

University of Latvia
Faculty of Economics and Management



Barbara Sensen

**MOTIVATION IN THE GERMAN HOTEL
INDUSTRY THROUGH EMOTIONALLY
INTELLIGENT LEADERSHIP**

Doctoral Thesis

Submitted for the Doctor's degree in Management science (Dr.sc.admin.)

Subfield Business Management

Supervisor,

Dr oec. Ilona Baumane-Vitolina

Riga, 2015

Annotation

During the past decade, the author has been researching within the hotel industry, always focusing on rather soft, unmeasurable factors. After one bachelor thesis and two master theses, the author could still not find a rational explanation why she and many others chose a career in the hotel industry over others, better paying career options. This question led to the main topic of this dissertation, the motivation of employees in the hotel industry. Since neither monetary rewards nor work hours are appealing in the hotel industry in Germany, the author focused on non-monetary rewards which could explain the motivation of employees in this industry. When researching the motivation of the current working generation, it became clear that interpersonal relations and the acknowledgement of the individuality of the employee are constantly gaining importance. A trend which became also apparent when analysing the research on motivation during the last decades. Another string of research showed the same trend – the research on leadership. Current research is focusing on leadership theories aiming at the personal situation of the employee and the relationship between the leader and the follower. This relation might be the key to understand the motivation of employees in the hotel industry. In order to better analyse this relation, emotional intelligence has been chosen as underlying theory. Having entered the research body of management science during the paradigm shift in the 1980s, emotional intelligence is a relatively new concept to be scientifically analysed and few generalizable definitions and studies were to be found. The analysis of existing scientific research showed that emotional intelligence focuses on the understanding and management of own emotions as well as the recognition and influence of emotions of others. A focus which is impressively aligned with the current state of leadership research, where transformational leadership is discussed as the most effective form of modern leadership. The results of this thesis show that emotional intelligence does not only enhance the motivating effect of leadership effectiveness, but moderates the impact leadership has on employee motivation. If leadership and emotional intelligence are combined, 21% of the variance of employee motivation in the hotel industry can be explained. This result therefore does not answer the question about the motivation of employees in the industry as a whole, but considering that two concepts can explain one fifth of the variance of a dependent variable, the significance for those two concepts becomes obvious. This way, the thesis at hand has contributed one part of the answer concerning employee motivation in the hotel industry – still leaving the bigger part of the phenomenon unanswered as further research opportunity.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Ahgz	Allgemeine Hotel- und Gaststättenzeitung (General newspaper for hotels and restaurants)
AI	Achievement Imagery
AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
BC	Before Christ
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
c.r.	critical ratio
CN	Critical N
Dr.	Doctor
EARS	Emotional Accuracy Research Scale
ECVI	Expected cross-validation index
e.g.	exempli gratia (for example)
EI	Emotional Intelligence
EM	Extrinsic Motivation
EQ	Emotional Intelligence Quotient
EQ-i	Emotional Quotient inventory
et. al	et alii (and others)
H	Hypothesis
IM	Intrinsic Motivation
IQ	Intelligence Quotient
IT	Information Technology
LBDQ	Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire
LEAS	Levels of Emotional Awareness
LISREL	Linear Structural Relations
LMX	Leader-Member-Exchange
MEIS	Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
MSCEIT	Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test
NFI	Normalized Fit Index
Oec.	Oeconomia
p.	page
pp.	pages
Prof.	Professor
PSM	Public Service Motivation
RMSEA	Root Means Square Error of Approximation
Sc. Admin.	Science administration
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SLT	Situational Leadership Theory
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SSRI	Schuttle Self-Report-Inventory
STEU	Situational Test of Emotion Understanding
STEM	Situational Test of Emotion Management
TAT	Thematic Apperception Test
VIE	Valence-Instrumentality-Expectation

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INTRODUCTION

Actuality of topic

With increasing comparability of hotel services due to the availability of meta-search engines filtering prices from various websites and the globalization of the competition within the sector, the need for hotels to distinguish themselves from their competitors is increasing. Since the facilities are mostly given and difficult to change for existing businesses, personal service is one remaining way to make the difference. Friendly personnel, motivated to go the extra mile to meet the guests' needs, is currently a core asset for hotels. The income level in the hotel industry in Germany is below the German average, making it hard to motivate staff on a monetary basis. This fact combined with long working hours on weekends and holidays, commonly with unpaid overtime, and shift duties lead to the assumption that employees in the hotel industry in Germany are mainly intrinsically motivated, which is the first thesis for defence. Hotels must therefore find ways to keep up the intrinsic motivation of their employees in order to successfully face increasing competition and better informed customers. This dissertation focuses on the role leaders can play in the motivational process of their employees. Leadership is crucial in the hotel industry, since leaders are not able to completely control the work environment of their employees due to the external factor 'guest' being part of the service process. Leadership could be the key to help employees develop skills to deal with different guests and find motivating incentives in their daily work situations. The second thesis for defence is therefore that leadership effectiveness is positively related to the motivation of employees. As an underlying construct, the concept of emotional intelligence of the leaders and its influence on their leadership effectiveness is taken into account. The third thesis for defence is that emotional intelligence increases the effectiveness of leadership and therefore also the influence leaders have on employee motivation, which would lead to a moderating effect of emotional intelligence. Research in the hospitality and the hotel industry in Germany is poorly represented within the body of academic research, only 14 publications within this industry can be counted in international Databases from 2001 until 2015. Current research on leadership, motivation and emotional intelligence in the German hospitality industry is therefore almost impossible to find. Within other industries and sectors or countries, current research on leadership and motivation or on leadership and emotional intelligence can be found, but the number of those researches focusing on the hospitality industry or on Germany is very limited. Furthermore, no research so far has covered the concepts of leadership, motivation and emotional intelligence together to draw conclusions about their interrelation.

Novelty

- Scientific analysis of employee motivation in the hotel industry in Germany
- Analysis and comparison of research evolution of leadership and motivation
- Integration of emotional intelligence within the research evolution of management sciences and analysis of the fit of the concept within the existing research body
- Creation of new model, combining leadership and emotional intelligence and their interrelation as well as their influence on employee motivation
- Testing of the proposed model and conclusions for non-monetary motivation in the hotel industry
- Suggestions for hoteliers how to increase the motivation of their employees

Purpose

The purpose of this dissertation is to test if leadership combined with emotional intelligence does have a positive effect on the motivation of employees in the hotel industry in Germany, in order to provide the industry with new non-monetary ways to increase employee motivation.

Tasks

- 1.) Formulation of hypothesis about the relationship between leadership, emotional intelligence and motivation based on literature analysis
- 2.) Analysing the formulated hypotheses in the frame of the hotel industry in Germany
- 3.) Creation of model based on the hypothesis that leadership and emotional intelligence influence employee motivation and challenging the model with expert opinions
- 4.) Measurement of motivation, leadership and emotional intelligence in the hotel industry in Germany
- 5.) Usage of survey results to test hypothesis and proposed model
- 6.) Formulation of suggestions to employees, managers and providers of hospitality education on how to increase employee motivation

Hypothesis

The main hypothesis is that motivation in the German hotel industry is positively related to emotionally intelligent leadership.

Theses for defence:

T1: Employees in the hotel industry in Germany are mainly intrinsically motivated

T2: The motivation of employees is positively related to the effectiveness of leadership of their leader.

T3: Emotional intelligence moderates the effect of leadership on motivation

Object and subject of the thesis:

Object: hotel industry in Germany; subject: motivation of employees

Methods

Scientific literature as well as relevant researches in the field are reviewed in order to summarize and analyse the current state of research of the relevant concepts. Hypotheses are formulated about the interaction of motivation, leadership and emotional intelligence in the hotel industry. A tentative model is created based on the formulated hypotheses. The model and its underlying hypotheses are then exposed to the opinion of experts from different fields. Emotional Intelligence is tested with the MSCEIT, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Test of Emotional Intelligence, (Caruso, Salovey 2005), leadership is measured with the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, MLQ, (Bass et al. 2003), which is completed by leaders and followers to gain a double-perspective result. This questionnaire is combined with a questionnaire measuring intrinsic and extrinsic motivation designed by the author. The link to this combined questionnaire is distributed four times within a period of three weeks – twice on industry-relevant websites, twice sent out with industry-relevant newsletters. The hotels which received the MSCEIT are reminded seven days, ten days and fourteen days after the initial receipt of the questionnaire to fill it in. In order to achieve a greater sample size the three questionnaires are sent out again one year later to one thousand randomly selected hotels in Germany. The reliability of the results is measured with Cronbach's Alpha and descriptive statistics to ensure the representation of the population. The quality of the proposed model is measured by calculating the model fit with structural equation modelling. A proposed moderating effect of emotional intelligence is confirmed with a hierarchical regression analysis. The calculated data is analysed and interpreted to confirm or neglect the hypothesis and the theses for defence. Obtained results are compared to the results of similar or related researches.

Limitations

A limitation of the research is the relatively small sample size, which is matched to the general sample, but imposes some limitations on generalization possibilities. Furthermore the research does not take into account different cultural backgrounds of the German workforce.

Main results

The main result is a positive relation between leadership and motivation of employees in the hotel industry in Germany. This relation becomes weak and statistically insignificant as soon as emotional intelligence is entered into the model. Those results indicate that emotional intelligence of leaders in the hotel industry moderates the effect leadership has on employee motivation, stressing the importance of that relatively new concept. Leadership and emotional intelligence taken together explain 21% of the variance of motivation in the hotel industry, confirming the hypothesis that employee motivation in the hotel industry can strongly be influenced by the chosen concepts. Furthermore the thesis for defence that employees in the hotel industry in Germany are mainly intrinsically motivated has been substantiated. No significant differences were found between the motivation of managers and employees. In respect to gender differences, female employees do show a stronger intrinsic motivation than male employees do. Female leaders are significantly higher in emotional intelligence than their male counterparts are, while both genders reach similar results when it comes to leadership effectiveness.

Approbation of results

1. International Conference ‘14th International Research Symposium on Service Excellence in Management’: “The moderating effect of emotional intelligence on leadership and motivation in the hotel industry”, China Europe International Business School, Shanghai, China, 2015, June 18th – 21st
2. International Conference ‘Values in Shock: The Role of Contrasting Management, Economic, and Religious Paradigms in the Workplace’: “Motivation in the Hospitality Industry through Leadership and Emotional Intelligence”, University of Latvia, Riga, Latvia, 2014, June 29th – July 3rd
3. International Conference ‘Advances in Tourism Economics’: “Impacts of Emotional Intelligence and Leadership on Motivation in the German Hospitality Industry”, University Luisiada of Lisbon, Portugal, 2014, May 15th – 16th

4. International Conference ‘Current Approaches of Modern Management and Strategy Research’: “Does Emotional Intelligence enhance Leadership and Motivation?” University of Applied Sciences, Kufstein, Austria, 2013, November 29th – 30th
5. International Conference ‘13th International Research Symposium on Service Excellence in Management’: “Motivation, Leadership and Emotional Intelligence in the Hospitality Industry”, University of Karlstad, Sweden, 2013, June 10th – 13th
6. International Conference ‘New Challenges of Economic and Business Development’: “Impacts of Emotional Intelligence on Leadership Effectiveness”, University of Latvia, Riga, Latvia, 2013, May 9th – 11th
7. ‘International Conference for Business and Economics – Innovative Approaches of Management Research for Regional and Global Business Development’: “Leadership and Emotional Intelligence”, University of Applied Sciences Kufstein, Austria, 2012, August 3rd – 5th
8. International Conference ‘New Challenges of Economic and Business Development’: “Impact of Leadership Behaviour on Subordinate Motivation”, University of Latvia, Riga, Latvia, 2012, May 10th – 12th
9. Food & Beverage Management Association Annual Meeting: “Motivation of Generation Y for the Hospitality Industry”, Hotel Novotel, Freiburg im Breisgau, Germany, 2012, April 20th

Publications

Sensen, Barbara: *Impacts of emotional intelligence and leadership on motivation in the hotel industry*, submitted for Springer Verlag series on Advances in Tourism Economics

Wagner¹, Barbara: *The moderating effect of emotional intelligence on leadership and motivation in the hotel industry*, in: Zhao, X.; Zhang, J. and Han, H. (editors): Proceedings of QUIS 14 – Accelerate the Impact of Service Research. Shanghai, 2015, p.640 - 657, ISBN: 978-0-692-46156-3

Wagner, Barbara: *Motivation in the hospitality industry through leadership and emotional intelligence*, in: Gomes, J. and Coelho, J. (editors): Values in Shock. The role of contrasting management, economic and religious paradigms in the workplace. Riga, 2014, p.192-199, ISBN: 978-0-9817997-3-5

Wagner, Barbara: *Motivation, Leadership and Emotional Intelligence in the Hospitality Industry in Germany*, in: University of Karlstad: 13th International Research Symposium on Service Excellence in Management, Conference Proceedings, Karlstad, 2013, p. 375-384, ISBN: 978-91-7063-506-9

¹ Wagner is the maiden name of the author which changed to Sensen with her marriage in August 2015

Wagner, Barbara: *Impacts of Emotional Intelligence on Leadership Effectiveness*, in: University of Latvia, Faculty of Economics and Management: New Challenges of Economic and Business Development, Riga, 2013, p. 654-662, ISBN: 978-9984-45-715-4

Wagner, Barbara: *Impacts of Leadership Behaviour on Subordinate Motivation*, in: University of Latvia, Faculty of Economics and Management: New Challenges of Economic and Business Development, Riga, 2013, p. 663 - 669, ISBN: 978-9984-45-715-4

Content of Dissertation

In the first chapter, the concepts of motivation, leadership and emotional intelligence are explored through existing literature. The process of motivation as the activation of motives through incentives within the perceived situation is illustrated. The development of motivational research is shown and the specifications for the motivation of Generation Y as the youngest working generation clarified. The development of leadership theories from trait theories to behaviour and situational theories up to current theories focusing on the relationship between leader and follower is described, introducing the most recent leadership concepts 'Leadership-Member-Exchange' and 'Transformational Leadership'. The differentiation between leaders and managers is also clarified. Emotional intelligence is introduced as a relatively new concept with various streams of research and a comparatively little variety of literature. Emotional intelligence is defined as the ability to recognize emotions, to use emotions, to manage emotions and to influence emotions. At the end of the first chapter the evolution of research on motivation and leadership is compared and analysed with regards to the changes in the economic macro-environment.

The second chapter introduces the specification of the hotel industry as an industry with immaterial, abstract, location-bound and personality-influenced goods which are produced and consumed at the same time. The hotel industry in Germany is presented as an industry with wages below average, an average training time of three years apprenticeship and unattractive working hours during night shifts, weekends and holidays. Those specifications are then used to analyse the concepts of motivation, leadership and emotional intelligence from the viewpoint of the hotel industry. It becomes clear that leadership plays a core role in the motivational process in the hotel industry, since the leader has to influence the situation of the employee indirectly which is mainly and directly influenced by the guests. Furthermore, the concepts of leadership, emotional intelligence and motivation are operationalized and the analysis is translated into a model.

The third chapter describes the development of the questionnaire to measure motivation, and the decision for existing questionnaires to measure emotional intelligence and leadership. For emotional intelligence the MSCEIT is decided upon, while the MLQ is used to measure leadership. The model which has been developed in the second chapter is presented to experts from the academic and practice field of the hotel industry as well as from the field of emotional intelligence. The opinion of the experts on the underlying hypotheses is asked and analysed and the model mainly substantiated. The model is then tested in a quantitative research by distributing the questionnaires among leaders and employees in the hotel industry.

The questionnaires on leadership and motivation were filled out by 451 respondents, the questionnaire on emotional intelligence by 181 leaders. The respondent's profile is presented, being in line with the constitution of the main population in regards to age and gender. Preliminary statistical analyses are executed, such as a reliability test of the questionnaires and a hierarchical regression analysis. The fit of the model to the observed data is calculated with structural equation modelling. The first fit is not satisfactory, so the model is adjusted by inserting suggested covariances. A good model fit is achieved with a slightly adjusted model, which is then analysed and interpreted to find suggestions for practitioners and further research.

Used sources

For the concept of motivation classic authors such as Maslow, Taylor, McGregor, Vroom and Herzberg have been used and combined with newer approaches from Barbutto and Scholl who have introduced the motivational inventory. In regards to emotional intelligence the concept of multiple intelligences by Gardner has been used and its development mainly by Goleman who introduced the concept of emotional intelligence. The main concept on which this dissertation is based is taken from Mayer, Salovey and Caruso who have developed the concept over the past years and also invented the MSCEIT. In regards to leadership, Bernard, Blake and Mouton, Fiedler and Vroom were used as the main classics, Hungenberg and Yukl as meta-analysts of existing literature and Bass and Aviola as well as Graen and Uhl-Bien for the modern approaches to leadership. The main journals used were 'International Journal of Management', 'Tourism & Hospitality Research', 'International Contemporary Hospitality Management', 'Journal of Managerial Psychology', 'Leadership & Organization Development Journal' and 'Human Resource Development International'.

Words of gratitude

First and foremost the author would like to thank Dr. Ilona Baumane-Vitolina who has supervised this dissertation and accompanied, guided and enriched the process with her profound academic knowledge. Furthermore to the University of Latvia and the University of Applied Sciences Kufstein for their cooperation in offering this doctoral program, allowing students to take a bicultural outlook on economics, research and academic work. Namely Prof. Dr. Baiba Savrina and Prof. Dr. Josef Neuert for their continuous personal efforts in keeping the program running and guiding all students through the process, always supported with great effort and enthusiasm by Markus Spriestersbach, Kristine Blumfelde-Rutka and Kristine Berzina.

1 MOTIVATION, EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LEADERSHIP

1.1 Motivation

Analysis of definitions for motivation

In order to explore the concept of employee motivation and to further work with it, it is necessary to analyse what the term 'motivation' stands for. According to Ciompi, who is arguing from the viewpoint of affect logic, motivation is a specific (mobilizing and dynamiting) aspect of integrated feeling, thinking- and acting programs. Motivation describes therefore dispositions or impulses for certain behavioral programs which are immanent in all functional feeling, thinking and acting programs (Ciompi 1997, p. 85). Following this definition, all human behavior is lead by special programs which include feelings, thoughts and actions. If an impulse for a certain program is given, one can describe the following actions, thoughts, and feelings as motivated. Simon draws the conclusion that if by motivation it is meant whatever it is that causes someone to follow a particular course of action, than every action is motivated - by definition (Simon 1964, pp. 9–10). Motivation explains the direction, intensity and persistence of human behavior. Direction means the choice of a certain behavior; intensity means the energy involved and perseverance describes the persistence with which a goal is pursued even despite obstacles (Nerdinger 2003, p. 1).

Other authors do not see every action as motivated but describe motivation as actively directing the momentary life style towards a goal state which is judged positively (Lenzner, Dickhäuser 2011, p. 12). This viewpoint imposes that only those actions which are ultimately leading to the desired end state are motivated. The question arises why other actions which do not lead to the desired end state are performed and what actions are taken, should the end state be reached. To clarify the difference between motivated and non-motivated actions, Herzberg distinguishes between motivation and movement. The most secure way to have somebody do something is to force him to do it. The forcing person is motivated, the other one moves. Negative forcement does not lead to motivation but to movement. A person can be charged again and again with the same task, but only when a person wants to perform a task without being charged with it, one can talk about motivation (Herzberg 2004, pp. 72–74). The usage of negative motivation can have a negative impact on the work ethic and may lead to a negative atmosphere in the organization. The most secure way to motivate somebody to act is to make sure that this person really wants to do it (Nerdinger 2003, p. 23). If an action is performed because of the wish of somebody else but does not lead to the desired end state, a person is moving but not motivated. If an action which leads to the desired end state is

performed, a person is motivated and does not need the outside impulse in order to act. These interrelations are illustrated in Figure 1.1:

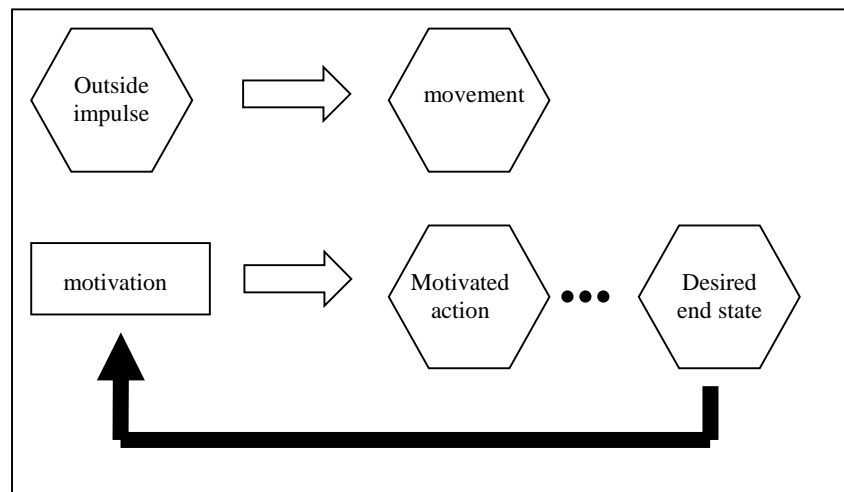


Figure 1.1 Motivation and Movement

Source: author's illustration based on quoted literature

One can differentiate three basic forms of motivation: negative motivation, positive motivation and individual techniques to motivate oneself. Negative motivation is the motivation described by Herzberg which leads to movement but not to really motivated action. Positive motivation means to give people the feeling that they are working towards a precious, achievable goal which is important to the community (Jost 2000, p. 24). Positive motivation leads to motivated action, since it is sourcing its energy from an end state which is desirable. Gardner describes motivated individuals as goal directed, expressing effort in attaining the goal: showing persistence, attending to the tasks necessary to achieve the goal with strong desire to achieve the goal and enjoying activities necessary to achieve it, aroused in seeking their goals, having expectancies in regards to their success and failure, demonstrating self-efficacy when they reach some degree of success, self-confident about their achievements and as having reasons for their behaviour, often called motives (Gardner 2010, p. 8). This description by Gardner enhances the importance of goals or desired end states for motivation and furthermore states that motivated action is enjoyed by the individuals performing it. Gardner also introduced the term of motives which he describes as the reasons for the behavior of motivated people. As the desired end state has been described as the source for motivation, motives can be understood as the translation of the desired end state into smaller goals. Albs describes the relation between motives and motivation as follows: motivation is the sum of the motives which influence human behavior in regards of its content, the direction, and intensity (Albs 2005, p. 15).

Concluding, motivation can be defined as the influence on thoughts, feelings, and actions which serves to reach a desired end state. The desired end state is described by motives which in their sum form the motivation.

