment, human resources practices, organisational culture, etc.), employee behaviour is undoubtedly one of the most dominant (Kusluvan 2003). However, understanding performance requires understanding the multidimensional aspect of performance, where two of the dimensions are particularly prominent, task and contextual (Borman et al. 2001), also referred to as prosocial behaviour (Penner et al. 2005) and organisational citizenship behaviour (Netemeyer et al. 1997).

This approach to performance can be traced back to Fox's (1974) categorisation of work roles—he distinguished between task range role (tasks that can vary from specific to diffuse) and discretionary content (behaviour needed for specified and disperse jobs). Furthermore, Fox argued that all jobs contain both elements, but that the discretionary elements come from within the individual and are self-controlled—they cannot be controlled externally. Consequently, hotel functional managers, for example, require a good command of self-control.

Borman (2004) warned that task and contextual behaviour need to be regarded separately—individuals may accomplish tasks highly satisfactorily even when their contextual performance is unsatisfactory. Griffin, Neal, and Neale (2000) also argued that task and contextual performance should be distinguished, and further claimed that individuals' understanding of situations allows them to connect to and benefit from contextual behaviour, which in turn contributes to unit and organisational effectiveness. Table 1 (p. 81) summarises the characteristics of both dimensions.

Task performance is primarily determined by abilities and skills, whilst contextual performance is influenced by personality (Arvey and Murphy 1998). In addition, 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). Organ (1997) named five types of organisational citizenship behaviour as contextual performance indicators, widely acknowledged and used—altruism (helping co-workers); courtesy (treating co-workers with respect and preventing conflicts); sportsmanship (sustaining a positive attitude by not complaining about insignificant issues); civic virtue (maintaining an interest in and responding to the strategic life of the organisation); and conscientiousness (complying with organisational rules and requirements, and job dedication).

Task performance	Contextual performance
activities that transform raw materials into goods and services	persisting with enthusiasm and exerting extra effort to complete tasks successfully (being punctual, for example)
activities that help distributing finished products; services planning	carrying out tasks that are not formally part of their job (making constructive suggestions, for example)
activities that help planning, coordination, and supervision	helping and cooperating with others
activities that enable organisations to function effectively and efficiently	following organisational rules and procedures; endorsing, supporting, and defending organisational objectives (organisational loyalty, for example)

Source: Based on Aguinis (2009).

Table 1:   Main characteristics of task and contextual performance

Altruism and supervisor–subordinate relationships were found to be the key values among hospitality managers (Chen and Choi 2008). Courtesy and sportsmanship are vital in overcoming employee stress in the hotel environment, and conscientiousness is an added value for hotel managements.

Performance management assumes the management of both task and contextual performance. However, in the particular context of the hospitality sector, characterised by continuous interaction with both guests and co-workers, contextual performance plays the essential role (Kuslavan 2003). Contextual

performance influences directly customer / guest satisfaction, team effectiveness, and the intention to leave (Chen, Hui, and Sego 1998) and indirectly financial organisational outcomes (Cohen 1999). Measuring contextual performance is vital—employee assessment is biased if not designed from both perspectives, task and contextual (Bolino et al. 2006).

In summary, performance is influenced by personality traits, personal abilities, and individual behaviours, as well as by internal and external environments. The next section explores emotional intelligence as one of the performance influencing factors and explains both concept and measurement.

Emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence and its relation to work outcomes and performance have been studied from different perspectives. The popularity of emotional intelligence stems from research confirming that job performance predictions based on intelligence quotient (IQ) alone are only 10–30 per cent accurate, whilst the additional consideration of emotional intelligence takes accuracy above 30 per cent (Jensen 1998). Emotional intelligence is key to business success in the hotel industry (Kaufmann, Lashley, and Schreier 2009).

The concept of emotional intelligence

Daniel Goleman's (1996) work on emotional intelligence hit a sensitive and thought provoking area that slowly but firmly has influenced even the most 'down-to-earth' economies ever since. The human factor has always been present in business. However, its extreme influence on sustainable competitive advantage was only realised in the late 1990s, when research showed significant evidence of positive correlation between emotional intelligence and performance (George 2000; Lopes et al. 2006), customer satisfaction (Hochschild 1983), and individual and organisational success (see, for example, Zeidner, Matthews, and Roberts 2004; Furnham 2008; Blanchard et al. 2010). However, emotional intelligence research prior to the Twenty-first Century was argued to have been based on anecdotal case descriptions rather than scientific measurements (Dulewicz and Higgs 2000). Nevertheless, researchers found partners in competitive organisations where managers believed in knowing and managing feelings, a worthwhile tangible asset (Hill 2010).