Analysis of definitions of motives

In order to conduct an in-depth analysis of motivation, it is advisable to inspect the term and concept of motives further. Jost states that motives are the reasons for actions, they include the willingness to behave in a certain way as well as certain goals (Jost 2000, p. 20). Pruckner defines more specifically and explains that motives determine how individuals perceive a given situation, which subjective chances are attributed to the possible results of actions and which expectations for further actions are formed (Pruckner 2000, p. 53). Vroom enhances the goal-orientation of motives and states that motives refer to a preference for a class of outcomes. A positive motive signifies that outcomes which are members of the class have a positive valence and a negative motive means that outcomes in the class have a negative valence (Vroom 1964, p. 15). Vroom also introduces the term of valence which will be explained later on when Vroom's motivational model is explored. Atkinson agrees with Vroom that motives refer to a class of outcomes and describes motives as dispositions to strive for a certain class of incentives. The general aim of one class of motives, usually referred to as approach tendencies, is to maximize satisfaction. The general aim of another class of motives, usually referred to as avoidance tendencies is to minimize pain (Atkinson 1972, p. 80). With this definition, Atkinson mentions the idea that motives derive not only from desired end states but also from the avoidance of undesired states.

In regards to hierarchy and characteristic, motives are different for each individual since they are the result of learning processes during the life cycle and the social surroundings. The social environment of an individual is changing continuously; therefore motives will change as well and are only relatively stable over time (Pruckner 2000, p. 54). This clarification by Pruckner explains the earlier question about the consequence when the desired end state is reached: according to Pruckner, end states and goals will change continuously with the individual and its development therefore it is very unlikely that the desired end state is so stable over time that it might be reached.

Pruckner states that motives need to be activated through perception of stimulating incentives in order to be transformed into motivation (Pruckner 2000, p. 54). Nerdinger takes the idea

that motives are clusters of goals which are pursued by the individuals and combines it with the idea that motives need to be activated. According to Nerdinger a situation does have an impact on human motives, it activates them, and initiates behavior. He draws the line further by introducing incentives as the characteristics of a situation that can stimulate the motives. Incentives request the performance of certain actions and the omission of others (Nerdinger 2003, p. 3). The motivational effect of a work situation does not result from its objective reality but is conditioned by its subjective interpretation. Therefore all situational influences, which are dominating the motivational process, are not relevant for actions as such but only in regards to their perception (Jost 2000, p. 105). The complete process of motivation is shown in figure 1.2 and explained below.

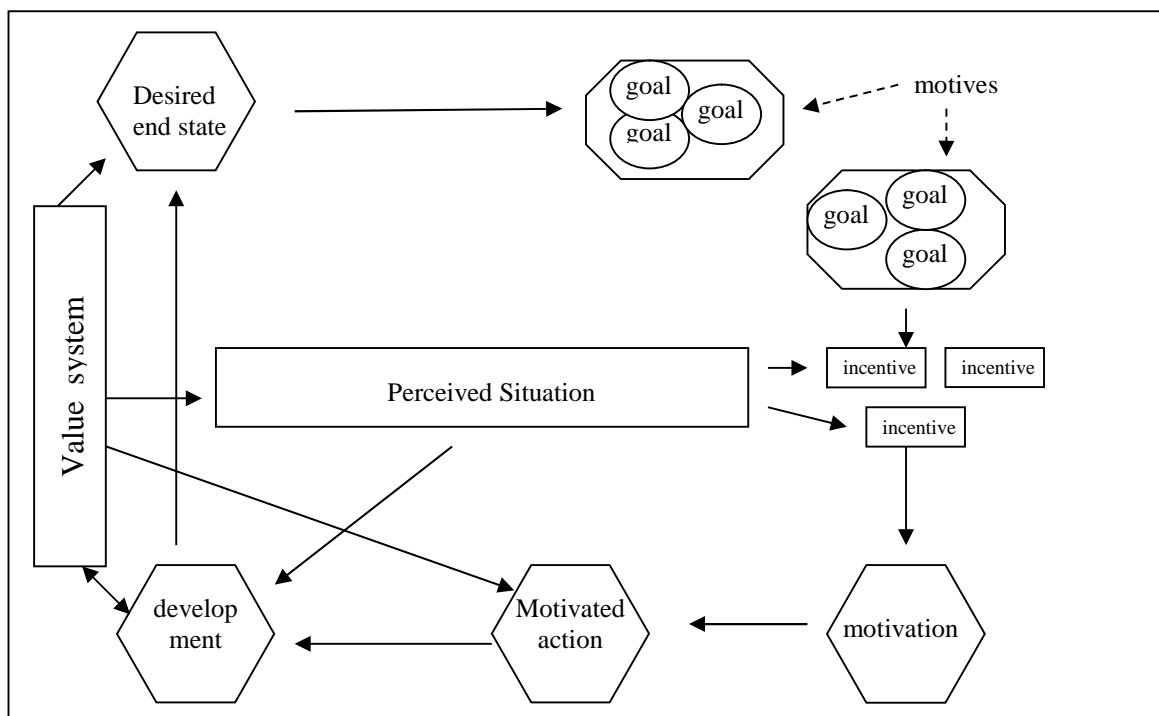


Figure 1.2 Motivational Process

Source: Author's illustration according to quoted source

As shown in Figure 1.2, it is important to maintain a distinction between goals on the one hand and motives on the other. By goals value premises are described that can serve as inputs to decisions. By motives the causes are meant, whatever they are, that lead individuals to select some goals rather than others as premises for their decisions (Simon 1964, p. 3). This clarification by Simon is not completely congruent with the independencies shown above but may be integrated in it. According to Simon goals serve as inputs to decisions – in the graph above goals do serve indirectly as inputs to decisions for certain actions. Simon sees motives as causes to select certain goals rather than others. Motives were defined earlier as cluster of goals, which means that for each motive certain goals were selected. Furthermore motives are

activated and transformed into motivation which leads to motivated actions which, together with situational characteristics, have an impact on the personal development. The personal development influences the desired end state which is translated into certain goals – therefore, in the graphical explanation above, motives do also lead to the selection of certain goals but are not seen as the only causes for this selection.

Definition Goals and Values

A goal is a final state at which the behavior of an individual is aiming (Jost 2000, p. 20). Goal orientation can be understood as motivational tendencies of individuals and may be classified in three classes. Firstly, learning goals which include goals to increase a competency. Secondly, performance goals which include goals to demonstrate good performances and own competencies and avoid bad performances and hide lacking competencies. The third class is labelled work avoidance goals and includes the goal to have as little work as possible (Dresel et al. 2011, p. 3). Values on the other hand are the convictions of a person in regards to things that are seen as important and desirable. The sum of those convictions forms the value system of a person (Jost 2000, p. 47). Work values are what employees desire and seek from their work activity. These desired and sought after work outcomes are generally determined by the economic status of the individual as well as by the social values obtained from the society (Wang 1996, p. 21). Any person who works possesses a set of work values which regulate employees' behavior (Wang 1996, p. 16). Work values can be differentiated according to three different aspects: the cognitive component focuses on the subjective knowledge of an employee. The affective component consists of the emotionally evaluating reactions of an employee towards his work. The conative component focuses on how the employee should behave in certain work relevant situations (Jost 2000, p. 49). Since values influence attitudes and affect behaviour, organizational members will behave in ways that reflect their differing value structures (Murphy, jr. et al. 2010, p. 42).

If a person is feeling that something is missing, than the wish to satisfy the need is becoming a motive commanding his actions. The goal of this motivated behavior is the correction of the imbalance (Jost 2000, p. 21). The desired end state in this case includes the goal to correct the imbalance and to satisfy a need. From this viewpoint, needs and their satisfaction are part of the desired end state and therefore the goal towards which human behavior is directed (Scanlan 1982, p. 30).

1.1.1 Research Approaches to Motivation

The research on motivation and its related theories may be put in line with the general management research. As Kenneth Thompson states in his introduction to the reprint of a management classic, in the first half of the twentieth century the field of management studies was being populated by a proliferation of perspectives and disciplines: Organization Theory, Industrial Sociology, Management Science, including the perspective of Scientific Management, etc. (Taylor 2013 // 2003, p. 3). As seen in figure 1.3, the Scientific Management was followed by the Human Relations Approach which had its origin in the Hawthorne Experiments conducted between 1924 and 1930. Those experiments lay the ground for a clear differentiation between machines and human work. With increasing research, new fields of management were discovered leading to the System View in the 1960s which tried to combine different perspectives and management disciplines into systems. After the paradigm shift in the 1980s today's management theories and beliefs are laid out on relationships and work life balance and can be described as the Personality Approach.

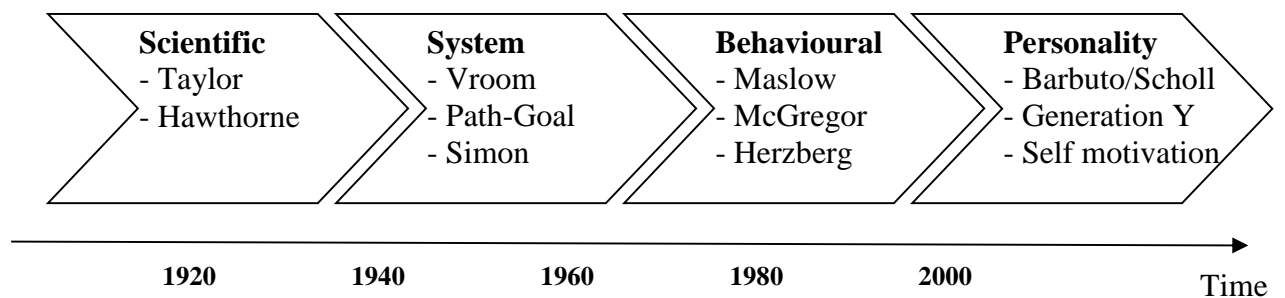


Figure 1.3 Evolution of research approaches to motivation

Source: author's illustration based on quoted literature

Taylor's Scientific Management

One of the first researchers to touch the subject of motivation was Frederick Taylor in the 1920s. Taylor stated that "work throughout the country is used highly inefficiently. In order to solve this problem, one has to look for a systematic workplace and not for an extraordinary man" (Taylor 1977, pp. 4–5). To achieve the greatest prosperity for employer and employee, Taylor proposed four principles: firstly to scientifically examine each element of a job, secondly to systematically select, train, teach, and develop individual workers, thirdly to work cooperatively with the workers to ensure that the job is being done in the best possible way, and fourthly to give the manager the responsibility to determine how the job should be done, while giving the workers the responsibility to do the job (Blake, Mooseley 2011, pp. 348–349). Taylor was convinced that those principles would one day determine the working place of all employees: "It is my deep and honest conviction that those principles will come to usage throughout the whole civilized world sooner or later. The sooner, the better for the

human kind " (Taylor 1977, p. 30). The main focus of Taylor's work can therefore be seen in the efficacy and productivity of workers, a clear commitment to the organizational goals of which Taylor assumed they were shared by the society. In regards to the employees, Taylor suggested an interest in higher wages, prosperity, intellectual growth or a comfortable work environment. He therefore saw the work according to company goals as a self-interested behavior of the employees. Performance problems should, according to Taylor, be remedied through the (re)design of incentive structure (Wagner-Tsukamoto 2003, pp. 132–133). The total neglect of personal goals and social needs of the employees is one of the main characteristics of Taylor's Scientific Management, which saw the employees more like machines than like humans. This lack of humanity in conjunction with the assumption that the society did only expect productivity from a company were the main failures of Taylor's theory.

Hawthorne Experiments

A different view on work situation and its effect on work efficacy was brought by the so-called Hawthorne experiments, conducted between 1924 and 1932. The experiments were carried out at the Hawthorne plant (near Chicago) of the Western Electric Co. to determine the effect of the environment on productivity. Each change in rest period, lighting levels, and so forth was associated with an increase in productivity. Finally, everything was changed back to the way it had been in the first place and productivity increased by still a further increment. The workers reacted not to the variables which were supposed to be the subject of the experiment, but to the experiment itself (Machol 1975, p. 32). These findings stood in strong contrast to the theories of Frederick Taylor whose scientific management approach in the 1920s advocated fitting the man to the machine through strict supervision and on-going measurement (Doyle et al. 1985, p. 1). The Hawthorne Experiments therewith lead the way to the perception of the employee as a human being and not as a machine when it comes to work efficacy.

Vroom's VIE-Theory

The different influences on work efficacy and work motivation were further explored by Vroom in his Valence-Instrumentality-Expectancy (VIE) – Theory in the 1960s. This theory models human behavior as decision making, which implies the choice between different alternatives and is directed towards the maximization of the individual benefit. Vroom differentiates between first level outcomes, which function as incentives and second level outcomes which consist of long term goals of the individual (Pruckner 2000, p. 65). The first

proposition by Vroom was that "the valence of an outcome to a person is a monotonically increasing function of the algebraic sum of the products of the valences of all other outcomes and his conceptions of its instrumentality for the attainment of these other outcomes" (Vroom 1964, p. 17). Valence refers to affective orientations toward particular outcomes. An outcome is positively valent when the person prefers attaining it to not attaining it, a valence of zero means that the person is indifferent to attaining or not attaining it and a negatively valent outcome means that the person prefers not attaining it to attaining it. It is important to distinguish between the valence of an outcome to a person and its value to that person. At any given time there might be a substantial discrepancy between the anticipated satisfaction from an outcome and the actual satisfaction it is providing (Vroom 1964, p. 15). Instrumentality is an outcome-outcome association, it ranges from -1 (attainment of second outcome is certain without first outcome and impossible with it) to +1 (first outcome is necessary and sufficient condition for the attainment of the second outcome) (Vroom 1964, p. 18).

In his second proposition, Vroom states that "the force on a person to perform an act is a monotonically increasing function of the algebraic sum of the products of the valences of all outcomes and the strength of his expectancies that the act will be followed by the attainment of these outcomes" (Vroom 1964, p. 18). An outcome with high positive or negative valence will have no effect on the generation of a force unless there is some expectancy that the outcome will be attained by some act (Vroom 1964, p. 19). Expectancy may be defined as a momentary belief concerning the likelihood that a particular act will be followed by a particular outcome. It takes values ranging from zero (no subjective probability) to one (subjective certainty) (Vroom 1964, pp. 17–18). Expectancy can therefore be described as cognitive anticipation, usually aroused by cues in a situation, that a certain performance of an act will be followed by a particular consequence. The strength of expectancy can be represented as the subjective probability of the consequence, when the act is given (Atkinson 1972, p. 79).

The expectancy or instrumentality-valence theory proposes that work-related behavior can be predicted once the valence (anticipated value) people attach to certain outcomes as well as their expectations (subjective probability) of the occurrence of those outcomes are known. It is proposed that the resulting function is a nonlinear monotonically increasing product of expectations and valences (House, Wahba 1972, p. 127). Whenever an individual chooses between alternatives which involve uncertain outcomes, it seems clear that his behavior is affected not only by his preference among these outcomes but also by the degree to which he

believes these outcomes to be probable (Vroom 1964, p. 17). The expectations of the employee which are relevant for the work motivation may therefore be seen as related to three aspects of his work situation: the valence of the work stimulus, the reach ability of work results and the instrumentality of work results (Jost 2000, pp. 105–106). During the motivational process the individual is striving to look for information which may explain the value-expectation aspects. With the progression of the process the benefit of further information is reduced and the impatience to finish the process is augmented (Pruckner 2000, pp. 54–55).

Path-Goal-Theories

Vroom's VIE-Theory was further developed and interpreted by different authors; the emerging theories are subsumed under the term of 'Path-Goal theories of motivation'. Path-Goal theories of motivation try to explain how human behavior is activated, directed and terminated and why individuals chose certain ways of behavior to reach their goals (Pruckner 2000, p. 61). According to Peak, who introduced the first Path-Goal-theory in 1955, the attitude towards an object or a situation is a function of the instrumentality (of the object or the situation) to reach set goals and the satisfaction which the achievement of the goal will create (Pruckner 2000, p. 62). People are satisfied with their job if they think it leads to things that are highly valued, and they work hard if they believe that higher effort leads to faster achievement. Employee motivation can therefore be increased by influencing expectancies, e.g. goal paths, valences, and goal attractiveness (House, Mitchell 1980, p. 82). Path-Goal-Theories of motivation try to explain which calculations of value, expectancy, and instruments determine the motivation for actions, but they do not explain what motivation is, which role human motives play and which processes motivational tendencies need to run through in order to be transformed into actions (Pruckner 2000, p. 52). Critics on the models of Path-Goal-Theories include that they are too objective by assuming the actor would use all available information correctly, too generalized by assuming that expectation and value are negatively correlated and too rational by assuming that value and expectation would be formed totally differentiated (Pruckner 2000, p. 84).

Simon's Administrative Behavior

In his theory of motivation, Simon focused on the synchronization of individual and organizational goals. "In the practical world, plans are characterized as 'utopian' whose success depends upon wished-for behavior on the part of many individuals, but which fail to explain how this wished-for behavior will or can, be brought about. Now a very special

situation arises, when all the members of the group exhibit a preference for the same values and for the same outcomes out of all those possible of realization by the group" (Simon 1945, pp. 105–106). Simon modeled motivation through the concepts of 'aims' and 'goals' of organization members and the related concept of 'goal conflict' between individual goals and organizational goals. According to him, 'non-rational' organizational behavior results from conflicts between individual goals and organizational goals (Wagner-Tsukamoto 2003, p. 138). "In the motivational theory formulated by Barnard and me, it is postulated that the motives of each group of participants can be divided into inducements (aspects of participation that are desired by the participants) and contributions (aspects of participation that are inputs to the organization's production function but that generally have negative utility to participants)" (Simon 1964, p. 11). Simon conceptualized institutional organization in motivational and cognitive terms as psychological environment. Behavioral intervention focused on job contents structures and communication structures. This was to ensure organizationally rational decision-making (Wagner-Tsukamoto 2003, p. 90).

Maslow's Pyramid of needs

In order to understand the role of needs for the motivational process, it seems advisable to have a closer look at the concept of human needs. A need is a sensation of deficit of a person, initiated by a physiological or psychological imbalance (Jost 2000, p. 20). The basic needs are organized hierarchically into different dimensions, namely physiological needs, safety needs, love needs (affectionate relations), esteem needs and the need for self-actualization (Maslow 1972, pp. 58–65). Once the physiological hungers are satisfied, other needs emerge at once and dominate the organism. And when those are satisfied, again new needs emerge and so on. Basic human needs are organized into a hierarchy of relative prepotency. The satisfied needs cease to exist as active determinants of behavior. They then exist only in a potential fashion and may emerge again to dominate the organism if they are thwarted. Therefore the organism is dominated and its behavior organized by unsatisfied needs only (Maslow 1972, p. 60; Scanlan 1982, p. 33). Scanlan sees human needs as mostly fixed. They are part of the personal reference system of an individual and his personality (Scanlan 1982, p. 31). Jost describes great inter- and intraindividualistic differences in the importance of different needs for the individual employee. These differences are dependent from the person in question as well as from the current situation of this person (Jost 2000, p. 34). The dependence of individual needs from the environment implies that the specific, for a certain person valid, needs are not stable over a time period (Jost 2000, p. 23). This dependence from the environment and the instability of the importance of certain needs can be explained according to Maslow with the

satisfaction of some needs and the emergence of needs from a higher level. Therefore needs may be seen as part of the personal reference system and fixed, while their importance is different over time. The pyramid of motives is very general without any direct logical consequences for the motivation of employees. But it does have two important functions: firstly, it provides a simple model of the motives of employees, secondly, it makes clear that questions about motives do have to touch their hierarchy as well. And the pyramid explains why it is so hard to achieve constant satisfaction: when all deficits are satisfied, an unlimited strive for self-fulfillment is becoming active (Nerdinger 2003, p. 17). Due to the overlapping of different need levels at Maslow's theory, Alderfer introduced only three categories of needs in his ERG-theory: Existence needs, Relatedness needs, and Growth needs (Jost 2000, p. 29). "Existence needs reflect a person's requirement for material and energy exchange and for the need to reach and maintain a homeostatic equilibrium with regard to the provision of certain material substances. Relatedness needs acknowledge that a person is not a self-contained unit but must engage in transactions with his human environment. Growth needs emerge from the tendency of open systems to increase in internal order and differentiation over time as a consequence of going beyond steady states and interacting with the environment" (Alderfer 1972, p. 8). Besides the satisfaction-progression-hypothesis which was introduced by Maslow, Alderfer sees three more reciprocal effects between the needs: the frustration hypothesis, stating that a non-fulfilled need becomes dominant. The frustration-regression-hypothesis according to which a non-fulfilled need leads to the becoming relevant of a hierarchical lower need. And the frustration-progression-hypothesis which states that a non-satisfied need can lead to the becoming urgent of a need from a higher level (Jost 2000, p. 29).

McGregor's XY Theory

The XY-Theory by Douglas McGregor sees the motivation of employees as a self-fulfilling prophecy, depending on the view the leader has of its employees. McGregor developed the Theory X and Theory Y in 1960. According to McGregor, the traditional management theory believed that people in general do not like working and try to avoid work wherever they can. In order to make them work towards managerial goals, their work has to be controlled at all times and authority has to be executed (Scanlan 1982, pp. 28–29). This theory that he called Theory X reflects an essentially negative view, that employees are lazy, incapable of self-direction and autonomous work behavior, and have little to offer in terms of organizational problem solving (Kopelman et al. 2008, pp. 255–256). In his own theory, Theory Y, McGregor stated that most people want to work if they have the according possibility and motivation. If an employee is inclined to the goals of his company, he will control his own

work without sanctions being necessary. According to Theory Y, work can be source of human satisfaction, if the goals of the organization match the individual's goals (Scanlan 1982, pp. 28–29). The core assumptions of Theory Y are that employees are (1) not inherently lazy, (2) capable of self-direction and self-control, and (3) capable of providing important ideas/suggestions that will improve organizational effectiveness. Thus, with appropriate management practices, such as providing objectives and rewards and the opportunity to participate in decision making, personal and organizational goals can be simultaneously realized (Kopelman et al. 2008, p. 255). With his theory, McGregor was the first researcher to see the way leaders saw their followers as selffulfilling phrophecy – which also ment that it was in the power of leaders to change the work attitude of their employees. While the need to match company goals to individual goals has been mentioned before, the clear responsibility of the leader in regards to the productivity of his or her employees was new to the managerial research at this point.

Herzberg's Two-Factor-Theory

Some of the most popular findings on work satisfaction and motivation go back to Herzberg and his Pittsburgh studies in 1959, from which he derived his Two-Factor-Theory. According to Herzberg, the problem of motivation has two dimensions. On the one end there are conditions which absence will lead to dissatisfaction, the hygiene-factors. At the other end of this scale there are factors which could lead to a positive attitude and motivation, but which will lead to a negative attitude when missing - the motivators (Scanlan 1982, p. 39). The most important work-related motivators are success, acknowledgment of performance, work itself, responsibility, professional progress and development. The hygiene factors are extrinsic and are therefore not directly related to the work itself. Hygiene factors are organization politics, internal organization, control, work atmosphere, work conditions, payment, status and security (Herzberg 2004, p. 80). According to Herzberg, factors related to the work itself (job content) are intrinsic, while factors related to the job context are maintenance factors or extrinsically motivated (Wang 1996, p. 17). The lack of hygiene factors leads to demotivation, performance is decreasing. Hygiene factors are the prerequisites for the satisfaction at the workplace, but their existence is not enough to motivate people to work harder or more. The motivators are quite different. If they are given, the human being is, according to Herzberg, motivated and working with joy and special effort (Groth, Plaßmann 2008, p. 121). It is important to understand that the opposite of work satisfaction is no work satisfaction - and not dissatisfaction (Herzberg 2004, p. 79). Despite being one of the most taught motivational

theories, Herzberg's theory is often seen as too simple to define the complex nature of human behaviour (Guha 2010, p. 129).

Barbuto's and Scholl's Inventory of Motivation

One of the most recent approaches to motivational theory is the holistic approach by Barbuto and Scholl which they labeled the Motivation Inventory Model. In this model, several perspectives of motivation theorist's are integrated, identifying five sources of motivation. These sources are intrinsic, instrumental, external and internal self-concept, and goal internalization (Barbuto, Scholl 1998, p. 1011). Intrinsic motivation is spoken of when a person finds motivation from the task itself. Instrumental rewards can motivate individuals when they perceive that their behavior will lead to certain extrinsic tangible outcomes, such as pay, promotion, bonuses etc (Barbuto, Scholl 1998, p. 1012). In the external self-concept-based motivation source, motivation is usually externally based when the individual is primarily other-directed, seeking affirmation of traits, competencies and values. The ideal image of self is adopted from role expectations of reference groups. The individual is behaving in ways that satisfy those reference groups, first to gain acceptance and after achieving that, to gain status (Barbuto, Scholl 1998, pp. 1012–1013). In the internal self-concept-based motivation source, motivation is internally based when the individual is inner-directed. The individual sets his or her own standards of traits, competencies and values that become the basis for the ideal self. The person is then motivated to engage in behaviors that reinforce these standards and to achieve higher levels of competency (Barbuto, Scholl 1998, p. 1013). Behaviour is motivated by goal internalization when a person supports a cause because it matches his or her value system. The person is then willing to support the cause and work towards it (Barbuto, Scholl 1998, p. 1015).

Motivation of Generation Y

Generation means groups which are identifiable in terms of year of birth, age, location and significant events which mould their persona. The life experiences shape their personality and influence their value system, that help one identify as to what is right and what is wrong (Guha 2010, p. 123; Murphy, Jr. et al. 2010, p. 123). Currently working are the 'Baby Boomers' which were born between 1946 and 1964, 'Generation X', born between 1965 and 1979 as well as 'Generation Y' which was born between 1980 and 2000 (Barford, Hester 2011, p. 37). Generation Y was raised during economic growth. They are technically literate, ethnically divers, educated and more process than outcome oriented. Income is less important than contributing to society, parenting well and having a work-life-balance. They need to be

challenged and excited, want flexible jobs, are opinionated, view themselves as customers in the work market and earn money to spend rather than to save. They are very confident that they can do anything they want (Bristow et al. 2011, p. 78). Generation Y tends to solve problems collaborative, seldom alone or individually, they see multitasking as a daily routine and are used to a networking and transparent communication. They value a cooperative leadership style and do not give much importance to location and position. Feedback shall be easily accessible and available; decisions are made in discussions with the team. Their education is based on a steady, lifelong learning process while the learning style is usually a self-study or learning in networks. The usage of IT is omnipresent; Generation Y has little understanding for technical refusal and value direct conversations (Lehky 2011, p. 113). Although Generation X and Generation Y are similar in their pragmatic outlook on life, there are several differences. Generation Y has been characterized as less cynical, more optimistic, more idealistic, more inclined to value tradition, more similar to baby boomers than Generation X (Reisenwitz, Iyer 2009, p. 92). When coming to values of the generations, Baby Boomers value a comfortable life, wisdom, imagination and logic. Generation X employees rank inner harmony, mature love, courage and forgiveness higher than did their counterparts. Members of Generation Y highly value a sense of accomplishment, a world at peace, independence and self-control (Murphy, jr. et al. 2010, p. 39). Baby Boomers as well as employees born into Generation Y are motivated by flexible work arrangements and the opportunity to give back to society trump the sheer size of the pay package (Hewlett et al. 2009, p. 72). Very important for the coming managers of Generation Y are possibilities of personal development, learning and earning, enjoyable work, interesting and meaningful tasks, as well as colleagues and social environment (Lehky 2011, p. 115). Feedback is also very important for Generation Y: only 8.7% of Generation Y is satisfied with a yearly feedback, 41 percent want to have it "more often" and 44.5% "as often as possible (Lehky 2011, p. 118).

Self motivation

Self motivation is often confused with intrinsic motivation. But while intrinsic motivation is drawn from the task itself, self motivation – also known as regulation of motivation – consists of strategies by the individual to increase his or her motivation, intrinsically as well as extrinsically. Regulation of motivation is an important aspect of self regulated learning and working. It can be described as the purposeful use of strategies or procedures to influence the own motivation in a goal-oriented and conscious way and consists of the employment of certain thoughts and actions to influence the own motivation (Lenzner, Dickhäuser 2011, p.

12). Motivation and regulation of motivation are interdependent: the level of motivation to perform a certain task influences the decision if the individual tries to increase the motivation and how much effort is used. If the regulation of motivation is successful, the motivation increases (Lenzner, Dickhäuser 2011, p. 12). Successful self regulation of motivation is based on the control of three processes: cognitive processes, e.g. the use and regulation of motivational strategies; metacognitive processes, e.g. the planning and supervision of own behaviour and adaptation of the set goal; and motivational processes which include activities serving to initiate and keep up a certain behaviour as well as the evaluation of the results after the performance of the action (Lenzner, Dickhäuser 2011, p. 11). Strategies to regulate one's own motivation are the definition of self consequences, such as to allow oneself incentives or punish oneself; the goal oriented self-instruction, e.g. to imagine the goal which shall be reached by a certain behaviour; the management of self efficacy, which consists of strategies increasing the belief in the own efficacy and therefore increase the expectancy of success; the control of attributions where own attributions in regards to success and failure are controlled and only attributions increasing the motivation are allowed; the structuring of the environment to minimize potential disturbances and the increase of interest when the interest in a certain task is increased (Lenzner, Dickhäuser 2011, p. 14).

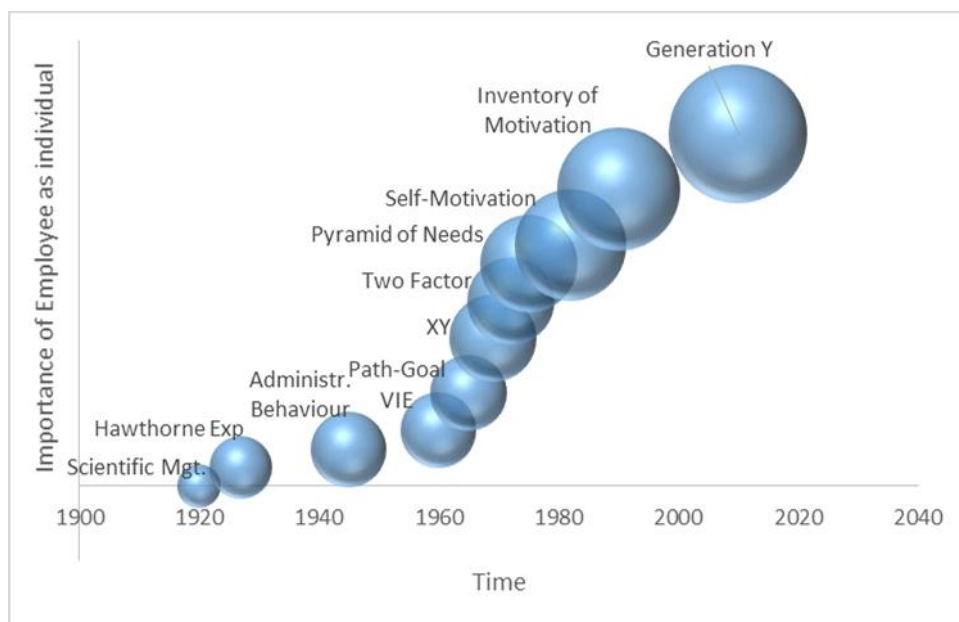


Figure 1.4 Increase of Employee Importance in motivational research

Source: Author's illustration based on literature analysis

In Figure 1.4 two new dimensions have been added compared to Figure 1.3. Further to the evolution of research approaches on motivation over the past decades, the figure shows on the vertical axis the growing importance of the employee as an individual. While the theories of

Scientific Management and Administrative Behavior focused mainly on efficacy and productivity, the VIE and Path-Goal theory focused on individual goals of employees. The following theories focused then mainly on the individual motivators and needs of an individual, but still did see the individuals as mainly equal in regards to their needs. That changed with the self-motivation and the Inventory of Motivation where a clear distinction between the needs of different individuals has been made. This trend is continued with the Motivation of Generation Y, where the focus is clearly laid on each individual and his or her individual goals, needs and values. The figure shows that the importance of employees as individuals grew rapidly between 1960 and 2000, an effect which may be related to the paradigm shift in the 1980s. The size of the circles shows the number of involved concepts. While the early theories of motivation focused on one single concept (e.g. productivity, efficacy), the evolving theories focused on more concepts at the same time – like the goals of the company, the goals of the individual, the viewpoint of the leader and the changing needs of an individual. The biggest circle is drawn for the motivation of Generation Y where further to work-related issues also private concepts have to be taken into account, e.g. work-life-balance and care for the environment. With the increasing size of the circles it is clearly shown that the complexity of motivation has been growing immensely over the past decades.

1.1.2 Motivational structure in an organization

Motivation differences between managers and employees

When describing incentives and their effectiveness, one should clearly differentiate between managers and employees, since both groups are in different work situations and therefore motivated by different rewards. When it comes to the situation in which to satisfy the need for self-fulfillment, there is a great difference between managers and employees. While employees find most of their self-fulfillment in their leisure time which they describe as interesting, diversified and stimulating, managers use almost the same terms to describe their work - the place where they find self-fulfillment (Miegel 1988, p. 22). Park states that if the individual experiences more control over the task and her or his actions in relation to it, the person is more likely to internalize the task goals and values. The individual will be more likely to experience intrinsic motivation for task performance—that she or he is doing it for his or her own interests, fulfillment, and values, rather than for salary or some other extrinsic incentives (Park, Word 2012, p. 727). According to Myers, successful goal setting is a function of being able to relate personal goals to organizational goals, having helpful systems for setting and achieving goals and being ready to respond favorably to organizational goals (Myers 1966, p. 50). Managers do have a clear imagination about their work situation, which

they have mostly realized. This might be one reason why motivation is highest among top management (Myers 1966, p. 50).

On the other hand, the gap between the imagination of employees and their real work situation is significant. Interesting is the question for employees, if they would work harder if they could work in a situation according to their wishes. 39% said they would work harder, 44% said they would not work harder because they have already reached their limits and 16% said they would not work harder because their job does not have the highest priority for them (Miegel 1988, p. 29). Contrary to common beliefs, personal fulfillment was rated by workers in the study of Ruf and Chusmir as their most important success factor in life, following in declining order of importance by family relationships, security, professional fulfillment, social contribution, and, lastly, status/wealth (Ruf, Chusmir 2001, p. 632). Previous research showed that managers' work-related values appear to be somewhat different from non-managers' values, and because managers' need for power is higher than non-managers, the relationship between managers' need for power and value for success also would be expected to be somewhat different (Ruf, Chusmir 2001, p. 638). "Managers feel most motivated when they are realizing their potential - becoming what they have the capacity and desire to become" (Myers 1966, p. 50). Manager motivation depends on interpersonal competence, the opportunity to work toward meaningful goals and the existence of appropriate management systems (Myers 1966, p. 50). 94% of managers agreed that they feel obliged to work longer and harder if necessary, even if they do not have direct financial benefits from it or need to place back private wishes. Only 53% of the employees agreed to that statement (Miegel 1988, p. 25). All work-related values of success were significantly linked for both workers and managers. Family relationship was not correlated with either sample group, whereas social contribution was correlated for the workers but not for the managers (Ruf, Chusmir 2001, p. 638). Ruf also found that "managers do not value social contribution as highly as some other values, nor as highly as non-managers" (Ruf, Chusmir 2001, p. 632). This phenomenon might be explained with a study by Couger et al. which found that managers have a low social need and a high growth need (Couger et al. 1979, p. 56). The findings of Couger et al. are also substantiated by Stewart in his research about motivation differences between managers and entrepreneurs. The results indicate that entrepreneurs are moderately higher in achievement motivation than are managers. This might be explained with the demands of the entrepreneurial role, because it provides the challenge, autonomy, and flexibility for achievement realization. Entrepreneurs are less constrained by organizational systems and structures and the entrepreneurial role is less specialized, standardized, and formalized by

agency demands (Stewart, JR., Roth 2007, p. 411). Those arguments could also count for managers when compared to non-managers, since they have a significantly higher autonomy and flexibility for achievement realization. The motivation of managers is mainly intrinsic, as Park et al. found "public and nonprofit employees are both significantly motivated by intrinsic factors" (Park, Word 2012, p. 724). One could therefore deduct that the intrinsic motivation among hotel employees is even higher among the managerial level.

Intrinsic Motivation

Many theories have integrated the belief that there are different sources of motivation. Herzberg stated that motivators are usually drawn from the task itself while hygiene factors depend on external situational factors. According to McGregor's Theory Y employees usually are motivated to work by the task itself while Theory X implies that the organization needs to force them to work. Barbuto and Scholl refer to internal and external self-concept. The underlying concept of all these theories is the concept of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. When a person is motivated to perform a certain kind of work or to engage in a specific type of behavior for the sheer pleasure of it, then intrinsic motivation is taking place. In this source of motivation, the work itself acts as incentive as workers enjoy what they are doing (Barbuto, Scholl 1998, p. 1012). Intrinsic work values are whatever employees' desire and seek directly from their work activity primarily to satisfy their psychological needs. Extrinsic work values are whatever employees' desire and seek from their work organization and working context primarily to satisfy their social and physiological needs (Wang 1996, pp. 21–22). Extrinsic incentives are only effective for a short period of time. Long-term satisfaction is reached through motivators which focus on the intrinsic aspects of the work, which means that they are directly related to the work itself (Nerdinger 2003, p. 22). Intrinsic or self-directed motivation is linked mainly to the use of cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies and a positive emotional experience (Dresel et al. 2011, p. 2).

Extrinsic Motivation

There are four dimensions of extrinsic motivation: the convenience dimension (travel to work and work hours, freedom from conflicting demands, pleasant physical surroundings); the financial dimension (pay, benefits, job security); the social dimension (relationships with co-workers) and the dimension of career opportunities (promotion, recognition) (Wang 1996, p. 19). Extrinsic motivation can therefore mainly be reached through incentives. An incentive is the relative attractiveness of a specific goal that is offered in a situation or the relative unattractiveness of a certain event that might occur as a consequence of an act (Atkinson

1972, p. 80). Most firms do have a certain incentive structure. In order for this structure to be effective and lead to the desired outcomes, different aspects need to be considered when designing an incentive structure.

Incentives

An above average performance by highly motivated employees can only be realized when the management models, the goals, and incentive structures are linked in a way that with the achievement of performance goals individual goals may be reached as well. The prerequisites therefore are: the set goals have to be realizable, the promised rewards have to surely follow the performance, the organizational goals have to be linked with those individual goals perceived as important by the employees and the perception of roles by the employees have to match the ones of the organization in order to guarantee that the increased efforts are effectively coordinated (Pruckner 2000, p. 82). Another important point to be considered is that the different elements of an incentive structure need to be consistent. This consistence has three main aspects: the intrapersonal consistence - the different incentives of an employee need to be consistent with each other. The interpersonal consistence - the incentives of employees in comparable situations should be comparative. Thirdly the dynamic consistence - the prerequisites and the philosophy which form the base for the incentives should be temporarily consistent to a certain amount (Jost 2000, pp. 510–511). The design of the incentive structure has therefore to be seen as a compromise between the interpersonal consistence of incentives and the individualized incentive structure (Jost 2000, p. 524). Many organizations fear that compromise and either give all employees the same incentive if group goals are met or do not link incentives to performance at all. Due to their motivational potential, incentives should always be linked to performance. To value group or team performance can be one way to ensure the interpersonal consistence. But this form bears the risk that individuals reduce their effort and hope that the rest of the team will overperform so that they get their incentive as well. Furthermore, goals and intentions mediate the effects of incentives on behavior. A necessary condition for incentives to affect behavior is that the individual recognizes and evaluates the incentive and develops goals and / or intentions in response to this evaluation (Locke 1972, p. 120). Motivational incentives can be differentiated in personal motivational incentives, such as direct leadership of the superior, individual career development and individual benefit components. The second form of motivational incentives consists of structural incentives, such as work structuring measurements (Jost 2000, p. 523). Another differentiation can be made between material and immaterial incentives or work stimuli. Material work stimuli are such which can be linked directly with a monetary value.

For immaterial work stimuli a direct monetary evaluation is not possible (Jost 2000, p. 463). Those differentiations show the immense numbers of possible incentives which can be used to motivate employees. As mentioned above, it is important to adjust incentives to the individual employee in order to motivate them. An incentive which is given for a goal not shared by the employee is not likely to add to his or her motivation.

Hidden cost of reward / crowding out effect

Some of the most common incentives leading to extrinsic motivation are financial rewards. When using this form of incentives, different effects have to be taken into account. Firstly, monetary incentives can increase the quantitative outcome but do not have an impact on the qualitative outcome (Nerdinger 2003, p. 29). Furthermore, if a person is engaged in an activity for intrinsic reasons and if he begins to receive an external reward for performing the activity than the degree to which he is intrinsically motivated to perform the activity decreases. This phenomenon is called the hidden cost of reward or the crowding out effect (Jost 2000, p. 504). But the effect of extrinsic incentive on intrinsic motivation has to be differentiated. Extrinsic incentives do have a negative impact on the intrinsic motivation if the employee perceives these incentives as controlling. On the other hand, extrinsic incentives can enhance the intrinsic motivation of an employee if he perceives them as informative and supporting (Jost 2000, p. 505). This means that companies should always make sure that incentives are seen as supporting rather than controlling, because each incentive perceived as controlling bears the risk of the crowding out effect. If a reward is expected for a certain task and this reward takes over the center of attention, a formerly intrinsic motivation may be changed into an extrinsic motivation (Kuhl 1988, p. 76). This effect is hard to avoid for companies. If an incentive is promised for a desired behavior, it is often unknown if the employee has before been intrinsically motivated to act in the desired way or if the promised reward will take over his center of attention. It is therefore advisable to spread the incentives and promise different, smaller incentives for different behaviours so that no single incentives is big enough to take over the center of attention. Other than the crowding out effect, extrinsic rewards may also have a corrupting effect on motivation. The relation between the material stimulus and the reached motivation effect is not monotone. An inadequately high reward can have a corrupting effect on the work motivation. At the same time, a low reward can increase the motivation. This is explained with the cognitive dissonance which may occur when participants receive a relatively low reward for an unpleasant task. In order to solve this dissonance, they rate the task higher than they initially would (Kuhl 1988, p. 73). This

explanation is consistent with the advice before to grant rather more and smaller incentives than few large incentives. This way the threat to diminish intrinsic motivation is reduced.

Development of motivators

When designing an incentive structure it is important to consider the changeability of motivators over time. The change of motives is impressively shown by a study conducted in 1955 and repeated in 1988. In the 1950s, when the research was conducted for the first time, around 60% of the interviewees were duty-oriented while only 30% were consumption-oriented. Since then, the trend has clearly gone towards consumption-orientation with a sharp break during the 1980s. Those developments are easily explicable with the economic situation in Germany (Miegel 1988, p. 14). In 1986 the most important motivational stimulus was an increased income (Miegel 1988, p. 39). This was confirmed by a study conducted in 1988 when questions regarding one of the three fundamental needs according to Maslow were rated the most significant. Those were questions about the income, the long term security of work and income, a safe retirement arrangement and a good work atmosphere (Kuhl 1988, p. 71). These main motivators have changed radically over the past 20 years. In 2008 Groth stated that most human beings are motivated by challenges, new tasks, responsibility, appreciation, success and work atmosphere (endeavor, colleagues, team) (Groth, Plaßmann 2008, p. 120). A statement which was confirmed by Barford who defined five motivational factors: responsibilities, compensation, work environment, advancement potential, free time (Barford, Hester 2011, p. 38). These developments of motivators during the last half century serve to emphasize the importance of incentive structures to be adapted to changing environments and demands of employees.

Motivation and emotions

From a neuronal point of view, the motivation which makes us pursue long term goals is the ability of the brain to remind us how satisfied we will feel when we have reached those goals (Goleman et al. 2003, p. 63). Goleman describes intrinsic motivation as the memory of positive emotions and the willingness to repeat those emotions. Häusel explains that the limbic system evaluates all stimuli coming from the outside and tests if they match the personality profile. Over 70% of this evaluation is done unconsciously. The results of this check are experienced as positive or negative emotions (Häusel 2004, p. 28). This explanation sees extrinsic motivation as the reason for positive or negative emotions. Both authors clearly state a neuronal link between emotions and motivation.