The origins of emotional intelligence can be traced back to Thorndike's (1920) concept of social intelligence defined as the ability to understand and manage individuals and take sensible actions in human relations. Nearly forty years later, Eysenck (1958: 175) questioned whether personality can be measured and said '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"'. The contemporary forms of emotional intelligence only appeared in the late 1980s / early 1990s, when various terminology emerged (Payne 1989; Goleman 1996; Cooper and Sawaf 1997; Petrides and Furnham 2001; Bar-On 2006). Salovey and Mayer (1990: 189) were the first to define emotional intelligence as such. Their initial definition of 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' was later 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). Bar-On (2000; 2006) combined previous approaches and used the concept of emotional-social intelligence to define skills, competencies, and facilitators and verify human behaviour. Emotional intelligence also bonds numerous fields of psychological science, such as human cognitive abilities, self regulation theory, or neuroscience of emotion (Zeidner, Matthews, and Roberts 2004).

At the turn of the Twenty-first Century, to diminish misconceptions and clarify the various theoretical distinctions, Petrides and Furnham (2001) examined the state of play of emotional intelligence theories and measurements. According to Pérez-González, Petrides, and Furnham (2005), there is a clear conceptual distinction between ability emotional intelligence (or cognitive-emotional ability) and trait emotional intelligence (or emotional self-efficacy). The former concerns emotion-related cognitive abilities, and is measured with the aid of maximum-performance tests. The latter concerns emotion-related behavioural characteristics, and is measured with the aid of self-reports (Petrides 2009). 'Trait emotional intelligence is a distinct, compound trait located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies' (Petrides, Pérez-González, and Furnham 2007: 26). In other words, trait emotional intelligence is a collection of emotion-related self-perceptions—an individual's confidence in her or his capability to perform various tasks which, according to Mikolajczak et al. (2007), correlates negatively with the individual's IQ.

The distinction between trait and ability emotional intelligence is determined by the research methods employed in measuring emotional intelligence (Petrides 2010). Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000) argued that the distinction is not between ability and trait emotional intelligence, but between ability and mixed emotional intelligence, whereby mixed emotional intelligence refers to mixed abilities and personal traits, including situational, motivational, and dispositional variables (MacCann et al. 2004). However, mixed emotional intelligence theoreticians disregard concerns over emotional intelligence measurement.

Furnham (2001) highlighted this weakness and claimed that cognitive abilities cannot be measured successfully by self-reporting.

Measuring emotional intelligence

Adequate measurement of emotional intelligence may contribute to successful employee selection and recruitment, judicious employee assessment and promotion, enhanced performance, customised coaching and (re)training, and others (MacCann et al. 1993). However, what exactly 'adequate measurement of emotional intelligence' actually implies in practice is a matter of no small interest and debate (Austin et al. 2004).

Various emotional intelligence measurements were developed, based be it on firm or on vague theoretical backgrounds, including with regards to measurement aspects such as reliability, validity, and factor structure (Petrides 2011). Some researchers developed self-report questionnaires (see, for example, Schutte et al. 1998), whereas others developed tests around correct / incorrect type questions (Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey 1999)—assuming they all operationalised the same contract, this obviously resulted in conceptual confusion and conflict (Pérez-González, Petrides, and Furnham 2005).

Petrides (2009) stated that, when regarded as mental abilities, emotional intelligence cannot be measured—there are no perceptible criteria that would allow scoring mental abilities objectively (Spain, Eaton, and Funder 2000; Watson 2000). Nevertheless, researchers such as Mayer et al. (2002) claimed that ability tests had undergone changes that had improved their validity. Mayer himself co-developed the Emotional Accuracy Research Scale (EARS), which includes several given situations (Mayer and Geher 1996)—however, since the test was developed by asking an individual of the experience in the given situations, its validity is dubious (Stought, Saktofske, and Rarker 2009). The Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS), another situational judgement test co-developed by Mayer, consists of stories of a fictional person and seven emotional feelings the presence / absence of which has to be indicated on a 5-point Likert scale (Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey 1999)—since the situations are again subjectively measured, and since there are 'good' extremes and 'bad' extremes, the test generates stereotypical emotional intelligence categories (Petrides 2011). Despite factor structures and internal consistency of ability measurements still raising queries (Legree 1995; Pérez-González, Petrides, and Furnham 2005), MEIS (Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey 1999) and its descendant, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (Mayer et al. 2002), are presently the most extensively used ability tests. Brody (2004: 237) criticised MSCEIT heavily and argued 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 of the test truly measuring individual differences.

The validities of trait emotional intelligence tests—including those regarded as mixed emotional intelligence tests by researchers such as Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000)—were less extensively explored and compared than the validities of ability emotional intelligence tests. After comparing MSCEIT (Mayer et al. 2002), the ability test with two self-report measures, the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), and the Self-report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT), Brackett and Mayer (2003) concluded that the two trait tests (EQ-i and SREIT) were moderately interrelated, while neither trait test showed links with the ability test (MSCEIT). Gardner and Qualter (2010) studied the concurrent and incremental validities of three trait emotional intelligence tests—the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS) (Schutte et al. 1998), the Multidimensional Emotional Intelligence Assessment (MEIA) (Tett, Fox, and Wang 2005), and the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) (Petrides and Furnham 2001)—and found TEIQue a superior predictor of multiple psychological criteria. However, Pérez-González, Petrides, and Furnham (2005: 126) argued that hardly any 'trait emotional intelligence measures have been developed within a clear theoretical framework and even fewer have sturdy empirical foundation'. They undertook a thorough examination of trait emotional intelligence measurements in terms of predictive validity, incremental validity, discriminant validity, and factor structure (Pérez-González, Petrides, and Furnham 2005: 130–3). The minimum Cronbach alpha for reliability for individual testing is 0.80, according to Anastasi and Urbina (1997). Of the 14 tests investigated by Pérez-González, Petrides, and Furnham (2005), only three fulfilled Anastasi and Urbina's (1997) minimum reliability requirement—EQ-i (0.85), SUEIT[4] (0.85), and TEIQue (0.90). In addition, TEIQue had the highest convergent and discriminant validity, as well as the highest correlation with the Giant Three (extraversion, neuroticism, and psychometrics) and Big Five (openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) dimensions of human personality. The convergent and discriminant validities of the trait emotional intelligence tests investigated are unclear, low, or moderate, with EQ-i and TEIQue showing high correlations with the Big Five personality dimensions. In terms of structure, only TEIQue, TEII[5], WLEIS[6], and TMMS[7] had clearly distinguishable factors, and, with the exception of TMMS, could provide global scores. 'Appendix on research methodology' (pp. 90–4)

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[4]   Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test.

[5]   Tapia Emotional Intelligence Inventory.

[6]   Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scales.

[7]   Trait Meta Mood Scale.

further explores the virtues and vices of TEIQue, the author's psychometric instrument of choice for her doctoral research.

The effect of emotional intelligence over performance

According to Blanchard et al. (2010), managers are key figures whose leadership style should include coaching and should lead to employee involvement, empowerment, and support. Goleman, Boyatzis, and Mckee (2002: 212) too referred to effective executive leaders as coaches or, better still, mentors who create a secure atmosphere for employees to 'spread their wings, trying out new style and strengths'. Furthermore, they argued that, since leaders work with their employees in teams, emotional intelligence is a key element of leadership effectiveness. Leaders motivate and challenge team members to be effective and achieve high-performance, influence interaction, build trust, and encourage team members to achieve the organisational vision (Goleman, Boyatzis, and Mckee 2002).