Other authors argue from a different point of view, e.g. Ulich and Mayring who define emotions and motivation as complementing components or aspects of a single psychic event. Emotions, motives, cognitions, and actions are, according to those authors, represented in the consciousness at different points during an event with different intensity, duration, and animation (Ulich, Mayring 1992, p. 31). The emotional system is therefore an integral part of the motivational system of a personality (Ulich, Mayring 1992, p. 46). More specifically, emotions are goal-oriented motives, specific orientations for actions and therefore the basic motivators of human behavior (Ulich, Mayring 1992, p. 47). Psychology follows the hypothesis that a person needs to feel comfortable, to have positive emotions, in order to be motivated and effective (Eidenschink 2004, p. 54). Nerdinger differentiates commitment in calculative and emotional commitment. If an individual is committed as a result of calculations (the cost of leaving the organization are too high), he stays because he has to. If a person is emotionally committed, he stays because he wants to. Emotional commitment is the result of identification with the organization, social relationships and a meaningful task (Nerdinger 2003, pp. 13–14). The interface between both concepts – the concept of motivation and the concept of emotions – is impressively shown in the concept of emotional learning. Emotional learning is a deep form of learning which does not only require the motives - as the joint root of 'emotion' and 'motivation' shows - but has the motives as subjects. Emotional learning is about getting to know the 'moving' forces in an individual and to advance them in a way that further develops the individual and its goals (Arnold 2003, p. 28). All different viewpoints touching the links and interfaces between motivation and emotions lead to the conclusion that there seems to be a strong connection between both concepts. In order to explore this connection further, the concept of emotional intelligence is introduced in the next chapter.

1.2 Emotions and emotional intelligence

Analysis of definitions of emotions

The root of the word 'emotion' is *movere* - Latin for the 'to move', while the prefix 'e' means 'to move toward', which implies that each emotion does possess a tendency to act (Goleman 1996, p. 22). From this background, Goleman defines emotions as a feeling with his own thoughts, psychological and biological conditions as well as the corresponding readiness to act (Schwarz 2003, p. 23). Hülshoff takes a similar approach and defines emotions as experienced situations, as a mood which is felt due to external or internal stimulations. Emotions are always experienced on different levels: vegetative-physical, motorical-

expressiv, and cognitive (Hülshoff 2001, p. 31). Ulich characterises three main directions of theories: biological – physiological models, cognitive – action theoretical models and evolutionary models. Later on, Ulich has expanded those directions by behaviouristic-learning theories (Ulich, Mayring 1992, pp. 36–41; Hauer 2003, p. 40). A working definition for emotions will be drawn later on when different approaches have been explored. In order to draw a holistic picture of the concept of emotions, a closer look is taken at related terms which are sometimes used as synonyms.

Analysis of definitions of Empathy, Moods and Affects

Empathy is drawn from Greek *empathia*, which was first defined as the ability to recognize the subjective experience of another person (Goleman 1996, p. 130). The reaction to certain emotional expressions is built in the structure of the brain; empathy is therefore a biological fact (Goleman 1996, p. 136). McKeown defines empathy as the ability to recognise and feel the emotions of others (McKeown, Bates 2013, p. 470). Two main forms of emotional stages are known: emotions in their narrow sense and moods. Emotions in their narrow sense are temporary emotional states of mostly short duration (e.g. anger) released by a specific event; they may be seen as the 'figures'. Moods are long-term colourings on the field of emotions and of longer duration than emotions in their narrow sense. They form the often diffuse, rarely categorized atmospheric background of the experience (Ulich, Mayring 1992, p. 29). In neurophysiologic researches, the term emotion is often narrowed down to events of merely a few seconds duration. Something of a longer duration, psychologically holistic and at the same time - in contrast to most feelings and emotions - merely directed is known widely under the term of mood or temper (Ciompi 1997, p. 63). "An affect is a holistic psycho-physic mood of different quality, length and cognition, initiated from internal or external impulses" (Ciompi 1997, p. 67). When affects are holistic psycho-physic moods or feelings of differing cognitive levels, then one is always in some kind affectely tempered, whether or not it is expressed internally or externally (emotion in the sense of a manifested, short-term change from one affect state to another) (Ciompi 1997, p. 69).

1.2.1 Research approaches to emotions and emotional intelligence

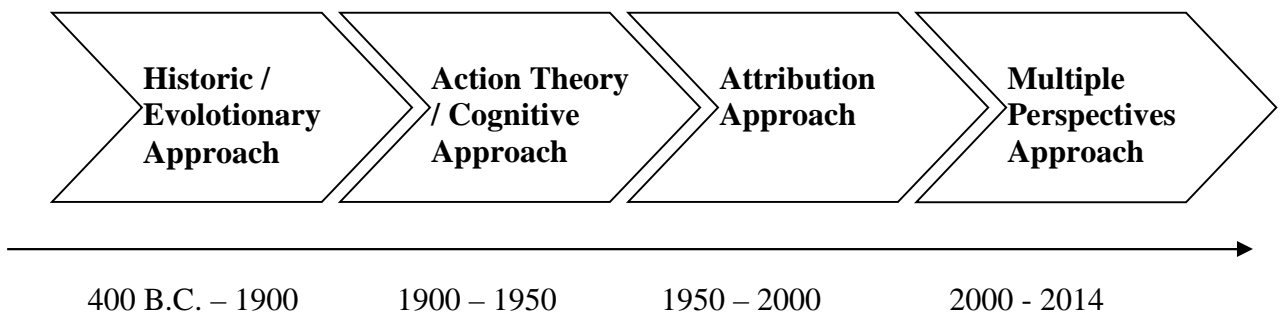


Figure 1.5 Evolution of research approaches to emotions
Source: author's illustration based on quoted literature

Figure 1.5 shows the evolution of research approaches to emotions over the past centuries. Some of the approaches have been developed simultaneously, which is why a clear definition of starting and end point of a certain approach is difficult. The approaches are explained below in more detail, in their historical order.

Historic Approach

In ancient India, one specific emotion was seen as life dominant: suffer. All actions would increase the suffering, so that only non-action and self-discipline (together with knowledge and wisdom) would bring relief. Buddhism has overtaken this view of life as suffer and sees the roots in human desire. The only way out is to fight the desire through knowledge, meditation and right actions (in the sense of avoidance of wrong actions) (Ulich, Mayring 1992, pp. 11–12). Empedocles, a pre-Socratic, saw love and hate as the impulsive and formative forces behind all actions. Love joins the basic elements into a perfect symbiosis, while hateress separates them. Both elements are necessary to explain changes and development. The human being is seen in both elements as an active, acting, forming and destroying part (Ulich, Mayring 1992, p. 13). Aristotle (384 - 322 BC), who has written the first textbook on psychology ("About the soul"), treats emotions on two levels: the level of virtues and the level of lustful and unlustful passions. The passions are concomitants of actions, of the use of ones own talents, the virtues on the other hand are direct and deliberately pursued (Ulich, Mayring 1992, p. 14). Thomas from Aquino (1225-1279), a great dogmatic of Christian Science, has declared love the primary emotion. But he believed that reason could control the love and the will of love, because he saw the intellect as more noble than the will. With the separation of the theology from philosophy in the renaissance and enlightenment, emotions were no longer on second place behind the Christian belief but became a more active role (Ulich, Mayring 1992, pp. 15–16).

Until the 1980s, most works on the psychology of emotions were dealing with the question about the impact of the so-called five emotional basis dimension on rational acting: lust, sadness, anger, fright and disgust. The negative effects of these feelings on the process of rational decision making were researched in particular (Schlegel 2003, p. 15). The rational decision making was believed to be the main role of managers within the business environment. The focus on the negative impacts emotions have on this rational process might therefore explain why the theory of emotions has not been further researched in the field of business administration. It was only after the paradigm shift in the 1980s when managers were seen more as leaders and the importance of employees as individuals was growing that the research on emotions was introduced into the field of business administration as a facilitator for human interaction.

Evolutionary approach

Darwin announced in 1872 his understanding that emotions were initiated by cognitive evaluation and initiated on their part the expression of emotions (facial expression, gesture, tone of voice, physiological changes). Furthermore, some of the emotions were learned while others were hereditary (Schwarz 2003, p. 19). In 1973 Ekman introduced a defined number of basic emotions (happiness, anger, sadness, disgust, fright, surprise) which were developed evolutionary because of their advantage in terms of reproduction. According to Ekman, these basic emotions were marked cultural-universal through specific feelings, physiological characteristics and mimic expression (Schlegel 2003, p. 16). Ekman has later on revised his definition of basic emotions and stated that there are no non-basic emotions. Every emotion has at least seven characteristics that allow us to begin to deal with fundamental life tasks quickly without much elaborated planning in ways that have been adaptive in our evolutionary past (Ekman 1994, p. 19). From an evolutionary approach emotions are seen as phylogenetically developed adaption mechanisms and are therefore the result of selection and heredity transmission. In the course of the evolution those emotional patterns were developed and transmitted which were best suitable for the survival of the species (Schwarz 2003, p. 23). Closely linked to this definition is a broader biological point of view, e.g. from Scherer: "Emotion is an episode of timely synchronisation of all important subsystems of the organism, forming the five components (cognition, physiological regulation, motivation, motor expression and monitoring), and which forms an answer to the evaluation of an external or internal stimulus as important for the central needs and goals of the organism" (Schlegel 2003, p. 15). The evolutionary approach is the one that best explains the necessity for emotions. It is necessary for emotions to be able to temporarily control all subsystems of the

organism and overrule the rational thinking in order to save the human in time-critical moments of danger.

Action Theory / Cognitive Approach

In 1884 James stated that an emotion only started with the appearance of a stimulus and ended with a conscious emotional experience. He was following the fact that emotions are often joined by physiological reactions. Cannon doubted this theory in 1992 because of the results of a research concerning the concept of emergency reactions (Schlegel 2003, p. 16). Arnold states that "emotions can be defined as the felt tendency toward anything intuitively appraised as good (beneficial), or away from anything intuitively appraised as bad (harmful). This attraction or aversion is accompanied by a pattern of physiological changes organized towards approach or withdrawal. The patterns differ for different emotions" (Arnold 1960, p. 182). According to this definition, the evaluation process is unconscious but the results are consciously registered as emotional feeling (Schlegel 2003, p. 17). Cognitive evaluation theories see emotions as results of cognitive processes of information processing and evaluation (Schwarz 2003, p. 23). Schlegel has taken this viewpoint on emotions in his definition: "according to a broadly accepted viewpoint, emotions are thoughts about the situation a person is finding himself in" (Schlegel 2003, p. 14). Averill has taken a similar point by seeing the evaluation of a situation by an individual as the core of emotions: "Emotions may be defined as socially constituted syndromes (transitory social roles) which include an individual's appraisal of the situation and which are interpreted as passions, rather than as actions" (Averill 1982, p. 6). This viewpoint is also supported by Schwarz' explanation that cognitive evaluation theories see emotions as results of cognitive processes of information processing and evaluation (Schwarz 2003, p. 23). Cognitive evaluation theories see the interaction between person and environment as an open cybernetic model or open feedback mechanism. Emotions are complex organised states which consist of cognitive evaluations, impulses to act and physiological reactions patterns. Challenging situations are evaluated according to their copability and reactions are planned or executed. Emotions are not involved in the coping but are a result of the evaluation. Emotions are not seen as energy suppliers but as statements (Hauer 2003, p. 39). Ciompi, Goleman, Damasio and others have proven impressively that the origins of cognition are emotions respectively, that there is a circular influence of cognition and emotions. This puts rationality as dominant concept of perception, thinking and acting into perspective (Hauer 2003, p. 33).

Attribution Approach

Attribution theory has its foundation in psychology and is based on the assumption that individuals have an inherent need to explain events that surround them. Following the occurrence of an event, individuals will attempt to explain why it occurred. The cognitive process of assigning causes to events is called the attribution process (McElroy 1982, p. 413). Attribution approaches in the emotions psychology are characterized by the belief that attributions as such are of fundamental importance for the formation of certain emotions (Schlegel 2003, p. 17). The attribution theory does not claim to be a holistic theoretical approach and research is focussing mostly on the influence of attributes on emotions (e.g. a feeling is influenced by the importance an individual attributes to a certain situation) (Hauer 2003, p. 39).

In 1962 Schachter and Singer agreed with former authors on attribution theory to the extent that they thought physiological arousing and its feedback for an important prerequisite for emotional experiences. People develop a labelling of their arousal state from information about the physiological and social surroundings and from the knowledge about the emotions that can be experienced in the specific situation and identify the status as fright, love, sadness, anger or happiness (Schlegel 2003, p. 17).

Multiple Perspectives Approach

Some authors have tried to define emotions from more than one viewpoint: Oatley and Jenkins see the origin of an emotion in the cognitive field while they describe the expression of emotions in a more biological way. According to them, an emotion has its origin typically when a person evaluates - conscious or unconscious - an event as significant for an important concern (goal). The key of the emotion are the readiness to act and the suggestion of action plans; an emotion gives one or a few actions the right of way, by implying urgency. That way, an emotion can suppress mental processes or actions or compete with them. An emotion is usually experienced as a specific mental state which is sometimes accompanied or followed by physical changes, expressions or actions (Schlegel 2003, p. 15). Emotions do basically have two functions. The first one is that emotions enable rapid orientation to events in the environment. Emotions, in effect, interrupt ongoing processes and direct attention to significant threats and opportunities. The second general function is organization. Emotions coordinate the cardiovascular and respiratory systems, the different muscle groups, and facial expressions and experience. This coordination enables more adaptive response to events in the environment (Oatley et al. 2006, p. 39). Other definitions list characteristics of emotions, e.g.

Schwarz, who lists four main aspects: the subjective component of the experience, which can be perceived consciously or unconsciously and describes inner conditions, feelings and moods. The function of this aspect is the initiation of specific actions. Secondly the neurophysiologic component of arousal which is indicated by physiological changes such as the arousal of the autonomic nervous system and functions as preparation of actions through the organism. The next aspect is the cognitive component of evaluation, which includes the awareness of emotional conditions. Therefore the questioning of own emotions becomes possible which allows for a certain amount of control through rational evaluation. The last aspect is the interpersonal component of expression and communication which is composed of emotional expression behaviour and motoric behaviour and forms the communication element of emotions (Schwarz 2003, p. 23).

Ulich names ten concrete characteristics of emotions: firstly, at the experience of an emotion, the bodily-psychological constitutions are in the centre of the cognition. Secondly, the self-concernment of the individual is an essential part of an emotion. Thirdly emotions often appear spontaneous and involuntary. Fourthly when experiencing emotions the person sees himself rather passive, as sustaining or surrender. Furthermore the experience of emotions is most commonly joined by an inner arousal or excitement. The sixth characteristic of emotions is, according to Ulich, that a momentarily experienced emotion is always unique and unconfusable. Another characteristic is that emotions do give continuity to the cognition more than other physical appearances do - the person experiences identity. Emotions do furthermore not need any purpose - their function is to be experienced. Another characteristic is that the expression and understanding of emotions is mostly done through non-verbal communication. The last characteristic Ulich names is that in comparison to other psychological appearances, emotions are especially interpersonally interwoven when developing (Hauer 2003, p. 39).

Due to the wide range of study fields related to emotions, it is no surprise that Kleinginna & Kleinginna found no less than 100 different definitions of emotions, which they tried to summarize in their own definition: "Emotion is a complex arrangement of interactions between subjective and objective factors which is transmitted by neuronal/hormonal systems which can cause affective experiences like feelings of arousal or lust / un-lust, which can evoke cognitive processes like emotionally relevant perception effects, evaluations or classifications; which can start extended psychological adaptations to the conditions activating the arousal and which can lead to behaviour that is often expressive, goal - oriented

and adaptive" (Hauer 2003, p. 38). Nearly all authors do agree that emotions do come from some kind of neuronal background which is aroused by a specific situation and the evaluation of the situation by the individual. Emotions can be experienced consciously or unconsciously and may cause an observable physical change. The experience of emotions leads to actions which might be adapted to the situation having caused the emotion. For the further discussion of emotions in this work, emotions are defined as conscious and unconscious neuronal reactions to the evaluation of experienced situations. These reactions do cause a physical change in the body of the actor which is not always observable and may lead to according actions.

Research approaches to emotional intelligence

Beginning in the 1990s, the idea of emotional intelligence (EI) began attracting a good deal of attention, both among psychologists and in the popular press. Many people seem to agree that emotional intelligence is important, even though they are not exactly sure what it is. After all, emotions are important and intelligence is good, so emotional intelligence must be valuable, too (Shiota, Kalat 2012, p. 301). Earlier, emotional intelligence was not discussed because emotions were seen as "undesired influences on the logical-analytical behaviour and were left outside in order not to scratch the ideal of the rational acting manager" (Schlegel 2003, p. 13). The evolution of the research on emotional intelligence is displayed in figure 1.6 and the different approaches are explained below in more detail.

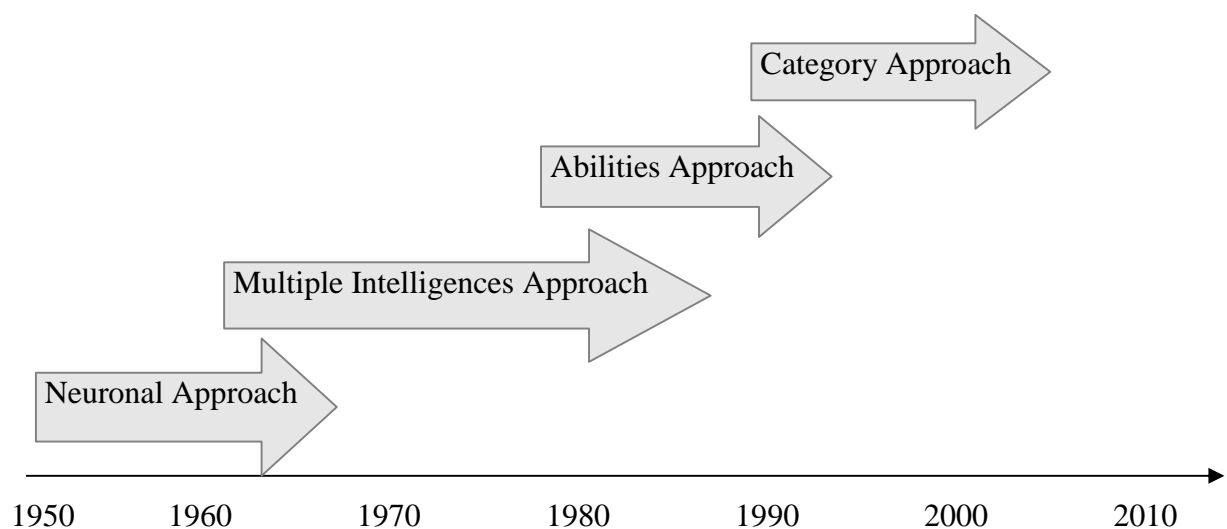


Figure 1.6 Evolution of Research approaches to emotional intelligence

Source: author's illustration based on quoted literature

The true centre of emotions is supposed to be in a part of the limbic system, the amygdale. Amygdale is the Greek word for almond and the amygdale is shaped somewhat like an almond. Like nearly all brain areas, the amygdale is a bilateral structure; each hemisphere contains one. The amygdale receives input representing vision, hearing, other senses, and pain, so it is in a position to associate various stimuli with outcomes that follow them. The amygdale seems to function as storage for emotional memories and therewith giving meaning to emotions (Goleman 1996, p. 33). The neuronal process as described above can be shortened in certain situations: Further from the signal to the prefrontal cortex a smaller part of the signal, an abstracted, simplified and therefore unspecific picture of the situation is sent directly from the thalamus to the amygdale. Here, the simplified situational pattern is compared to known patterns of the emotional memory, independent from the processes in the prefrontal cortex. If the situation is judged as threatening, according to the comparison of patterns, the amygdale can initiate direct actions through according emotions such as fright or anger, without waiting for the signal of the prefrontal cortex. The action which is initiated that way is executed with a far shorter reaction time in comparison to a rationally based action, even though both processes do not last longer than split seconds. The pure emotional reaction is not precise, since the situation was just roughly measured and not thought over precisely (Schwarz 2003, p. 24).

Abilities Approach

There are various approaches to define the term “emotional intelligence”. Some authors try to grasp the term by naming the abilities it includes. "Important are from my point of view often skills which I declare here as ,emotional intelligence’; including self discipline, enthusiasm, insistence and the ability to motivate oneself" (Goleman 1996, p. 12). Shiota names the ability to recognize the meanings of emotions, and their relationships, and to use emotions effectively in reasoning and problem-solving (Shiota, Kalat 2012, p. 300). The intelligence of emotions includes abilities such as to motivate oneself and to continue despite setbacks; to suppress impulses and postpone gratifications; to regulate own moods and to avoid that misery steals the ability to think; to put oneself into someone’s position and to hope (Goleman 1996, p. 54). Typically, researchers and theorists emphasize three major components: Perceiving emotions in facial expressions, music, art, and so forth. Understanding and reasoning about emotions. Managing emotions, such as calming oneself down or relieving someone else's anxiety (Shiota, Kalat 2012, p. 301).

Multiple Intelligences Approach

Gardner did not use the term of emotional intelligence but by proclaiming a new set of intelligences, including interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences, he laid the foundation for the concept of emotional intelligence, which was mainly developed by Goleman. "Intelligence is the ability to solve problems or to create products, that are valued within one or more cultural settings" (Gardner 1993, p. xiv). The first generation of psychologists of intelligence, such as Charles Spearman (1927) and Lewis Terman (1975), tended to believe that intelligence was best conceptualized as a single, general capacity for conceptualization and problem solving (Gardner 1993, p. xvi). The prerequisites are a way of ensuring that a human intelligence must be genuinely useful and important, at least in certain cultural settings (Gardner 1993, pp. 60–61). "I argue that there is persuasive evidence for the existence of several relatively autonomous human intellectual competences, abbreviated hereafter as 'human intelligences'" (Gardner 1993, p. 6). The exact nature and breadth of each intellectual 'frame' has not so far been satisfactorily established, nor has the precise number of intelligences been fixed. But the conviction that there exist at least some intelligences, that these are relatively independent of one another and that they can be fashioned and combined in a multiplicity of adaptive ways by individuals and cultures, seems to be increasingly difficult to deny (Gardner 1993, p. 8). "And so it becomes necessary to say, once and for all, that there is not, and there can never be, a single irrefutable and universally accepted list of human intelligences" (Gardner 1993, p. 59). The core capacity of intrapersonal intelligence is access to one's own feeling life - one's range of affects or emotions: the capacity instantly to effect discriminations among these feelings and, eventually, to label them, to enmesh them in symbolic codes, to draw upon them as a means of understanding and guiding one's behaviour. The other personal intelligence, interpersonal intelligence turns outward, to other individuals. The core capacity here is to notice and make distinctions among other individuals and, in particular, among their moods, temperaments, motivations and intentions (Gardner 1993, pp. 239–240). Interpersonal intelligence is the ability to understand other human beings: what is motivating them, how they work, how one can cooperatively work together with them. Successful sales people, teachers, politicians or religious guides probably possess a high level of interpersonal intelligence. Intrapersonal intelligence is the equivalent ability but directed inwards. This ability consists of forming a true and applicable model of oneself and with the help of this model to appear successfully in life" (Goleman 1996, p. 60). According to Hatch and Gardner, interpersonal intelligence contains the following elements: to organise groups – the main ability of a leader who initiates and coordinates the efforts of a large number of human beings; to negotiate solutions – the talent of a facilitator who avoids conflicts or solves

existing conflicts; personal relations – the talent of empathy and the creation of relationships; social analysis – the ability to recognize and understand the feelings, motivations and needs of others (Goleman 1996, pp. 153–154). Salovey subsumes the forms of personal intelligence proposed by Gardner under his basic definition for emotional intelligence which structures these abilities in five sections: Self-perception, to know ones own emotions; suitability, to handle emotions; goal-directed, to translate emotions into actions; empathy, to know what others feel; relationships, basis for popularity, leadership and interpersonal effectiveness (Salovey, Rothman 1991, pp. 280–282). The multiple intelligence approach by Gardner laid the foundation for the concept of emotional intelligence proposed by Goleman and Salovey. The allowance that there is more than one intelligence, that there might be more to problem solving than the pure rational thought and logical intelligence mirrors the paradigm shift in management research in the 1980s. The definition of intelligence as a capacity for conceptualization and problem solving has to include emotions since they are able to make us solve life-threatening problems, as discussed in the evolutionary approach. The part of conceptualization describes the key aspects of Salovey’s definition of emotional intelligence.