The relationship between emotional intelligence and work-related performance started to be investigated in the early 1980s, when several projects were carried out in the manufacturing industry to examine the non-financial, human factors influencing work outcomes. The first study did not investigate emotional intelligence as such, but it did investigate personality traits. Its focus was on the relation among stress, optimism, and financial outcomes such as productivity (Boyatzis 1982; Lusch and Serpkenci 1990; Seligman 1990). With the appearance of the emotional intelligence concept (Salovey and Mayer 1990), research studies started to investigate personality in further depth. For example, Spencer Jr. and Spencer's (1993) experimental study investigated the differences between the L'Oréal sales agents selected the 'usual' way and those selected on the basis of certain emotional intelligence competencies. The study showed that sales agents thus selected sold more than sales agents selected the 'usual' way and their turnover during the first year of employment was 63 per cent lower. Studies by McClelland (1998) and Goleman (1998) obtained similar results. Goleman (1998), for example, found that employees hired on an emotional intelligence basis were 90 per cent more likely to complete their on-the-job training. In other research, Spencer Jr., McClelland, and Kelner (1997) examined 300 top executives from 50 international companies and identified six emotional competencies that distinguish star managers from the rest: influence, team leadership, organisational awareness, self-confidence, achievement-driven attitude, and leadership style.

In the Twenty-first Century, empirical studies of the relationship between emotional intelligence and work outcomes rest increasingly on methodological grounds. What test should be applied became an important issue for researchers, who developed and tried out their own tests to collect data for validation—Spencer

Jr. and Spencer (1993) used Emotional Intelligence Competencies (EIC), for example; Dulewicz and Higgs (2004) used the Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (EIQ); Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005), Carmeli and Josman (2006), and Kerr et al. (2006) used SEIS; Groves, McEnrue, and Shen (2008) used MSCEIT; and Sánchez-Ruiz, Pérez-González, and Petrides (2010) used TEIQue. These and other studies (such as Ashkanasy and Dasborough 2003, for example) investigated managers and university students (as future managers) and found that, for both generations, the levels of emotional intelligence show a relationship between individual and organisational performance. Research by Wolf, Pescosolido, and Druskat (2002) found that empathy was related to selection for leadership positions within self-aware teams—a possible indication that team members' emotional intelligence levels also influence decision-making. Self-management, creativity, positive personality, and the ability to develop cohesive and supportive relationships with people were also found to influence performance. George (2000) stated that emotional intelligence is a key factor both in private life, where it enables individuals to be socially effective, and at work, where emotionally intelligent managers have effective social interactions with both colleagues and customers.

Managing people is an emotional process in itself, and managers should recognise employees' emotional state and intervene accordingly for efficient performance. After studying 117 public service executive managers, Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) found that excellent business performance was linked with managers with high emotional intelligence and specific characteristics such as high openness. Furthermore, such managers can manage emotions better than others.

The effect of emotional intelligence over performance in the hospitality sector

In the hospitality sector, studies of the effect of emotional intelligence over performance are relatively new (Min, Tang, and Yin 2011). Carvelzani et al. (2003), for example, investigated seven tour operators' attitudes, opinions, and observations, and found that tour operators make use of emotional intelligence to offer personalised travel solutions. Min (2012) examined the relationships between tour guides' emotional intelligence and demographic variables, and found that gender and length of service affect emotional intelligence. Scott-Halsell, Blum, and Huffman (2008) examined the hospitality managers' particular socio-demographic roles and emotional intelligence levels, and found that average emotional intelligence scores for professionals are above the norm. Their study did not find a relationship between emotional intelligence and qualifications, but those, especially women, who spent less than twenty years in hotels, restaurants, and private clubs were interviewed to allow them adequate freedom of expression. Langhorn (2004) studied pub / restaurant general managers, and found that general

managers' performance depends on their awareness and understanding of their emotions. Furthermore, the general managers' overall emotional intelligence levels indicated positive profit performance and high employee and customer satisfaction. Sy, Tram, and O'Hara (2006) carried out a study of a national restaurant chain and confirmed that employees' emotional intelligence was positively associated with performance and job satisfaction. A study of the foodservice industry revealed that executive's emotional intelligence shows a relationship between social and stress management skills (Cha, Cichy, and Kim 2008). Executives with low emotional intelligence had poor social skills and managed work-related stress much worse than managers with high emotional intelligence. Scott-Halsell, Blum, and Huffmann (2008; 2011) carried out comparative research to investigate hospitality undergraduate students and hotel industry professionals, and found significant differences. Hotel industry professionals had higher overall emotional intelligence, behaviour, empathy, knowledge, and motivation abilities than hospitality undergraduate students, which may imply that traits can change with experience and / or learning (Dulewicz and Higgs 2004; Roberts and Mroczek 2008). Scott-Halsell, Blum, and Huffmann (2011) also showed that professionals with up to twenty years of service in the hotel industry were more able to express emotions than their younger colleagues, possibly because of the upbringing of the baby-boom generation, raised to express emotions differently than younger generations.

Scott-Halsell, Blum, and Huffmann (2011) examined emotional intelligence in relation to age, gender, experience, hospitality sector segment, and education. However, their study used the Emotional Intelligence Test (2nd revision, developed by Plumeus), which mixes abilities and traits and comprises 70 multiple-choice questions that are analysed as an IQ test. Furthermore, the study did not examine emotional intelligence in relation to performance, and the sample size of 65 was relatively small and could not be generalised for the entire hospitality management population.

It is clear from this review of the relevant literature that a thorough examination of the hotel managers' performance in relation to their trait emotional intelligence is needed—the supposition that individual abilities influence mostly task performance and personality traits affect mainly contextual performance requires particular attention.

Conclusion

This article synthesised the theories and exploratory studies that provide the author with a firm foundation for her doctoral research on the relationship between hotel functional managers' emotional intelligence and their individual task and

contextual performance. Certainly, within only about twenty pages or so, it is impossible to pan out a detailed literature analysis. Rather, the aim of this article was to explore why—along with individual abilities and professional knowledge—soft skills are important in hotels, emotional workplace representatives of the service industry. The multiple roles hotel functional managers perform vis-à-vis various stakeholders require versatile and adaptive personalities, as well as team leader qualities.

The synthesis revealed that employees with high levels of emotional intelligence levels tend to perform better than employees with low levels of emotional intelligence. However, both concepts—emotional intelligence and performance—need thorough definitions in order to validate this general statement.

Notwithstanding a candidate's subjective enthusiasm for a career in the hospitality sector, an objective competency map is clearly needed. Selecting some candidates over others requires knowledge and understanding of their strengths and weaknesses—of those characteristics that would ensure their successful retention. Thus, several tests and methods are currently used in selection, recruitment, and (re)training—however, their liabilities have to be considered when trying to predict the candidates' efficient and effective retention. For her own research, the author has opted for a trait emotional intelligence measurement which roots in psychological science and concepts such as human cognitive abilities. Whilst abilities are competencies that can be learned, personality traits are innate—however, they can be shaped by family, education, and cultural environment, as well as developed consciously, albeit only through self-knowledge, determination, and certain abilities. Since personality development is a long process, personality traits can probably forecast a 'person–position match' more rapidly, as well as more adequately—therefore, good, forward planning should involve trait emotional intelligence measurements. Furthermore, (re)training employees should focus first on self exploration of personality traits and only second on ability development.

In the majority of Hungarian hotels, human resource management either does not exist or its role is limited to financial aspects of employment and to aspects of labour law and formal employee selection and recruitment. (There are exceptions, of course, mainly within international chains.) Staff / manager turnover is high and loyalty is debatable. As guests become increasingly aware of their needs, the hospitality industry's role must change from satisfying these needs to anticipating, sensing, and preceding such needs. The future of human resource management in hospitality lies with the selection of people who are aware of and can manage well their own feelings and those of others. Hotels in Hungary have recently realised that skilled and qualified graduates are not enough. As a founding member of the Hungarian Hotel and Restaurant Association Education Board, and as a university lecturer, the author sees the potential for developing emotionally aware students for the hospitality labour market.

Appendix on research methodology

The objective of the doctoral research at the origin of this article is fourfold. First, it investigates emotional intelligence among functional managers to facilitate its application in employee selection, in particular in the hotel industry. Second, it identifies organisational performance indicators in the hotel industry, in order to identify functional managers' individual task and contextual performance indicators. Third, it investigates the relationship between functional managers' emotional intelligence and their individual task and contextual performance in the hotel industry. Fourth, it identifies those organisational cultures that would most suit the individual functional managers in the hotel industry. This appendix examines some of the methodological issues involved, concentrating on TEIQue, the author's psychometric instrument of choice.