Category Approach

Other authors have not only listed the abilities that emotional intelligence comprises but have defined categories for these abilities and define emotional intelligence according to these categories, e.g. Caruso and Salovey who have defined six principles and four competencies of emotional intelligence: Their approach to emotional intelligence relies on the following six principles: 1. Emotions are information. 2. It is impossible to suppress emotions. 3. To hide emotions is by far not working as well as we believe. 4. Only decisions considering emotions are effective. 5. Emotions follow a logical pattern. 6. Emotions can be universal, but also very specific (Caruso, Salovey 2005, p. 27). Those principles underline the importance emotions play in our daily life and the necessity to acknowledge emotions as crucial part not only of personal relations but also as part of professional behaviour and decision making. In order to use emotions in a beneficiary way, it is necessary to recognize them and to know how to deal with them – it is what Caruso and Salovey named the four areas of competencies of emotional intelligence: identify emotions, use emotions, understand emotions, and manage emotions (Caruso, Salovey 2005, pp. 7–8). Emotions management - the ability to integrate ones own emotions and the emotions of other in ones thinking - is an important part of the emotional intelligence (Caruso, Salovey 2005, p. 75).

1.2.2 Emotional intelligence in an organization

When emotional intelligence is discussed within an organization, one has to further operationalize the concept. Therefore the measurement of emotional intelligence, its relevance especially at the work place as well as the threats of its lack are briefly touched.

Measurement of emotional intelligence

Psychologists have attempted to measure emotional intelligence in several ways. One approach is to measure emotional intelligence with self-report inventories, problems with this approach include for example honesty and validity. The other approach is to develop an ability test, comparable to IQ tests or other standardized tests. The best-known and most widely used test of this type is the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (Shiota, Kalat 2012, pp. 302–303). The MSCEIT asks probates to solve emotional problems. The answers are evaluated with points. The reached points are then compared to a large, normative database of test results (retrieved from the large public or from emotion experts) in order to calculate a sort of emotional competence quotient. The identified value could be named 'EQ' for emotional quotient. The authors prefer the terminology emotional intelligence quotient or EI-value. The term EQ is used often in relation with approaches of emotional intelligence evaluations which, according to the authors, are not competency based (Caruso, Salovey 2005, p. 89). The problem here is the definition of right or wrong concerning the answers to the questions. There is no clear evidence that emotion experts possess a higher degree of emotional intelligence or why the answer of the large public shall rule over the answer of an individual. Even though in today's research the MSCEIT is the most widely used test for emotional intelligence, it is likely that more tests will be available in the near future, trying to deal with the weaknesses of the MSCEIT. Nevertheless it is still an open question if the research community will one day agree on one single definition and evaluation of emotional intelligence. Even though there is no undisputed measurement system of emotional intelligence so far, Goleman defines the highest form of emotional intelligence as the flow: "To let oneself flow is the highest form of emotional intelligence; (...) When flowing, the emotions are not only mastered and canalized but positive, tense and fully directed to the task in question" (Goleman 1996, p. 120). For the course of this dissertation emotional intelligence shall be defined as the ability to recognize ones own emotions and the emotions of others, to control ones own emotions and to react adequately to the emotions of others. Adequately in this definition shall be understood as in a social and cultural accepted way. "Wished is, as Aristotle noted, the adequate emotion, the feeling according to the circumstances" (Goleman 1996, p. 79).

Relevance of emotional intelligence

"The IQ is responsible for a maximum 20% of the success in life so that over 80% have to come from other forces" (Goleman 1996, p. 54). According to Goleman, the emotional intelligence is a meta ability from which it depends how good we are able to use our other abilities, even the pure intellect (Goleman 1996, p. 56). Emotional intelligence therefore is gaining importance in terms of leadership and management. To strike the tone emotionally in an interaction is a sign of dominance on a deep, very personal level, since it means to guide the emotional state of the other (Goleman 1996, p. 152). Even the effectivity, satisfaction and productivity of people in their workplace depend on what is said to the problems they deal with (Goleman 1996, p. 194). In the interaction of two human beings, the mood of the one who expresses his emotions in a stronger way will be consigned to the more passive one (Goleman 1996, p. 150). Emotions are the expression of the relationship between the person and the subject of the emotion. Not the objective characteristics of the subject will be felt or experienced but the form of this relationship (Ulich, Mayring 1992, p. 52). Somebody who is in a depressed mood, will find more convincing arguments and arguments of better quality than somebody in high spirits, because negative moods lead to a more thoroughly, more systematic proceeding. If someone is in high spirits, he or she will probably find more arguments and more creative, original ones (Caruso, Salovey 2005, p. 120). It can therefore not be clearly stated if positive or negative emotions are the more productive ones – depending on the situation, each type of emotions can be useful, as long as they are managed adequately. According to Goleman, each strong emotion is based on an acting impulse; the management of these impulses is one of the main tasks of emotional intelligence (Goleman 1996, p. 184). Being able to canalize emotions in order to reach a goal opens possibilities for self-motivation and creativity (Hauer 2003, p. 38). Emotions have different effects on cognition: emotional stimuli grab our attention; *ceteris paribus*, emotional arousal does improve memory; emotions influence how we interpret information; emotions have a direct impact on our decisions. Emotion is part of our thinking, not something separate. Thoughts influence emotions, but emotions alter what is remembered, how intensely it is remembered, what aspects of the environment are noticed, who is blamed for misfortunes, what events are considered likely in the future, and how much effort is put into making a decision (Shiota, Kalat 2012, p. 333). Social harmony is mainly responsible for a high group IQ. It is the ability for this social harmony when a group under the same conditions is more talented, productive and successful than another one (Goleman 1996, p. 205). Emotional intelligence can therefore not only help to increase individual productivity, it is also possible to enhance the group IQ. For the latter case, it is not necessary that all team members are highly emotionally intelligent,

it may be sufficient that the leader or another member of the group with influence recognizes emotions and is able to relieve or channel them.

Threats when emotional intelligence is missing

When emotional intelligence is lacking, serious problems can arise in the work and personal life. Strong negative emotions keep the attention on their fixation and make it difficult to focus on something else (Goleman 1996, p. 107). Who is overflown by emotions cannot perceive clearly or react with a cool mind; he cannot organize his thoughts and falls back to primitive reactions (Goleman 1996, p. 178). If emotional intelligence is lacking, people risk pull-back and social problems, they tend to be more frightened and depressive, they tend to have problems with attention and focusing and are more often delinquent and aggressive (Goleman 1996, p. 293). The distinction between emotional regulation and coping is that coping is always an attempt to reduce negative emotion, whereas emotion regulation includes trying to increase or decrease positive emotions, or even trying to increase a negative emotion if it seems like a good strategy in a particular situation (Shiota, Kalat 2012, p. 136). Similar negative effects were found when people had damages in neuronal areas influencing emotions. People with damage in the prefrontal cortex often act impulsively, taking the first choice that looks reasonable instead of checking for a better one. They also express less empathy than average for other people in distress (Shiota, Kalat 2012, p. 127). Due to the shown importance of emotional intelligence for the effectivity and well-being of employees, it seems advisable include it in desired leadership abilities. In order to explore possibilities to integrate emotional intelligence into leadership, the following chapter introduces the concept of leadership.

1.3 Leadership

Analysis of definitions of leadership

The words 'leader' and 'leadership' did not come into the English language until the 13th century. It came from the Anglo-Saxon 'leiden' which is to go forward, or to go up to. And it was then used usually to describe the person at the head of an army (Ramsden 2008, p. 20). Today researchers usually define leadership according to their individual perspectives and the aspects of the phenomenon of most interest to them (Yukl 2006, p. 2). Leadership definitions can roughly be differentiated into goal-oriented, influence-oriented, vision-oriented, and coordination-oriented.

Goal-oriented leadership definitions

Many scholars have defined leadership from a goal-oriented perspective, focusing on the setting and achievement of company goals. Bower defines a leader as a person who sets attractive goals and has the abilities to attract followers, or constituents, who have the same goals. Political leaders (e.g., a president or governor) must have the qualities and attributes required to achieve their common goals. But above all, the leader must be trusted and respected (Bower 1997, p. 7). Holzbaaur explains that leadership executes goals and decisions and moves people to act in line with the guidelines. It is based on the motivation of the followers and on the power of the leaders (Holzbaaur 2001, p. 55). Franke states that leadership needs leaders and followers. Furthermore, it is only sensible to talk from leadership when a more or less clearly defined leadership goal is given, when the leading is serving the accomplishment of a task (Franke 1972, p. 50). Sergiovanni defines leadership as achieving objectives effectively and efficiently (Sergiovanni 1984, pp. 105–106). Hungenberg sees leadership as the goal-oriented influence on attitudes and behaviour of individuals or whole groups in the organization. In the context of these influencing actions, measures of communications, motivation and qualification are used. To scale those in a way that the behaviour of employees is lead in the desired direction is a characteristic of good leadership (Hungenberg, Wulf 2006, p. 330). The goal-oriented definitions of leadership focus on company goals, which are the reason for the existence of leadership in the work environment. Therefore, the goal-orientation seems to be a logical definition base for leadership in the work environment. On the other hand, most of the authors focus on the goals and the achievement thereof only without taking into account the process of leadership and how the goals are reached.

Influence-oriented leadership definitions

Leadership definitions focusing on the executed influence are more process oriented than the goal-oriented definitions. According to Link, leadership can be understood as goal-oriented influence on behaviour and is therefore a process of reciprocal behavioural influence between persons. Both parties in this process try to dominate the other party with their own values (Link 2010, p. 3). Yukl defines Leadership as the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives (Yukl 2006, p. 8). Riggio sees leadership as the higher-level functions of a person with authority or influence in a group - providing strategic direction, overseeing the decision-making process, initiating and managing change (Riggio 2011, pp. 119–120). Lorsch defines a leader as an individual who

influences others to follow him or her (Lorsch 2010, p. 414). Jung states that the art of leadership is to give orientation while at the same time integrating and using the ideas, imaginations and opinions of others (Jung 2008, p. 40). Scanlan takes a similar perspective and defines leadership as the ability to have somebody doing something what one wants, when one wants, how one wants, because he wants it himself (Scanlan 1982, p. 30).

The influence-oriented leadership definitions take into account that individuals need to be influenced in order to work towards company goals and that those goals have to be seen as common objectives. Leadership is – according to this perspective – seen as the influencing process necessary to have employees reach company goals. While taking a broader perspective than the goal-oriented perspective, those definitions do not clearly state the difference between individual and company goals and how leaders can reduce this difference.

Vision-oriented leadership definitions

Definitions focusing of the vision of leaders try to answer the question how leaders can communicate the company goals in order to have them understood and shared by employees. Jung therefore sees the ability of a leader as to give people orientation, to win them for certain goals and to make them excited about their work (Jung 2008, p. 38). Krames sees a leader as someone who could express a vision and then get people to carry it out (Krames 2004, p. 7). Hinterhuber defines the core of leadership as firstly to create a joined view of the present and the future with managers and employees which puts the customer value in the centre focus and secondly to give all possible space for self dependent thoughts and acts on the basis of a vision in which fulfilling everybody is willing to participate (Hinterhuber, Krauthammer 2001, p. 16). Pattni explains that leadership can be defined as a special case or innately endowed ability of interpersonal influence that gets an individual or group of people to do what the creative or endowed individual wants done by a reasonable confirming majority of people. Leadership can be seen a quality of virtue since it aims at promoting the good and welfare of human society. Leadership is about creating structures that harmonize and integrate all faculties of human existence for a better, enlightened and empowered society (Pattni, Namwambah 2007, p. 8). Gill is supporting a similar thesis, saying that leadership is about showing the way and helping or inducing others to pursue it. This entails envisioning a desirable future, promoting a clear purpose or mission, supportive values and intelligent strategies, and empowering and engaging all those concerned (Gill 2011, p. 9). Chateris-Black focuses on the importance of vision: while there are subtle differences in the shade of emphasis placed on values and visions, any successful leadership communication will exhibit

attention to vision and values (Charteris-Black 2007, p. 219). Hinterhuber et al. see visions as one of the main pillars of leadership: they define the three pillars of leadership as to be a visionary, to be an idol and to increase the shareholder value (Hinterhuber, Krauthammer 2001, p. 18).

While clearly stating the importance of formulating visions, most vision-oriented definitions of leadership do focus on visions only and do not explain the process of translating goals into visions and the process of turning visions into reality.

Coordination-oriented leadership definitions

The coordination-oriented definitions of leadership explain leadership as the coordination between different sets of goals and target groups. Due to the division of work in organizations, coordination becomes necessary. Coordination has to make sure that all efforts are directed toward one common goal and coordination needs to influence people in their task execution to harmonise themselves in their daily routines. Leaders overtake the task of this coordination (Hungenberg, Wulf 2006, pp. 329–330). Link calls it harmonisation, which he differentiates in internal and external harmonisation: the external harmonisation between the system and the expectations of the environmental systems is the central task of all leadership activities. On the other hand there is an internal harmonisation problem with its root in the division of tasks (Link 2010, p. 7). Hinterhuber et al focus on different stakeholder groups of the organization: leadership means to develop and convert or have somebody else convert new possibilities as well as designing the organizational change processes in a manner that values are created for the customers and therewith satisfying the other partners of the organization (Hinterhuber, Krauthammer 2001, p. 14). Potthof defines leadership in form of a PDCA-cycle: to plan, to teach, to control and to evaluate and - not at least- knowledge of human nature and the leading of human beings are the new factors that characterize today every form of leadership (Potthoff 1979, p. 80). Those coordination-oriented definitions of leadership show the complexity of leadership and its task but do leave out the process of leadership as well as the relationship between leaders and followers.

As a summary of various perspectives, leadership is defined as the process of translating company goals into visions, which are understandable and shareable by different stakeholder groups and influencing employees to share those visions and coordinately work towards them.

Analysis of definitions of management

The word management comes originally from the Latin 'manu agere', which means to lead with the hand and firstly appears 1598 in English literature. When it comes into use it is to describe what the man at the stables does when he takes a horse. He leads it by the hand (Ramsden 2008, p. 20). Management was formerly a synonym for the leading and dressage of horses und only later on being used in business context. The term means here the definition of goals and the goal-oriented coordination of tasks, activities and processes (Hirzel, Chamberlain 2008, p. 29). Management definitions today mainly focus on the business context mentioned by Hirzel. Renz states that Management would not exist without people. But not either group of people does imply management – management would not exist without the organization either (Renz 2008, p. 10). Riggio finds that Management describes the administrative functions of persons with authority or influence - monitoring and controlling process, budgeting, focusing on standards (Riggio 2011, p. 120). Hinterhuber focuses mainly on the problem-solving task of managers, stating that Management means to solve problems in a creative way. Therefore, a variety of instruments, methods and approaches are available with which the organization can gain competitive advantages (Hinterhuber, Krauthammer 2001, p. 14). Jung defines the task of a manager as to plan, organize and control the different processes in an organization in the best possible way (Jung 2008, p. 37). All those definitions focus on the interaction between the organization and the individual and how individuals are guided to form an organization and act as one. The instruments used for guidance – which at the beginning of the term has been a simple leash – are now clearly named by administrative functions.

Analysis of definitions of leadership style

A Leadership style is a long-term stable, situational consistent behavioral pattern of a leader which is mainly formed by his personal attitude towards employees (Hungenberg, Wulf 2006, p. 336). Leadership styles, like many other types of human behavior, are often outcomes of coping mechanisms, unconsciously developed in response to anxiety and stress (Allcorn 1994, p. 1). Following these definitions, leadership styles are further developments of the behavior and situational/contingency theories, trying to name and classify the appropriate actions and reactions of the leader. The discussion of leadership styles is not a theory of its own and does not provide universally valid assumptions about effective leadership. Leadership styles shall therefore not be discussed in further detail in this work.

1.3.1 Research approaches to leadership

Over the decades, different theories have tried to answer the question what effective leadership is and how it can be achieved in a generally valid way. In the first decade of the 20th century, trait theories of leadership were dominant, assuming that certain characteristics of a person influence the quality of leadership. In the 30ths, leadership style theories were developed which assumed that the success of leadership depends on the style in which leadership is executed. Since a certain leadership style is not successful in all situations, situational leadership theories were developed in the 1960ths (Hungenberg, Wulf 2006, p. 331). Today, leadership is again seen as the answer to increasingly challenging problems - including meeting increasing demands with constraints on resources (Storey 2011b, p. 3). The evolution of the researches in leadership is shown in figure 1.8.

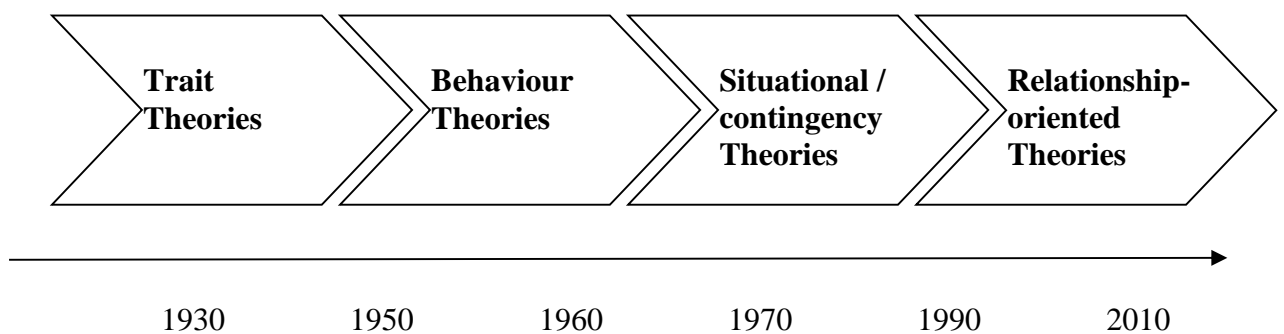


Figure 1.8 Evolution of research approaches to leadership

Source: Author's Illustration based on quoted literature

Trait theories

Luther Lee Bernard attempted to explain leadership in terms of the 'internal' qualities that a person was born with (Gill 2011, p. 64). "Mankind must make successful and satisfying adjustments to the environments, both physical and social, to control his relationships to the environment. Not all men are able to make those adjustments successfully" (Bernard 1881, p. 6). The then developed trait theories assume that traits play a central role in differentiating between leaders and non-leaders. Trait theories are sometimes referred to as 'Great Man' theories both because leadership was thought to be the province of males and because leadership had a mythical, heroic sense of destiny (with leaders assumed to be born, not made) (Glynn, DeJordy 2010, p. 122; Pattni, Namwambah 2007, p. 9). Early studies of leadership and personality, in the 1930s and 1940s, assumed that effective leaders have special traits in common and aimed to identify those (Gill 2011, p. 65). Examples of the traits found to be desirable are integrity, authenticity, respect, readiness to make decisions and assertiveness (Jung 2008, pp. 38–39), as well as abilities (e.g. intelligence, ability to express oneself, ability to make decisions); performance; responsibility; participation; and status

(Hungenberg, Wulf 2006, p. 332). Stogdill reviewed 124 trait studies conducted from 1904 - 1948 and found that a pattern of results was consistent with the conception of a leader as someone who acquires status by showing the ability to help the group in attaining its goals. Relevant traits include intelligence, alertness to the needs of others, understanding of the task, initiative and persistence in dealing with problems, self-confidence, and desire to accept responsibility and occupy a position of dominance and control (Yukl 2006, pp. 182–183). "These factors describe the leader as making effective use of interpersonal, administrative, technical, and intellectual skills. While highly task motivated, he is also capable of maintaining close, friendly, personal relationships" (Stogdill, Bass 1981, p. 93). The review failed to support the basic premise of the trait approach that a person must possess a particular set of traits to become a successful leader (Yukl 2006, pp. 182–183). Stogdill's Meta-Analysis identified more than 500 characteristics which should define successful leaders. Only five of those were in more than 15 of the 124 researches found more often among leaders than among the subordinates (Hungenberg, Wulf 2006, p. 334). Due to this inconsistency and contradictions, trait theories of leadership are seen today as failed. It does not seem possible to define a general valid set of desirable characteristics of leaders (Hungenberg, Wulf 2006, p. 334). "The findings suggest that leadership is not a matter of passive status, or of the mere possession of some combination of traits. It appears rather to be a working relationship among members of a group, in which the leader acquires status through active participation and demonstration of his capacity for carrying cooperative tasks through to completion" (Stogdill, Bass 1981, p. 65). The impossibility to define a valid set of leadership traits, as well as other shortcomings such as that the rank-order between traits was not explained, it did not become clear if traits were a cause or a consequence of leadership style, it was not clear if traits were necessary *and* sufficient, it ignored the context (situational and organizational factors) and the fact that it seemed inconceivable that an effective leader possesses all the traits that are associated with effective leadership and conversely that an ineffective leader - or a 'non-leader' possesses none (Gill 2011, p. 67) lead to the failure of the trait theories as general valid and useful theories of leadership.