Reliability and validity are vital in the selection of a psychometric instrument (Crowther and Lancaster 2009). After studying the reliability and viability of various psychometric instruments, as well as the results of various research in the area, TEIQue was selected to measure the emotional intelligence of functional managers in the hotel industry. TEIQue has eight incorporations, varying from child to adult and from short to long. It measures individuals' understanding of themselves and of other people, as well as their ability to use this knowledge to achieve set goals (Petrides 2011). TEIQue 1.5 (referred to as TEIQue, from now on), the long form of the adult test, allows for the particular investigation of the relationships between inborn personality traits and the functional managers' task and contextual performance in the hotel industry. When the desired, necessary individual traits are known, incorporating TEIQue in well-developed employee selection may contribute to high, long-lasting individual performance, with further positive influences over both unit and organisational performance (Van Rooy and Viswesvaran 2004). Nevertheless, both internal environmental changes (such as, for instance, a worsening in working conditions) and external environmental changes (such as, for instance, changes due to economic turmoil) may deter employees from high performance, regardless of their 'positive' personalities. Also, insufficient challenges and the lack of future prospects would have a similar, negative effect.

Its foundation on psychological theory and the ensuing nearly ten years of programmatic research are the first and, by far, main argument in favour of using TEIQue (Petrides 2009). Cattell (1973) argued that any amateur can make up a test with accepted homogeneity, reliability, and validity, but to determine personality structures and adequate measuring scales takes years of programmatic research. Companies and consultancy groups who develop such tests without involving

relevant experts—and whose employees receive baseless feedback and undergo pointless training, as a result—can do more harm than good (Antonakis 1993). Moreover, according to researchers (for example, MacCann et al. 2004; Pérez-González, Petrides, and Furnham 2005; Waterhouse 2006; Petrides 2011), most emotional intelligence theories and tests have been (and are still being) developed without sufficient psychometric theories, conceptualisation, and interpretation of findings.

Facets	Number of items	Mean	Standard deviation	Alpha
adaptability	9	4.65	0.85	0.75
assertiveness	9	4.89	0.93	0.77
emotional expression	10	4.74	1.22	0.89
emotional management	9	4.87	0.82	0.70
emotional perception	10	4.84	0.81	0.73
emotional 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	**Number of items**	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**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
wellbeing	3	5.24	0.83	0.83
Overall emotional intelligence	**15**	**4.90**	**0.59**	**0.90**

Source: Based on Petrides (2009: 19) by permission of the copyright owner. (© K. V. Petrides. All rights reserved.)

Table 2: Descriptive and internal consistencies for the TEIQue variables

Petrides and Furnham (2001) developed the first sampling domain of TEIQue, by applying the test to the Giant Three and Big Five domains, with solid evidence of consistency in personality terminology (Furnham 2008). The long form (153 items) of the adult test (TEIQue 1.5) started to be developed in 1998 and underwent several revisions until finalised in 2001. The short form (30 out of 153 items, methodologically selected) of the adult test (TEIQue 1.5SF) was validated in 2010. The 153 items cover 15 facets ('optimism', 'happiness', 'self-esteem', 'emotional management', 'assertiveness', 'social awareness', 'relationships', 'emotional expression', 'emotional perception', 'empathy', 'stress management', 'impulsiveness', 'emotional regulation', 'self-motivation', and 'adaptability') in the construct's sampling domain, each item belonging to one facet only (Petrides 2009). The 153 positive and negative items counterbalance one another within and among the 15 facets, as well as within and among the four factors ('wellbeing', 'self-control', 'emotionality', and 'sociability') plus one (containing two auxiliary facets, 'self motivation' and 'adaptability', which add up to the Global TEIQue scores) and within and among global traits. By 2012, TEIQue had been translated into 17 languages. Its Hungarian adaptation (Komlósi and Göndör 2011; 2013) and validation process started in 2011, on university students. The test was then applied to middle managers in production firms and as part of a tourism marketing project in Veszprém (Komlósi 2012).

TEIQue is a self-report test designed to be factor analysed at the facet level on a 7-point Likert scale, argued to be the best for maximisation of reliability, including by comparison with the 5-point alternative (Coelho and Esteves 2007). Table 2 (p. 91) summarises the descriptive and internal consistency for the TEIQue variables (where N = 1,721, of which 912 female and 764 male, with 61 unreported) (Petrides 2009). The alphas for the four factors—0.78 for 'emotionality', 0.79 for 'self-control', 0.82 for 'sociability', and 0.83 for 'wellbeing'—as well as for the 'overall emotional intelligence' (0.90) are very strong.

Regarding the conceptual / psychometric validity, the TEIQue facets emerged from the Big Five, while the factors were developed by four independent research groups, each factor containing a cluster of correlated definite traits—for example, 'extraversion' includes 'warmth', 'positive emotion', 'assertiveness', etc. (Matthews, Deary, and Whiteman 2003; Vernon et al. 2008).

According to the TEIQue factor inter-correlation matrix, emotional intelligence correlates negatively with 'neuroticism' (-25) and positively with 'extraversion' (0.33), 'conscientiousness' (0.34), and 'openness to experience' (0.24), while being interdependent of 'agreeableness' (-0.05) (Petrides 2009: 29). Concerning criterion validity, research was carried out to investigate the correlation and outcomes of different TEIQue levels (Van Rooy and Viswesvaran 2004; Petrides, Pérez-González, and Furnham 2007; Sevdalis, Petrides, and Harvey 2007; Petrides 2009). TEIQue correlates strongly with coping styles (individuals with high emotional

intelligence are more likely to use adaptive coping styles when dealing with stress (the correlation is r = 0.665)); dysfunctional attitudes and depression (high emotional intelligence is negatively associated with depression (r = -.652) and dysfunctional attitudes (r = -.465) that lead to depression); academic performance (adolescents with high emotional intelligence deal with stress well and have large social networks; social science and art students scored highest on 'emotionality', while natural science students scored highest on 'self-control'); self-monitoring and aggression (emotional intelligence is a statistically positive predictor of 'self-monitoring' and a negative predictor of 'aggregation'); and humour style (differences in emotional intelligence lead to differences in humour style). TEIQue was also proved to have high validity, especially predictive validity of job performance and organisational commitment (Van Rooy and Viswesvaran 2004; Petrides, Pérez-González, and Furnham 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, Zeidner, and Roberts 2012) and proves the culturally independent universality of personality (Freudenthaler et al. 2008). High emotional intelligence is associated with low levels of stress and high levels of perceived job control, job satisfaction, and job commitment (Petrides and Furnham 2006; Singh and Woods 2008; Platsidou 2010). Furthermore, high emotional intelligence may conduce entrepreneurial behaviour (Zampetakis, Beldekos, and Moustakis 2009); protect against burnout (Singh and Woods 2008; Platsidou 2010); and predict internal work locus of control (Johnson, Batey, and Holdsworth 2009). TEIQue is a highly versatile psychometric instrument, and may be used in recruitment and selection, team building, coaching, leadership training, measuring organisational commitment, organisational change, talent development, and appraisal, as well as in assessing and enhancing employee morale (Petrides 2011).

Compared to other emotional intelligence measurements, TEIQue is supported by coherent psychology theory (Matthews, Zeidner, and Roberts 2012). Inevitably, however, TEIQue has its fair share of limitations. TEIQue is a self-report questionnaire—unavoidably, therefore, it raises the question of bias. Given that TEIQue is not independent of social desirability, its results across different occupational sectors need to be regarded with caution and interpreted within the parameters of the given circumstances (Mikolajczak et al. 2007).

Since hotels use various performance measurements, task and contextual performance are measured on a self-assessment basis. This approach is based on previous empirical research results and literature, and was developed as part of the author's wider doctoral research. Task performance includes task requirements and co-working elements. Contextual performance includes extra effort, communication, and loyalty.

Organisational culture is measured with the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI), a validated research method developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999). First, managers are asked to divide 100 points among four alternative organisational cultures (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market), according to their current experience of the organisation. This method measures the mix of various organisational cultures—or the extent to which one of the four alternatives dominates the current organisational culture. Second, managers are asked to divide the 100 points among the four alternatives, this time according to their preferred experience of the organisation. Managers judge these alternatives along six organisational dimensions: dominant characteristics, organisational leadership, management of employees, organisational glue, strategy, and criteria of success.

In addition to data from the Hungarian hotel industry, the doctoral research on which this article is based aims to collect data from its UK counterpart, in order to analyse eventual differences between Hungarian and UK hotel functional managers. Naturally, as the research progresses, future studies may involve cross-cultural comparative analyses, especially if the results of the doctoral research indicate significant differences between Hungary and the UK.

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