Behavior theories

The behavior approach started in the early 1950s after many researchers became discouraged with the trait approach and began to pay closer attention to what leaders actually do on their job (Yukl 2006, p. 13). Research on effective leadership behavior was strongly influenced by the early research at Ohio State University during the 1950s. The initial task of the researchers was to identify categories of relevant leadership behavior and develop questionnaires to

measure how often a leader used these behaviors. The researchers compiled a list of about 1800 examples of leadership behavior, and then reduced the list to 150 items that appeared to be good examples of important leadership functions. Factor analysis of the questionnaire responses indicated that subordinates perceived their supervisor's behavior primarily in terms of two broadly defined categories labeled 'consideration' and 'initiating structure' (Yukl 2006, p. 51). Consideration (human warmth, trust, respect) and initiating structure (definition of competencies, planning, controlling) formed the so-called Two-dimensions-theory which is forming the basis for further leadership concepts, such as the Managerial Grid by Blake and Mouton (Hungenberg, Wulf 2006, pp. 341–343). A second major program of research on leadership behavior was carried out by researchers at the University of Michigan at approximately the same time as the Ohio State leadership studies. The focus of the Michigan research was the identification of relationships among leader behavior, group processes, and measures of group performance. Information about managerial behavior was collected with interviews and questionnaires. Objective measures of group productivity were used to classify managers as relatively effective or ineffective. The research found three types of leadership behavior differentiated between effective and ineffective managers. Firstly, task-oriented behavior - effective managers did not spend their time and effort doing the same kind of work as their subordinates. Instead, more effective managers concentrated on task-oriented functions. Secondly, relations-oriented behavior - the effective managers were also more supportive and helpful with subordinates. And thirdly participative leadership - effective managers used more group supervision instead of supervising each subordinate separately (Yukl 2006, p. 54). In both research programs, the oppositeness between the leader's focus on the task / productivity and the leader's focus on the followers / relationships has been the major finding. This two dimensional focus of the behavioral studies of leadership had a significant impact as a starting point for management-based theories of leadership emerging during the following decades (Riggio 2011, p. 121; Glynn, DeJordy 2010, pp. 122–123). The first development was a set of influential theories that were popular from the 1950s to the 1960s (Gill 2011, p. 71). The most popular outcomes of the leadership style theories were the Managerial Grid by Blake and Mouton, the Decision-Making-Model by Vroom and the Attribution Theory by Green and Mitchell. The leadership styles model gave rise to Robert Blake and Jane Mouton's Managerial Grid, later renamed the Leadership Grid (Gill 2011, p. 72). The Leadership Grid is a two-dimensional model. The first dimension is the productivity; the second dimension is the care for interhuman relations (Blake, Mouton 1986, p. 30). On the grid, the efforts for the two dimensions are measured into a nine points scale. One means little effort, five stands for average efforts and nine shows a high concentration. The five 'pure'

methods of leadership can be identified with those numbers: 1,9; 9,1; 1,1; 5,5 and 9,9 (Blake, Mouton 1986, pp. 33–35). Leaders are described as '9,9' when they emphasize both the task and the people; '9,1' when they emphasize the task but not the people; '1,9' when they emphasize the people but not the ask; and '1,1' when they emphasize neither. Blake and Mouton later added a third dimension, 'flexibility', the ability to switch between situations (Gill 2011, p. 72).

The Decision-Making Model of leadership proposed by Vroom and his colleagues suggests that the critical element of leadership is decision-making. Moreover, a leader can be effective by simply choosing the appropriate decision-making strategy when faced with an important decision (Riggio 2011, p. 122). The model is therefore a normative model to specify a set of rules which should be used in order to determine the most effective form and amount of participation in decision-making by subordinates in different classes of situations (Vroom, Yetton 1973, p. 11). Using this theory, the leader asks a series of yes-no questions designed to analyze the decision-making situation. The result is a 'programmed' method that is comparable to a recipe for effective leadership (Riggio 2011, p. 122). The attribution leadership model of Green and Mitchell (1979) presents an explanation of leader's responses to poor performance of subordinates. The model suggests that the leader first diagnoses the causes for the poor performance by processing information using a schema consisting of four elements: ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck. In a second step, on the basis of the attribution made, the leader chooses a response directed either at the subordinate (internal response) or at changing something in the situation (external response) (Srivastava, Sett 1998, p. 591; Dobbins et al. 1990, p. 46). The attribution model of leadership assumes that if supervisors correctly diagnose the cause of poor performance and use their causal attribution to select corrective actions, then the intervention should, at least to some extent, lead to a reduction in poor performance (Dobbins et al. 1990, p. 46). One shortcoming of the attribution leadership model is that it does not explicitly recognize the role of individual differences in leader-attribution processes. The leadership orientations (people / task) are not taken into consideration. This orientation is likely to influence the leader's attributions. Furthermore, researches suggest that the managerial assessment of work-related performance is influenced by subordinates' non-task achievements (Srivastava, Sett 1998, p. 592). Furthermore, such factors as actor-observer differences, self-serving biases, and the gender of subordinates may bias leaders' attributions. In addition, organizational variables may prevent leaders from implementing the appropriate response even though they have correctly diagnosed the cause of poor performance (Dobbins et al. 1990, p. 46). Despite its early

promise, the considerable body of behavioral research (like the trait studies that preceded it) found that a particular leadership style was not universally effective; a style that was effective in one setting was not always effective in another one. As well, behavioral theories tended to rely on abstracted concepts of behavioral types that were often difficult to identify (Glynn, DeJordy 2010, p. 123). Those shortcomings are mainly based on the fact that it was tried to find one single recipe or guidance for all leader-follower situations. Due to the fact that there are always individuals interacting, such a general recommendation of behavior does seem utopian. This finding gave way to a new type of leadership theories, which did not yet take into account the different personalities of leaders and followers but the different situations in which leadership is happening.

Situational / contingency theories

Situational theories emphasize the importance of contextual factors that influence leadership processes. Major situational variables include the characteristics of followers, the nature of the work performed by the leader's unit, the type of organization, and the nature of external environment (Yukl 2006, p. 14). Aspects of the situation that enhance or nullify the effects of a leader's traits or behaviour are called situational moderator variables. Theories that explain leadership effectiveness in terms of situational moderator variables are called contingency theories of leadership (Yukl 2006, pp. 214–215). The most well-known theories are the contingency-theory by Fiedler and the situational leadership theory by Hersey and Blanchard (Hungenberg, Wulf 2006, p. 346). Fred Fiedler was the pioneer of contingency theories in the late 1960s. Trained as a clinical psychologist, Fiedler's theory asserted that the task versus follower orientation of leaders was relatively fixed and represented a core motivation on the part of the leader. Leaders were either motivated primarily by the task or motivated by interacting with people on the job. As a result, leaders tend to have this preferred style of leading that focuses primarily on the task or on the people/relationship (Gill 2011, p. 79; Riggio 2011, p. 121). "This theory states that the success of a group depends on two factors. The first is the style of the leader and the second is the extent of control and influence over the group behavior, the task and the result which the situation is providing for the leader" (Fiedler et al. 1979, p. 11). Taking the opposite perspective of Fiedler, the Situational Leadership Theory (SLT) introduced by Hersey and Blanchard in 1977 presumes that leaders are flexible and can alter their task-focused and follower-focused behaviors in order to meet the demands of the situation. The theory is based on the amount of direction (task behavior) and the amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) a leader must provide, given the situation and the 'level of maturity' of the follower or group (Hersey et al. 1980, p. 98). The

'situation' for SLT is the 'development level' of the followers - ranging from followers who are self-directed and self-motivated (highly developed) to followers who are low on development and need constant direction. According to the theory, the level of subordinate maturity determines the appropriate mix of task and relation behavior for the leader (Riggio 2011, p. 122; Yukl 2006, p. 223). According to SLT, as the level of task maturity of the follower increases, the leader should begin to reduce task behavior and increase relationship behavior. This should be the case until the individual reaches a moderate maturity level. As the follower comes into an above-average level of maturity, the leader should appropriately decrease not only task behavior but relationship behavior as well (Hersey et al. 1980, p. 101).

Another contingency theory was introduced by House and Mitchell (1966/1974) – the Path-Goal Leadership Theory. The path-goal theory is based on two general propositions. The first proposition is that leader behavior is acceptable and satisfying to subordinates, to the extent that the subordinates see such behavior as either an immediate source of satisfaction or as instrumental to future satisfaction. The second proposition is that leader's behavior will be motivational to the extent that (1) such behavior makes satisfaction of subordinate's needs contingent on effective performance and (2) such behavior complements the environment of subordinates by providing the coaching, guidance, support and rewards necessary for effective performance (House, Mitchell 1980, p. 84). This theory views the leader as a facilitator or 'coach' who must adopt particular leadership roles in order to help the group navigate the difficult path to attaining their shared goals. In the path-goal model, the leader still displays behaviors focused on the task and production or focused on fostering good relationships, but the leader is not dictating the process (Riggio 2011, p. 123). According to this theory, effective leadership behavior has to be complementary to the environment and the abilities of the followers, in a way that considers their individual characteristics, compensates deficits and therewith add to their empowerment (Pruckner 2000, pp. 85–86). The leader increases personal payoffs to subordinates for achieving work goals and paves the way to these payoffs by clarifying the path, removing or reducing roadblocks and pitfalls, and enhancing personal satisfaction along the way (Gill 2011, p. 78).

In contrast to trait and behavioral theories, contingency theories explicitly assume that leadership can vary across situations and that there may not be a universally effective way to lead; different contexts may call for different kinds of leadership. Those theories usefully contextualized leadership and modeled it as more supple, adaptive, and situational flexible than trait or behavioral theories (Glynn, DeJordy 2010, p. 123). The situational and

contingency theories were developed further when a paradigm shift in leadership research occurred during the 1980s. A fundamental transformation occurred in management approaches to leadership in the late 1970s and 1980s, moving away from the idea that leadership is about 'engineering' outcomes, to a more relationship-based approach (Riggio 2011, p. 123). Storey made a similar observation, that in the 1980s, attention shifted dramatically to the elaboration and promotion of the concept of transformational, charismatic, visionary and inspirational leadership (Storey 2011a, p. 16). In many ways the mid 1980s were the change point for leadership and management theory in the corporate environment. The whole philosophy until then was in many ways supply driven. This was mixture thinking between the earlier Taylorist approach of the era 1900-50 and the later contingency approach of Fiedler et al. that became popular in the period 1960-1980. A dramatic paradigm shift followed that was based on customers, quality, elimination of waste, and competition. The momentum for this new paradigm was based on a philosophy of continuous improvement, and Japanese companies were the driving force behind this (Carmichael et al. 2011, p. 118). The paradigm shift is visible in all parts of managerial research – the individual gained on importance, goals rather than share productivity came into focus and elements which have earlier been seen as threatening rational management, such as emotions, came into focus and their influence was analyzed on an organizational research. The paradigm shift therefore also gave room for the topic of this dissertation which would not have been of interest before the shift.

Relationship-oriented theories

After the paradigm shift, the focus of leadership theory research has not singled out traits or behaviors or the situation in which leadership occurs but has taken all these variables into account, describing leadership in terms of the relationship between leaders and followers. Generally, these newer models treat leadership as a change process and the leader as a primary catalyst of change (Glynn, DeJordy 2010, p. 125). The idea is that today's organizations, with flatter, hierarchical structures and technologically-savvy and knowledgeable workers, leadership is a joint venture between those in positions of authority and those doing the work (Riggio 2011, p. 125). One of the most discussed models is the Leadership-Member-Exchange-Theory (LMX Theory) introduced by Graen and Uhl-Bien in 1995. LMX asserts that effective leadership is determined by the quality of interaction between the leader and particular group of members/followers. According to LMX the leader develops different types of dyadic relationships with followers, some of which are high-quality while others are low-quality relationships (Riggio 2011, pp. 123–124). According to

the theory, most leaders develop a high-exchange relationship with a small number of trusted subordinates who function as assistants, lieutenants, or advisors (Yukl 2006, p. 117). LMX theory makes a clear distinction between team-level and dyadic level leadership. Team-level leadership refers to the average leadership style of the leader toward the team, for example, average consideration and average structuring or average transformational and average transactional behavior. Dyadic-level leadership refers to effective dyadic relationships characterized by mutual trust, respect, and commitment. Team-level leadership assumes a 'business as usual' project; the dyadic-level leadership does not. When the projects require much more than usual investments by team members, the dyadic-level bonds become operative. In such situations leaders must go beyond the team-level to the dyadic-level with their followers to augment team performance. A leader's failure to do this contributes to lower team performance. In other words, when the projects require extraordinary input from the team members, there must be effective dyadic relationships within the team to be successful (Graen et al. 2006, p. 448). The goal of the successful leader is to try to improve the quality of the dyadic relationships as much as possible, and harness the power of high-quality follower relationships to achieve goals (Riggio 2011, pp. 123–124). The development of high-exchange relationships occurs gradually over a period of time, through reciprocal reinforcement of behavior as the exchange cycle is repeated over and over again (Yukl 2006, p. 117). In contrast to leadership style theories, LMX theories argue that leader-member relations are sufficiently variable to warrant focusing on each pair of leaders and members (each 'dyad') separately (Gill 2011, pp. 76–77). In other words, leadership is a complex process that does not involve programmed, or 'engineered' behaviour. Instead, it involves the collective efforts of multiple individuals to learn, adapt and innovate in response to changing conditions (Riggio 2011, pp. 125–126). While LMX theory is still strictly seen a contingency model, with the leader's behavior regulated by situational conditions, it is different from its predecessors because the 'situation' is now the followers (and the relationship between leader and followers) (Riggio 2011, p. 124).

Another recent and widely discussed approach to leadership focusing on the relationship between leaders and followers is the transactional / transformational approach to leadership. Beginning with Burns' (1978) notion of transforming (versus transactional) leaders, and continuing with Bass's operationalization of the theory (Bass 1985), transformational leadership focuses on the qualities of particularly effective leaders who are able to inspire, challenge and develop followers to obtain extraordinary levels of follower commitment and performance (Riggio 2011, p. 124). Transformational leaders do more than 'transact' with

subordinates or followers. They stimulate followers to transcend their own immediate self-interest for the greater good of the group, organization or society. Transformational leadership makes a positive impact on empowerment, motivation and morality (Gill 2011, p. 83). According to Bass and Avolio, there are four components of transformational leadership: Idealized influence. These leaders are admired, respected, and trusted. Among the things the leader does to earn credit with followers is to consider followers' needs over his or her own needs. The leader shares risks with followers and is consistent in conduct with underlying ethics, principles, and values. Inspirational motivation. Leaders behave in ways that motivate their followers by providing meaning and challenge to their work. Individual and team spirit is aroused, enthusiasm and optimism are displayed. The leader encourages followers to envision attractive future states, which they can ultimately envision for themselves. Intellectual stimulation. Leaders stimulate their followers' effort to be creative and innovative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways. Individualized consideration. Leaders pay attention to each individual's need for achievement and growth by acting as a coach or mentor. Followers are developed to successively higher levels of potential, while their differences in terms of needs and desires are recognized (Bass et al. 2003, p. 208; Bass 1997, p. 21). With transformational leadership, the followers feel trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect toward the leader, and they are motivated to do more than they originally expected to do (Yukl 2006, p. 262). Transformational leaders transform the self concepts of their followers. They build personal and social identification among followers with the mission and goals of the leader and organization. The followers' feelings of involvement, cohesiveness, commitment, potency, and performance are enhanced (Bass et al. 2003, p. 209). Transformational leadership occurs when both leader and followers raise each other's motivation and sense of higher purpose. Transactional leadership on the other hand involves a transaction, or exchange, between leader and followers, such as providing a material or psychological reward in return for followers' compliance with the leader's wishes, with no sense for any higher purpose (Gill 2011, pp. 81–82). Transactional leadership clarifies expectations and offers recognition when goals are achieved. The clarification of goals and objectives and providing of recognition once goals are achieved should result in individuals and groups achieving expected levels of performance (Bass et al. 2003, p. 208). Transactional leadership has three components: Contingent rewarding: leaders assign or get agreement on what needs to be done by followers to satisfy their needs. Leaders promise or provide rewards to followers in exchange for their agreeing on those goals. Management-by-exception is practiced by leaders either actively or passively. If active, leaders monitor their followers' performance and correct followers' mistakes and deviations from standards. If passive, leaders

wait for mistakes and deviations to occur before taking corrective action. Non-transactional leadership involves laissez-faire behavior. Such leaders are usually inactive, avoid making decisions, delegate responsibilities, and are absent when needed (Bass 1997, p. 21). According to Bass, transactional contingent reward leadership builds the foundation for relationships between leaders and followers in terms of specifying expectations, clarifying responsibilities, negotiating contracts, and providing recognition and rewards for achieving expected performance (Bass et al. 2003, p. 215). Previous research has proven that transactional contingent reward style leadership is positively related to followers' commitment, satisfaction, and performance (Bass et al. 2003, p. 208). When clarity exists around expectations and performance objectives, followers come to learn that their leaders and peers, when asked to execute a task, do so reliably. Transformational leadership can build on these initial levels of trust by establishing a deeper sense of identification among followers with respect to the group's values, mission, and vision (Bass et al. 2003, p. 216). When compared with each other, those leaders who display higher levels of transformational leadership are more effective than frequently contingent-rewarding leaders who, in turn, are more effective than those practicing a high degree of management-by-exception. Least effective are laissez-faire leaders. Transformational leadership does not replace transactional leadership but adds to the effectiveness of transactional leadership (Bass 1997, p. 22). Transformational leadership is most likely to emerge in times of distress and change, because transformational leaders work more effectively in rapidly changing environments by helping to make sense of the challenges confronted by both leaders and followers and then appropriately responding to those challenges. Transactional leadership on the other hand is more likely to be observed in a well-ordered society (Bass et al. 2003, pp. 207–208).

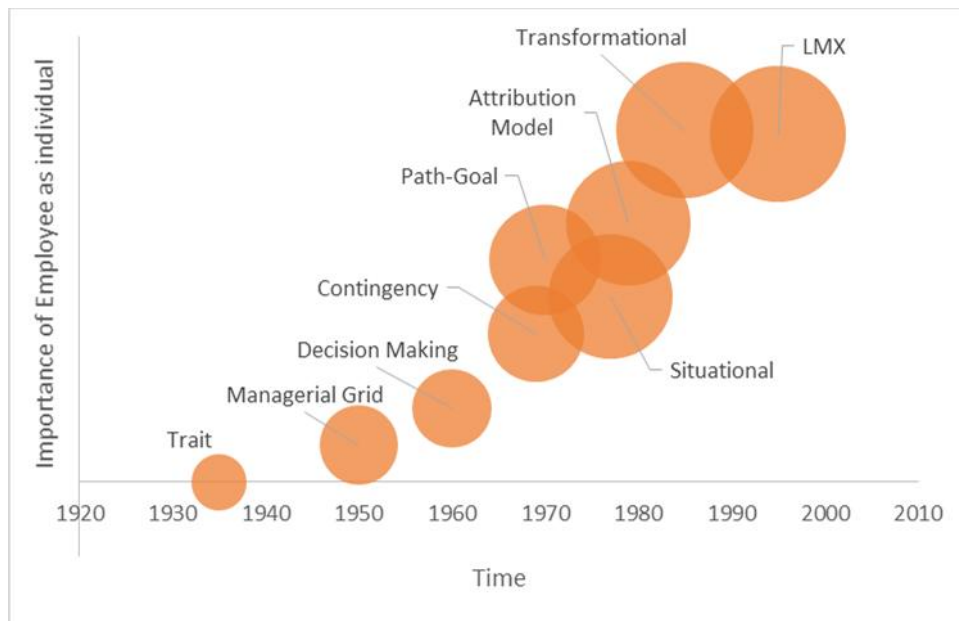


Figure 1.9 Increasing importance of employees within leadership research
Source: author's illustration based on literature analysis

Figure 1.9 analyses the evolution of research approaches of leadership on two more dimensions than just the timeframe of evolution. The first additional dimension is the importance of the employee of an individual within the different approaches. While the trait theories did not pay any attention to the follower, the managerial grid and the decision making model acknowledged the presence of the employee as part of the leadership situation. The contingency and situational theory focused on different situational factors with the employee being one important part. The focus on the follower was driven further by the Path Goal theory and the Attribution Model which suggest to base leadership behaviour exclusively on the situation of the employee. The LMX theory is based purely on the professional relationship between the leader and the follower while the transformational leadership approach lays the biggest importance on the employee as an individual by suggesting that the leader should not just exchange transactions with the follower but transform him or her on a personal level as well.

The second additional dimension of analysis is the number of concepts included in the different theories, represented by the size of the circles. While the trait theories focused solemnly on the leader, the evolution of theories brought the situation of the company, the abilities of the follower, the relationship between leader and follower and the personality of the follower as new concepts to be taken into account. Leadership theories as such have become more and more complex, as can be seen by the growing size of circles.

1.3.2 Leadership in an organization

Leadership is widely used in organization and therefore the research on leadership is closely linked to the organizational theory. But there are a few points which have to be considered when using leadership in an organization, such as the differences and similarities between leadership and management as well as leadership models which may be used by organizations to define corporate leadership.

Similarities and differences between leadership and management

Renz pragmatically defines: "A manager is everybody who leads other people" (Renz 2008, p. 11). What Ramsden finds interesting in terms of the definition is that management is defined in terms of the ability to lead (Ramsden 2008, p. 20). Storey declares, that prior to the 1980s 'leadership and management' were rarely terms subject to differentiation (Storey 2011b, p. 9). Hirzel focuses on the joint goal of both approaches: to give orientation to people and organizations and to align them to joined ideas and goals (Hirzel, Chamberlain 2008, p. 33). But even though the differentiation between management and leadership is a recent phenomenon and both approaches do have common goals, there are certainly different viewpoints differentiating both concepts. According to Hirzel, Management is focusing rather on objects and tasks while leadership puts the focus on orientation and journey. In an organizational context, leadership stands for the formulation of visions, the concretion of perspectives and their comprehensible interpretation (Hirzel, Chamberlain 2008, p. 29). Covey and Carnegie take a similar perspective, Covey states that leadership is about visions, to keep the mission in mind, about effectivity and results. Management is about the design of structures and systems in order to achieve those results (Covey 2009, p. 174). The roles of leaders and managers can be distinguished according to their tasks and personalities. Managers plan, organize and provide structure. Leaders strategize, provide a vision, and try to build commitment to the vision and common purpose (Riggio 2011, p. 120). Managers are transactional, seek to operate and maintain current systems, accept given objectives and meanings, control and monitor, trade on exchange relationship, have a short-term focus, mostly on detail and procedure. Leaders are transformative, seek to challenge and change systems, create new visions and new meanings, empower, seek to inspire and transcend, have a long-term focus, mostly on the strategic big picture (Storey 2011b, p. 8). While leadership has been defined by translating goals into visions and influencing people to coordinately work towards those visions, management can be seen as the underlying structure, defining the goals and providing the structures and control mechanisms. Both concepts do have joint goals but different, complimentary ways to reach them. So the company goals would be reached most

efficiently if leadership and management were performed at the same time. Concerning the roles of leaders and managers, it is according to Yukl obvious that a person can be a leader without being a manager (e.g., an informal leader), and a person can be a manager without leading (Yukl 2006, p. 5). It does take very different personality traits for leaders and for managers, as the definitions above have made clear. Therefore leadership and management abilities are rarely found in the same personality. This is the reason why a differentiation between leaders and managers is advisable.

Leadership models

A leadership model is the description of a leadership style and its concretization through leadership techniques. It includes an ideal idea of a leadership style and a systematical think-through of possible leadership techniques based on this ideal leadership style (Britt 1972, p. 15). According to this definition, leadership models can only be talked of when behavior theories of leadership were discussed, since trait theories of leadership did not differentiate between leadership traits, styles and techniques. Since a leadership model is focusing on one leadership style only, each theory proposing more than one leadership style as possibly successful must be translated in different models. Therefore, leadership models can be seen as further developments of different parts of leadership theories with a clear focus on practices. They are therefore used in organizations for some kinds of leadership handbooks to define the leadership theory the organization believes in and translating this theory into practices and styles which shall be used by leaders of this organization.

Leadership effectiveness

When it comes to leadership effectiveness, it is hard to find a definition that is commonly used within scientific research. Willcocks argues that there is no consensus about leadership effectiveness because it is a subjective, socially-constructed, concept. It is open to interpretation and different meanings, and depends upon the perspective of individual and organisational stakeholders (Willcocks 2012, p. 8). Nevertheless, the term of leadership effectiveness has been used in various studies. Hassan et al. measured it with two items: the first item asked subordinates to rate the overall effectiveness of their manager in carrying out his/her job responsibilities. The second item asked subordinates to rate the overall effectiveness of their manager (Hassan et al. 2013, p. 138). This method separates leadership effectiveness into two categories: effective for the company / subordinates and effective for the team that is lead. This measurement seems plausible, since the followers and the company/organization are the two main stakeholder groups of a leader. Fan et. al focused on

the team perspective but still found two dimensions of effective leaders activities: initiating structure (e.g. setting up the virtual meeting agenda, giving instructions on how to perform tasks) and consideration (e.g. the extent of care and concern for team members) (Fan et al. 2014, p. 432). This categorization may be seen as a reformulation of the Managerial Grid by Blake and Mouton which was presented above. Therefore the key aspect of Fan et al. might be that an effective leader is able to use both leadership styles and combine them individually to react adequately to the situation at hand. Gartzia et al. point more into the ‚consideration‘ direction and state that contemporary descriptions of effective leadership are characterized by many socio-emotional qualities (Gartzia, van Engen 2012, p. 297). One example of such a contemporary description of effective leadership is given by Rogelberg according to whom effective leadership of others, which is the main job of leaders, consists of supportiveness, mentorship, helpfulness, and promoting collaboration (Rogelberg et al. 2013, pp. 186–187). Those few examples should serve to give a quick glance at the spectrum how the term leadership effectiveness is used in current scientific researches. Leadership as such is a process which can be described and changed but one cannot measure it – e.g. it is not possible to „increase“ leadership. In order to make it measurable, one needs a reference point – such as team or company performance, team motivation or increase of key indicators. Such reference points need to be defined according to the goals a leader is supposed to achieve. According to those reference points, the effectiveness of a leader can be measured. This dissertation does not focus on a single company or organization which is why there are no key figures which can be used to measure leadership effectiveness. Rather it shall be tried to define generalizable reference points what a leader should be measured with. When analysing the evolution of leadership research, it has become clear that the individual is gaining on importance, which is a trend that is continuing for decades now and there is no indicator that the trend will change any time soon. So the focus on the employee as an individual is probably one of the most relevant, general reference points a leader should be measured against in current times. Since transformational leadership is the one concept among the most discussed ones, that places the highest emphasis on the individual, it seems plausible to use it as measurement tool for leadership effectiveness. Guay supports this linkage and states that transformational leadership mediates the relationship between demands-abilities fit and leader effectiveness In his recent research Guay found that follower perceptions of transformational leadership are positively related to supervisor perceptions of leader effectiveness. If followers are happy and performing well, team performance is likely also strong. As such, supervisors are more likely to rate these leaders as effective (Guay 2013, p. 66). Leadership effectiveness shall therefore be measured according to the transformational leadership theory.

Conclusions of theoretical findings

In the previous chapters the evolution of research approaches to motivation, emotional intelligence and leadership has been presented. In order to gain a holistic understanding and allow a deeper analysis of those concepts, the evolution of the concepts shall be analyzed within the macro development of the business environment and all concepts shall be brought together to allow a first analysis, if a combined research of all three concepts seems advisable. The changes of the business environment has been mentioned by various authors with different focuses. For this dissertation the focus shall be on changes and events which have an impact on the concepts of leadership, motivation, emotional intelligence or the hotel industry. Uen sees a growing focus on the hotel industry and its employees since the focus of the world economy has continuously transformed from producing goods to offering quality services, as evidenced by the presence of over half of employment in most industrial countries in the service industry (Uen et al. 2012, p. 26). Perrin et al. find new challenges in leadership due to the profound changes the corporate world has experienced in the early years of the twenty-first century. Countless challenges in a rising global economy have forced leaders worldwide into uncharted territory and have perhaps redefined what leaders must do in order to navigate their organizations toward success. Given these corporate realities, leaders may have to adapt their past understandings of what effective leadership means, and need renewed focus on the issues confronting leaders (Perrin et al. 2012, p. 175). Hassan et al. take a similar perspective and name the changes in more detail: the financial crisis, economic downturn and repeated scandals involving leaders from business and government organizations have lead organizational researchers to re-examine how leaders can enhance employee loyalty and commitment to the organization (Hassan et al. 2013, p. 133). Gartzia and van Engen see one of the major challenges for leaders in current times within the motivation of employees: changes in the nature of work processes like globalisation, technological advances, trends towards a service economy, and a knowledge intensive society have increased the importance of having motivated employees who participate, contribute, work in teams and innovate to create competitive advantages for their organizations. In this context, new definitions of leadership have emerged (Gartzia, van Engen 2012, p. 296). Millar et al. focus on the changes of value systems, which were also a result of changing times: several external forces in society influence the creation of a shared value system among people in each historical context, and while the world is continually changing, so too do the shared value systems between generations. The differences are manifested, among others, in values and beliefs about work and organisations, work ethics, workrelated goals and what is expected from working life (Millar et al. 2014, p. 570). The named trends of the world economy have

different impacts on the society. Globalization increases the competition and the necessity to find new ways to gain a competitive advantage. Combined with the trend towards a service industry the competitive advantage may lay either in the services delivered, such as advanced knowledge or technologies, or in the people delivering the services. This leads to the trends of a knowledge society where knowledge is constantly gaining importance and the trend of a society of advanced technologies. When the evolution of research of leadership and motivation are brought together in one figure, a clear trend of both research directions can be seen:

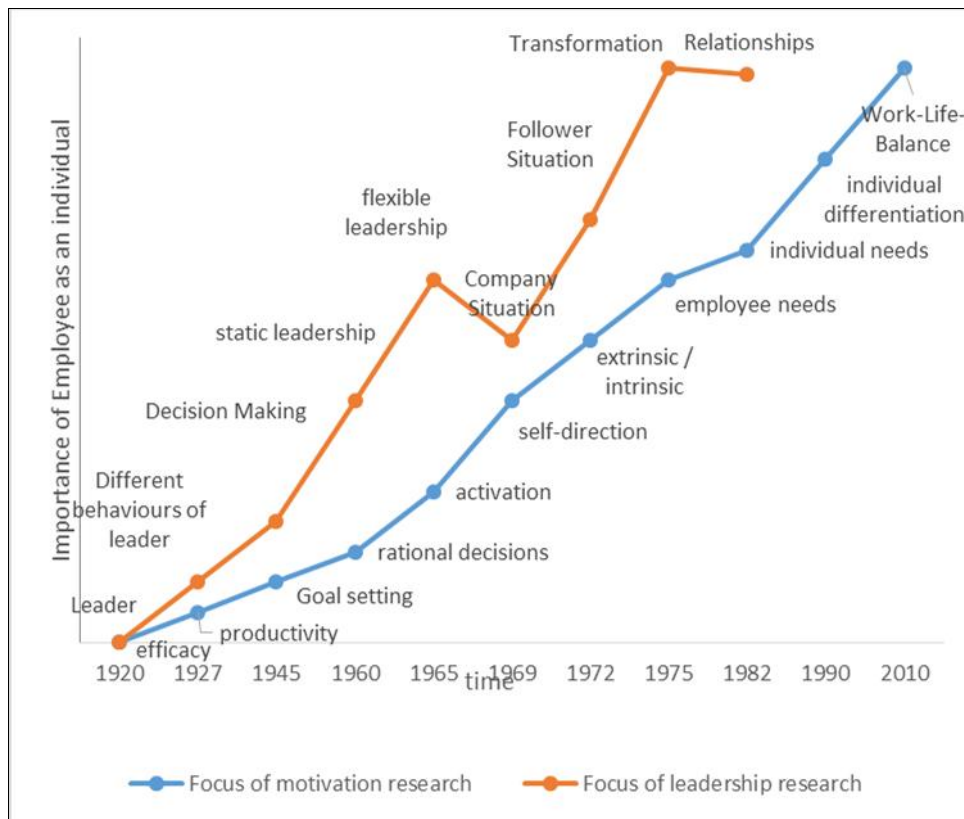


Figure 1.10 Evolution of focus of motivational and leadership research
Source: author's illustration based on literature analysis

Figure 1.10 shows the different focuses of researches according to the research approaches presented above. It becomes clear that the employee as an individual became more and more important, especially after the paradigm shift in the 1980s. This was also the time when interest in emotional intelligence grew. Those trends of research together with the changing circumstances explained above define a clear direction for necessary research, which has to focus on competitive advantages in a service-oriented society on a macro-level and on the individual on a micro-level. Research on motivation in the hotel industry is therefore of high actuality. Due to the growing importance of work-life-balance and the decreasing value of money for the new generation, which might be a result of financial crises, the focus is on non-monetary rewards.

2 ANALYSIS OF THE HOTEL INDUSTRY AND MODEL DEVELOPMENT

2.1 Hotel Industry

Characteristics of the hotel industry

Hotel services are related to goods, such as cleaning of hotel rooms and service of meals as well as related to persons, for example when providing information or during spa treatments. So hotel services combine goods and person related services (Henschel 2001, p. 80). Hotel services do have certain characteristics which distinguish them from other industries. It is important to keep those specifications in mind when talking about leadership and motivation in hotels. The main characteristics of services are that the 'product' is immaterial, that services are highly bound to a specific place, services cannot be provided in advance, they are not storable and they are characterized by the simultaneous contact of consumer and supplier while the consumer usually is part of the service in question (Beinlich 2000, pp. 26–27). Additionally, services do have an increased risk at purchase and make a quantification difficult, services can hardly be standardized and are highly individual (Henselek 1999, pp. 5–6). Furthermore, service is an experience for the guest and a performance for the server. It is intangible and the guest and the server are both part of the transaction. This personal element makes service quality control difficult (Barrows et al. 2012, p. 515). These main differentiating characteristics of services shall be explained in more detail below.

Immaterial and Abstract

A service is the result of a factor combination process and is an immaterial, intangible good (Hänssler 2008, p. 100). The immateriality of services was first declared by Say in 1852. Say stated that a service is a real product, but immaterial (Gardini 1997, p. 28). Due to the immateriality of services the quality and quantity of the output are hard to measure. Even though it could be argued that a room with a bed and a shower does have the same value every day, since it is always the same room, a good night's sleep can be valued higher in certain situations than in others. They also do not have a 'want appeal' as do goods displayed in shop windows (Seitz 1997, p. 2). Hotel services may not be examined like goods but are actions that are directly consumed (Henschel 2001, p. 80). Intangibility is an attribute that refers to the fleeting nature of services - they are difficult to describe, measure, or standardize (Olsen et al. 1992, p. 3). Services may vary inter- and intra-individually in regards to the performance ability and readiness of the personnel (Gardini 1997, p. 32; Seitz 1997, p. 5). Due to this fact, the value of a service can hardly be measured. Even if a hotel tries to classify its services (e.g. 4-Star hotel), it cannot guarantee that a potential guest will sleep well.

Services are abstract and depending on expectations (Seitz 1997, p. 4). Guests may have very different expectations and imaginations about the services of a hotel and do not have the possibility to test the services in advance (Henschel 2001, p. 80). Services do mostly not provide any search qualities which the client may use prior to the purchase. Therefore, many services are defined by experience qualities which can only be evaluated after the service has been consumed. Most services can then not be repeated – if a guest did not sleep well, this night is forever lost to him, he cannot repeat it. If a value evaluation is not possible even after the purchase, the service also does have credence qualities meaning that the consumer has to rely on the producer in regards to the quality (Gardini 2010, pp. 28; 32). For this reason, services are described as heterogeneous since the quality of the service experience is measured in the perception of the customer (Olsen et al. 1992, p. 4). This might be the service characteristic which is the most difficult one to handle. Each guest has different expectations and perceives the service in a different way. Nevertheless, the hotelier has to convince the guest in advance that his service is worth the money he is asking for and has to try to meet each guests' expectations without knowing them before.

Simultaneity and external factor

The concept of simultaneous production and consumption suggests that the service experience is produced and consumed at the same time (*uno actu principle*) (Olsen et al. 1992, p. 4). Services can only be delivered if the guest is present and consumes the services at the same time or shortly after the production (Hänssler 2008, p. 101). Due to the simultaneity of production and distribution of services the possibility of storage production is inexistent for most services. Therefore no buffer times can be created in order to balance variability in demand and distribution (Gardini 1997, p. 30). In regards to the employees that implies that their daily routine does include standby time as well as very busy times, without being able to distribute their work evenly throughout the day, like paperwork. The hotel service requires the presence of the guest as an external factor. The guest has to be personally present during the performance of the service and influences the process by dictating the quality, rhythm, time and extent of the service (Henschel 2001, p. 81; Olsen et al. 1992, p. 4). This integration of the supplier system with the surrounding system is necessary for the production of services. The guest takes a double role - as part of the service production process and as consumer of the end product. This provides challenges on the place and time level as well as on the functional (intellectual and/or physical participation) and social level (Gardini 1997, pp. 33–34). The value can only be added if the client cooperates. The better provider and consumer interact, the better the quality of the product (Seitz 1997, p. 4). Therefore the hotel industry is

a very staff intensive service industry. The required 'hospitality' can only be delivered through a direct personal contact between the guest and the service staff. The human work is the crucial factor and may not be substituted completely (Henschel 2001, pp. 82–83). In regards to the employees, this factor means that they are not only bound to the consumer's wishes in regards to time and location, but that they are experiencing very different work situations all the times, due to the different guests being part of the situation.

Not storable, stationary and limited adaptable

Services and products of the hotel industry are not or only to a very limited extent storable and transportable (Hänssler 2008, p. 101). Therefore, the prerequisites of the serviceability (capacity of beds, personnel) have to be present at the place and time where they are required. A hotel service which is not consumed at a specific time or place vanishes; it cannot be resold or reused. If a demand is not satisfied, it cannot be satisfied later on through a delayed delivery (Henschel 2001, p. 81). Due to the fact that services are not storable the service process is only directed towards the consumer and cannot be produced in advance. Each offered but not consumed service is perished (Seitz 1997, p. 3; Olsen et al. 1992, p. 4). A hotel is always subject to different levels of demand which may vary immensely and are increased by the inexistence of a service-storage (Henschel 2001, p. 82). That means that a hotel has to be built the size to meet the demand on one hand, in order not to turn away business, on the other hand it has to be small enough not to keep to many facilities which are not demanded by the market. With the fluctuating demand and high- and low-seasons, it is difficult to find the right size for a hotel. Since a service cannot be transported, services are bound to a specific place - where the consumer has to come to or which has to be brought to the consumer. A hotel can therefore be described as a stationary service provider (Gardini 1997, p. 31; Seitz 1997, p. 3). Furthermore, hotel services are complimentary with other touristic services (e.g. travel management, bookability through different channels etc.) and the factors at the location (natural, cultural). A hotel service is therefore always stationary and dependent (Henschel 2001, p. 81). Since a hotel is not able to change its location, it will suffer from imperfections in its surroundings, such as noise of a construction site or even bad weather which does not allow to use the outside facilities. Another difference between goods and services is the production chain of the hotel industry. Usually, hotel services are sold first and created only afterwards (Hänssler 2008, p. 102). Services are therefore mostly sold as promises for performance which are based on internal potentials. It is therefore utterly important for hotels to communicate those potentials to the potential customer via verbal or visual surrogates. But still then, services do remain abstract since they are not defined by

tangible characteristics (Gardini 1997, p. 31). When purchasing goods, consumers may make further decisions regarding the use of goods whereas services are already specified at the time they are bought. Producers can supply services to their specifications rather than to what the consumer actually wants since services do have a limited adaptability (Cullen 1997, pp. 174–175). As services are mostly sold as promises, those promises leave room for the guest's imagination and expectation, a service cannot be 'bought as seen' but has to be 'bought as described' which in reality often means 'bought as imagined'.

Hospitality industry in Germany

The hospitality industry in Germany can be separated into hotels with at least nine beds, other lodgings, drinks-focused restauration, food-focused restauration and external caterers and canteens (Dehoga Bundesverband 2013). In 2011 there were 3,620,576 companies in Germany, of which 46,820 were of the hospitality industry (Statistisches Bundesamt Deutschland 2013). From those hospitality industry companies, 16.3% were hotels as defined above. The hospitality industry made a total of €23,793 Million revenue, 30.9% of which were generated in hotels. The hospitality industry had a total of 514,581 employees, 23.6% of which were working in the hotel industry (Dehoga Bundesverband 2014). In order to gain a clear focus for this dissertation only employees working in hotels in Germany will be considered, the relevant industry being referred to as hotel industry.

What is remarkable about the hotel industry in Germany is its low income level combined with the long working hours. On average, an employee in the hotel industry earned €12.18 per hour in 2012 the average for Germany was €21.30 (Statistisches Bundesamt Deutschland 2013). Those numbers do not include the unpaid overtime which is estimated at an average of four hours per week (Dehoga Bundesverband 2013). From many studies it can be argued that working in a hotel environment, where visibility, overwork and performance are standard values, produces distress, dissatisfaction and strain within the work and home domains (Tromp, Blomme 2014, p. 86). If the demand in a hotel increases unexpectedly at one day, the personnel is expected to work overtime in order to meet the guest's needs. That means that hotel employees have to be prepared almost daily to stay overtime, making it impossible for them to make private plans after their shift ends. The trend of the hotel industry is a mixed one, the turnover in the hotel industry in Germany grew nominal by 2.1% in the first six months of 2014. This can be seen as a positive development after the growth of only 0.8% in 2013 which had dropped from 3.6% in 2012, (Deutscher Hotel- und Gaststättenverband 2014, p. 1). The number of employees in the hotel industry has grown by 3.020 since the previous

year, which represents a relative change of 1.2% (Deutscher Hotel- und Gaststättenverband 2014, p. 5). The total number of hotels in Germany is on a decreasing trend since 2004 (39.208 hotels) to 2012 (36.608 hotels), with a short peak in 2010 (38.163 hotels) (Deutscher Hotel- und Gaststättenverband 2014, p. 6). Due to the globalization, the number of hotels is expected to stay relatively stable over the next years, since new consumer markets are opened – e.g. Arabian guests using German health facilities or escaping their hot summers. On the other hand, many cities like Berlin or Munich are reported to have an over-capacity of hotel rooms which is likely to be reduced if the return on investment is not given. As many other industries in Germany, the hotel industry is currently facing difficulties to attain skilled, German-speaking staff willing to work within the above described conditions.

Research in the hospitality industry

Harrington et al. found in their meta-analysis of research in the hotel industry that from 1980 to 1999 the research in hospitality and tourism focused on strategy-related models, developed in other sectors, which were applied to the hospitality industry without the actual conduct of empirical investigation (J. Harrington et al. 2014, p. 781). When analyzing the research in the hospitality and tourism field from 2000 to 2013, Harrington et al. found two major trends: first, the domain of strategy literature was no longer restricted to business or management but was extended to strategic thinking in psychology, education, leadership, entrepreneurship, political science, sociology and so on. A second trend in the strategy literature was the growing complexity and nuances involved in theoretical models and hypothesis testing (Zopiatis, Constanti 2012, p. 103). Although many of the theories continued from the previous two decades, researchers were formulating more complex models using unique combinations of theories to extend theoretical propositions and explain cause-and-effect relationships (J. Harrington et al. 2014, p. 787). Further from the trends of research within the hospitality industry, copying mostly the mainstream research, authors of the field find a lack of research conducted within the hospitality or hotel industry. While job satisfaction and leadership behavior have been extensively investigated in other fields, studies of these variables in the tourism service, particularly in hotel management, are almost absent (Tsai 2008, p. 296). Harrington et al. explain this lack of research with the small number of PhD programs in hospitality and tourism having any sort of strength in strategic management as a major area or minor area of study (J. Harrington et al. 2014, p. 793). This lack of research in the field combined with the importance of employees in the hotel industry, as for example stated by Tsai, who declares that employees are an important factor in determining corporate service quality and business success or failure, stressing the importance of human resources

in the hotel industry (Tsai 2008, p. 295); further research on employee related topics within the hotel industry is of utmost importance, as also stated by Zopiatis et al.: "the anthropocentric nature of the hotel industry and the pivotal role of the human capital in the service delivery processes justify further empirical investigation of these issues" (Zopiatis, Constanti 2012, p. 87).

Gender differences

In the hotel industry in Germany, 66.2% of the employees are female (Statistisches Bundesamt Deutschland, 2014). Due to this high diversity in regards to gender, one should pay attention to potential gender differences when researching in the hotel industry in Germany. When it comes to leadership in general, current studies confirm differences between male and female leaders. Brandt found that male leaders appraised themselves as more challenging than their female counterparts, whereas female leaders rated themselves more enabling and rewarding than their male colleagues. The followers' appraisals of their leaders' transformational behavior indicated similar results (Brandt, Laiho 2013, p. 52). Gartzia and van Engen found that men are in principle considered to be less prepared for the display of stereotypically feminine leadership behaviours (Gartzia, van Engen 2012, p. 297). Valentine et al. described female leadership style as more socially oriented, egalitarian, equality-based, self-aware and nurturing than male leaders. Women tend to use democratic and transformational leadership practices more often than men do. Women are also found to be less competitive in conflict management situations than men, and they communicate with co-workers to satisfy needs for affection while men communicate to satisfy need for control (Valentine, Godkin 2000, p. 118). As mentioned by Valentine et al. it might be that female leadership style combines better with transformational leadership. This relationship has been tested in different studies as well. Gartzia et al. found significant sex differences in most of the communal aspects of leadership (i.e. in individualized consideration, contingent rewards behaviours and emotional regulation as measured with performance-based measures), with female leaders showing the higher scores (Gartzia, van Engen 2012, p. 306). Those findings were also confirmed by a study conducted by Brandt et al. in 2013, supporting the social role theory, since enabling and rewarding can be regarded as feminine behavior amongst the transformational-leadership dimensions. These dimensions represent taking care of everybody, creating an approving atmosphere in the workplace and arranging small reward events when goals are met. Challenging, in turn, expresses more masculine behavior, meaning questioning old methods, maybe sometimes in a rather aggressive way, and this may be more suitable behavior for men according to the social role theory (Brandt, Laiho 2013, p. 55). Such gender differences were also found among hotel managers, as a research of Valentine

et.al of the year 2000 confirms: among hotel managers women mentioned enthusiasm, determination, interpersonal skills, sense of humor and ambitiousness as most important for their career development, men more often reported integrity and loyalty as key factors (Valentine, Godkin 2000, pp. 118–119). Gartzia et.al also tested on emotional intelligence among male and female leaders and found that EI competencies are increasingly valued in leadership and research suggests that the way emotions are experienced and expressed is deeply gendered. Most women, and not men, are socialized to be expressive, which generally implies more stress on emotional dimensions and sensitivity to what others feel. In contrast, men tend to be socialized to be instrumental, which implies a less strong emphasis on emotionality and interpersonal relations (Gartzia, van Engen 2012, p. 299). Due to those and various similar findings it is to be expected that there are gender differences in regards to leadership and emotional intelligence within the hotel industry in Germany, which is why the results will be tested for those as well.

Cultural differences

In 2013 there were 29,615,680 employees in Germany, of which 2,340,697 were not of German nationality (Statistisches Bundesamt Deutschland 2014), this means that approximately 8% of the employees working in Germany in 2013 were foreigners by definition. Another 25% of the people working in Germany had a migration background, meaning that they did hold the German nationality but were born in a different country (Statistisches Bundesamt Deutschland 2014). The reference to the hotel industry in Germany is therefore never made exclusively to Germans but to various nationalities living and working in Germany. It has to be expected that those non-German nationalities have different cultural backgrounds and therefore different value systems which influence their motivation as shown in the motivational process above. Another aspect to be taken into account is the adaptation of foreign employees or employees with migration background. It might be argued that while living in Germany those employees have adapted German values, and are motivated by them, maybe mixed with differing cultural values they have been brought up with. On the other hand there might be Germans without migration background, which have been born in Germany but raised by a family of a different culture and may therefore possess a set of German and non-German values as well. When researching the motivation of employees in the German hotel industry, it is therefore necessary to take into account the different backgrounds and value systems of the various nationalities. Due to the immense complexity of the subject it is impossible to take those differences adequately into account within this dissertation. Cultural differences are therefore not touched within the empirical study, stating a clear limitation of it.

2.2 Model development and operationalization of terms

Model development

After having described and analyzed the concepts of motivation, leadership, emotional intelligence and the specifications of the hotel industry it is now the time to develop a model how these concepts could work together. In a first step, the motivation model developed in the literature review part will be checked against the specifications of the hotel industry to see if adjustments are needed.

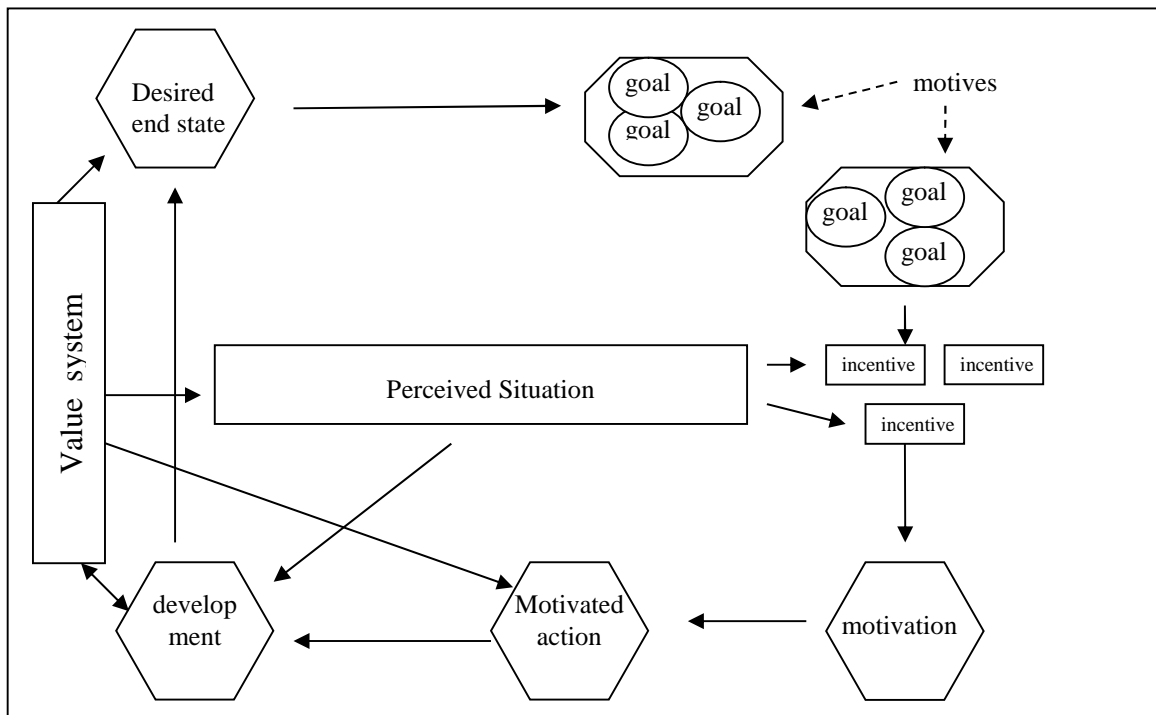


Figure 2.1 Motivational Process

Source: Author's illustration based on quoted literature

The first specific characteristic of services is their immateriality. Concerning the employees, that means that the product of their work is hard to measure and to evaluate. Therefore incentives can hardly be linked to the outcome of the service process, since the objective evaluation thereof is nearly impossible. Furthermore, the immateriality of services enhances the focus on the perceived situation, since employees do hardly experience outcomes which are positive from an objective perspective and which therefore may activate their motives into motivation. The next specification is the simultaneity of production and consumption of services. For the producing employees the simultaneity means that they are unable to make a service they experienced as bad over, to redo it. They may solve a situation by apologizing or repeat the same service but will still have the memory of the unsatisfied guest who experienced the unsatisfactory service. That leads to the fact that employees in the hotel

industry need to cope with such situations, which may also threaten their motivation. Due to the inexistence of service-storage, hotel personnel has to be present whenever there might be a demand for their services, independent from the actual amount of demand. The different levels of demand may lead to periods of high stress levels and their opposite. For the hotel as employer it is therefore very hard to create a situation of optimum arousal for each employee. The threat of excessive demand and boredom is always given, harassing the intrinsic motivation. The next factor characterizing hotel services is their stationarity. For the employees as well as for the guests that means that they have to be present at the hotel in order to deliver respective receive the service. This characteristic might be influencing the motivational process as shown above if employees pursue the goal to work from home or to life and work at a specific place which is not where their current employer is. Such motives will hardly be activatable in a hotel, so that they are unlikely to be useful for motivation. The presence and influence of the guest as an external factor is a further characteristic of hotel services. In the motivational process that leads to the fact that guests play an important role in the perceived situation of an employee which creates the incentives activating his or her motives. This external variable is therefore crucial for the motivation of employees but very hard to control by the employer or leaders of the employee. Another specification of services is that they are abstract. That makes it hardly possible to measure services in advance or to have objective measures about their value. For the motivation of employees this implies that there might be guests who did expect another service for the price they are paying or a different price for the service they received. Such complaints, addressed to the employee, are hard to reason. Even more if the guest was unsatisfied with the personal service of the employee he or she is speaking to. Such situations may easily turn into frustration for the employees since they do have very few objective arguments on their side. For the hotel the fact that services are abstract increases the pressure to have motivated employees who will deliver a service of the standard the hotel promises. Another specification of the hotel industry is their limited adaptability, which leads to nearly the same implications than did the abstractness of services. Since services are hardly adaptable to the wishes of a guest, service personnel might be confronted with unsatisfied guests. These situations may become very frustrating for the employee if he or she is not able to change the service or the situation.

Summarizing, it is hard for the hotel industry to change its basic parameters as employer such as location, working hours or payment. Since those parameters are known to employees entering the hotel industry, one can deduct that those persons must have a high level of intrinsic motivation to deliver this kind of service. Due to the pressure on the industry to have

motivated employees which deliver the service in a quality that justify the prices and convinces guests to return, it must be one of the main tasks of the hotel industry to keep the level of intrinsic motivation up. The first thesis for defence is therefore:

T1: Employees of the hotel industry in Germany are mainly intrinsically motivated.

As shown above it is sometimes impossible for the employer to influence the situation the employee is in. But what can be done is to influence the way an employee perceives the situation and how he or she deals with it. That possible influence leads to the role of leadership. Today transformational leadership is believed to be the most effective one. Transformational Leadership (Bass 1990) is perceived to be different and more effective than the traditional transactional approach, because it engages the follower's emotions (Cartwright, Pappas 2008, p. 160). As described in the literature review, it consists of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration (Bass et al. 2003, p. 208). Leaders with an idealized influence are admired and respected by their followers. Such leaders may be able to achieve that their feedback is of greater value to the follower than the feedback of an (unsatisfied) guest or customer. This way, leaders with an idealized influence can help followers to see the situation in a more optimistic way which may lead to motive-activating incentives for the followers. If a leader is able to create an inspirational motivation for his or her followers, those followers are likely to have goals and therefore motives which are in line with the company goals. Furthermore, inspirational motivating leaders are able to create a team spirit which helps the individual to cope with difficult situations without getting frustrated. If leaders stimulate their followers to question old assumptions, be more creative and see challenges from a different perspective, they do not only keep even routines interesting for their employees, they also help them to develop strategies how to deal with different kinds of challenging situations. With a leader who pays individual attention to his followers and considers their achievements, employees are more likely to find incentives in their day-to-day situations to activate their motives. Transformational leaders are expected to strongly and positively influence followers' motivation and their ability to achieve or even surpass goals. They encourage followers to become part of the overall organizational environment and its culture, and also empower followers by persuading them to propose new and controversial ideas without fear of punishment or ridicule (Bin Sayeed, Shanker 2009, p. 595). These thoughts and analyzes lead to the next thesis for defence:

T2: The motivation of employees is positively related to the effectiveness of leadership of their leader.

Emotional intelligence is defined as a skill set comprising the awareness, understanding, and regulation of emotions both in one's self and in others (Chapman, Hayslip, JR. 2005, p. 154). The leverage effect emotional intelligence has on leadership effectiveness has been proven by different studies and stated by various authors. There is a growing body of research evidence which has examined the relationship between EI and transformational leadership. Cartwright et al. assessed transformational leadership behaviors, using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ: Bass and Avolio 1995), and EI using the EQ-i (Bar On 1997) among 49 managers in a large pulp and paper organization. Results indicated that high overall EI scores were associated with three out of four transformational leadership factors. These were idealized influence, inspirational motivation and individualized consideration. No relationship was found between EI and the fourth factor; intellectual stimulation (Cartwright, Pappas 2008, p. 160). Those research results indicate that transformative leadership as a form of leadership focusing on the relationship between leader and follower, which is currently discussed as one of the most effective forms of leadership, is closely linked to the emotional intelligence of the leader. Those results show that leaders who are able to recognize and manage emotions are better able to build an effective relationship to their followers. Those results do not seem surprising at a first glance, but when looking at the four factors of transformational leadership the question arises why correlations were only found between EI and three out of four leadership factors. Idealized influence describes the effect that a leader is seen as charismatic, as a role model for the followers. The ability to control one's own emotions might help to present oneself as a calm and positive personality which is more likely to be looked upon by followers than a personality with shifting moods. Inspirational motivation describes the ability of a leader to show the followers the meaning in their daily routines and to motivate them. This ability might be easier for a leader who is able to reach the followers on an emotional level, who is able to express the right emotions at the right moment. Individualized consideration describes the situation when the leader acts as a coach or mentor and develops the individual potential of the employees. The ability to recognize the emotions of employees might be useful when analyzing their strengths and weaknesses in order to plan the individual development. When it comes to intellectual stimulation, the leader has to interact with the followers on a more rational level to show and explain complicated processes or interactions. The results from the study of Cartwright et al. indicate that for this factor of transformational leadership, emotional intelligence does not play an important role.

That means that even leaders who do not possess a high level of emotional intelligence can still be brilliant in stimulating their employees intellectually. Effective leaders mostly rely on the expression of feelings to help convey their messages. So when effective leaders want to implement significant changes, they rely on the evocation, framing and mobilization of emotions (Trehan, Shrivastav 2012, p. 59). The four components of emotional intelligence are: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, and empathy. Self-awareness expands a person's understanding and knowledge of his/ her values and goals. A leader, who is self-aware, may possess a greater sense of purpose and meaning in life. Self regulation is referred to as "managing emotions"; it allows a leader to be sensitive and understanding of subordinates without succumbing to vulnerability of criticism and the need to defend self-esteem. Motivation brings out the force of achievement by harnessing feelings of enthusiasm, zeal, and confidence. Empathy allows an individual to recognize and respond to the changing emotional state of other people resulting in greater sensitivity and social self-confidence (Bin Sayeed, Shanker 2009, p. 594). EI is found to be important for leadership, motivation, communication, decision making, interpersonal relations, and change management at 99% level of confidence. Based on these findings, one can indirectly conclude that EI is important for success in professional life, as effectiveness in these competencies will lead to success in professional life of top management executives (Trehan, Shrivastav 2012, p. 65). Leaders are most likely to lead their followers if they have insights into the needs, values, and hopes of their followers. This insight may be facilitated through a higher level of emotional awareness and sensitivity. Leaders can create emotional responses (for example, a sense of excitement and sharing a feeling of togetherness) in the followers, communicate and instill commitment toward a common vision and create shared norms. Focusing on individual followers, leaders should be supportive, considerate, empathetic, caring, and must give personalized attention. These requirements may be easier for an individual who is high on emotional intelligence and is able to accurately perceive and understand others' emotions, while managing his/her own emotions (Bin Sayeed, Shanker 2009, pp. 596–597). Overall, the research evidence concerning EI and leadership effectiveness is somewhat mixed, which may be an artifact of the measurement tool employed. However, it would seem that the ability to perceive emotion, perhaps not surprisingly, is a factor associated with effective leadership (Cartwright, Pappas 2008, p. 161). These statements and findings lead to the third thesis for defence:

T3: Emotional intelligence moderates the effect of leadership on motivation

According to the three theses for defence, a tentative model of leadership, motivation and emotional intelligence within the hotel industry can be drawn as shown below:

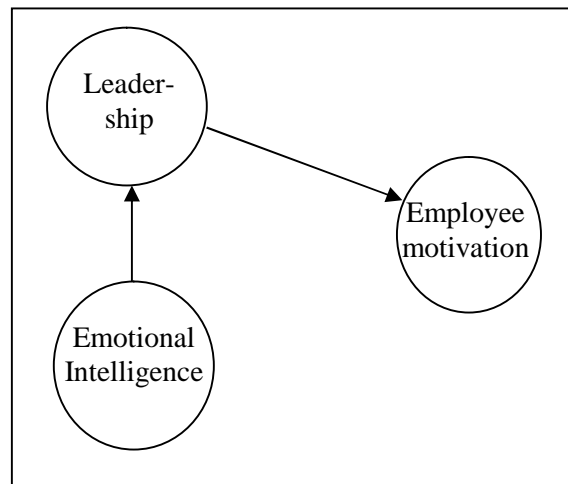


Figure 2.2 Tentative Model

Source: author's illustration based on described analyses

Concept measuring

In order to conduct further research on leadership, emotional intelligence and motivation it is necessary to define a measurement system for all three concepts. Only if one is able to measure the concepts, a research of interrelations and effects is possible. In the following chapters, different measurements used by previous researchers are analysed before selecting the appropriate measure for this research. "Measurement is about assigning numbers to objects, ideas, views or answers. It is the systematic and disciplined observation, quantification and interpretation of phenomena guided by a theory in one way or another. In science, the accurate and systematic measurement of phenomena can give great practical control over the subject, and can make the formulation of principles or laws possible, which can make confirmation or refutation unambiguous and clear" (Chopra, Kanji 2011, p. 69). In the social sciences, phenomena such as quality, leadership, emotional intelligence, poverty, inequality and social capital are so ambiguous and perplexing that there is no agreement among social scientists regarding the conceptualization of the construct and what it constitutes (Chopra, Kanji 2011, p. 70). It is therefore necessary to clearly conceptualize the phenomenon in question and fit the measurement method to this conceptualization. The conceptual definition of the phenomenon is the first step a social scientist or researcher has to make. A purchaser of a test will first want to know how a particular construct such as poverty or emotional intelligence is defined (Chopra, Kanji 2011, p. 70). The second step is to define how a phenomenon is measured in an accurate representation of the construct which means creating different items in a measurement system. This means to interpret or convert the conceptual definition into an operational definition of the construct very carefully and

accurately. This challenge involves establishing casual connections, specifying the measurement model, estimating of the model, model identification and assessment of model fit, including validating the reliability of the measurement model (Chopra, Kanji 2011, p. 70).

Measuring leadership

In the literature review, leadership is defined as the process of translating company goals into visions, which are understandable and shareable by different stakeholder groups and influencing employees to share those visions and coordinately work towards them. This definition implicates three broad categories of leadership qualities: first, a leader has to be able to translate company goals into understandable and shareable visions, second a leader needs to know how to influence his employees to share those visions and thirdly the leader has to motivate his followers to coordinately work towards the visions. According to Chopra’s advice, these categories now have to be itemized. For this task the itemization of leadership from different researchers is analyzed to see if the items proposed fit the above definition. Due to the often synonymous use of the terms leadership and management, itemizations of the term management are not excluded in this analysis.

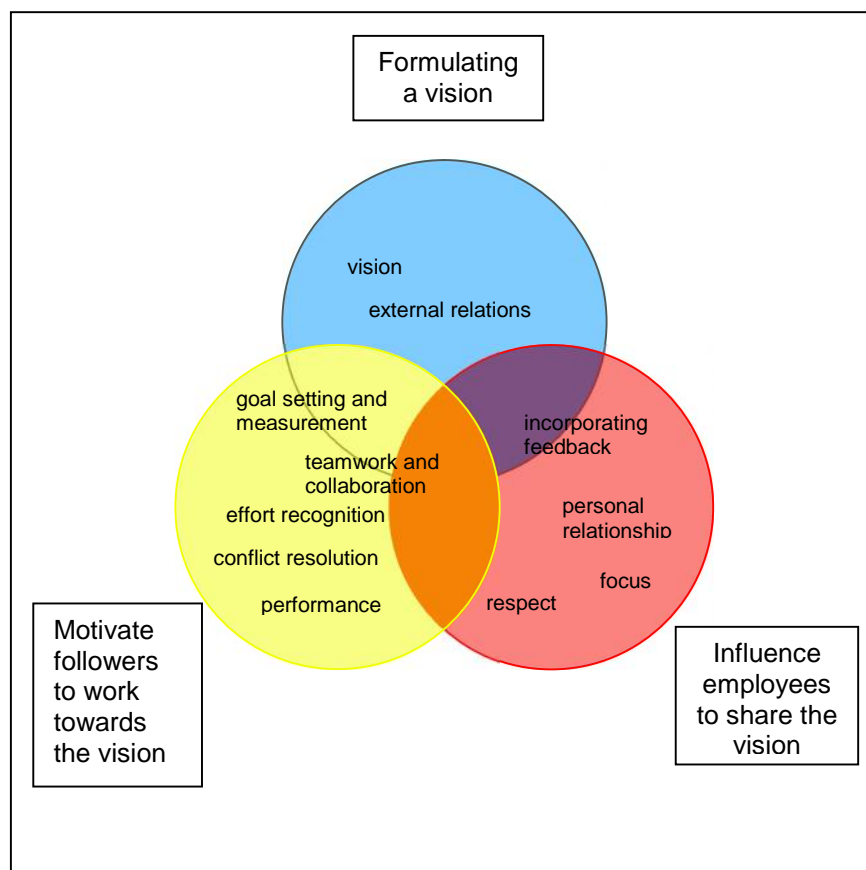


Figure 2.3 Development of leadership elements
Source: author’s illustration based on quoted literature

In a survey conducted by Alexander, Herald and Mittler, the measurement was based upon ten conceptual categories of leadership: creativity/innovativeness, vision, personal relationships with members, teamwork and collaboration, goal setting and measurement, performance monitoring, resource acquisition, focus, external relations, and conflict resolution (Alexander et al. 2011, p. 347). Those categories were related to the dimensions of leadership defined before. The relations are shown in figure 2.3. Vision and external relations are skills that seem to be useful for the formulation of a vision that incorporates corporate goals and may be understood and shared by different stakeholder groups. For the influence on employees to share the vision, personal relationships with members and focus seem to be the most helpful skills among the selection proposed by Alexander et al. In order to motivate followers to coordinately work towards the vision, goal setting and measurement is necessary, as well as teamwork and collaboration, performance monitoring and conflict resolution. Resource acquisition and creativity do not seem adequate measures for leadership as defined above. Alexander further explains effective leadership as paying attention to issues of process, such as recognition of member effort, incorporating feedback and input, and ensuring respect for all opinions (Alexander et al. 2011, p. 343). Attention to process issues and the recognition of member effort seem best suitable in the part of working towards the vision realization. Incorporating feedback and respect for all opinions are important when influencing employees to share the vision. According to Trehan, for success in professional life and for performing various managerial roles and functions effectively, a manager is expected to excel in leadership, motivation, communication, decision making, interpersonal relations and change management (Trehan, Shrivastav 2012, p. 55). Since the task at hand is to find items to measure leadership, the usage of leadership as itself for an item is not helpful. Motivation fits best into the category to motivate employees to work towards the vision, while communication is mostly used to influence employees to share the vision. Decision making is best suited to the category vision formulating, although this category does not implicate this item. Interpersonal relations may be seen as a synonym for the personal relationships with members and therefore be allocated at the category influence employees to share the vision. The same category seems to be appropriate for change management, since a newly adapted vision might be combined with necessary changes. The amended itemization of leadership is shown in figure 2.4.

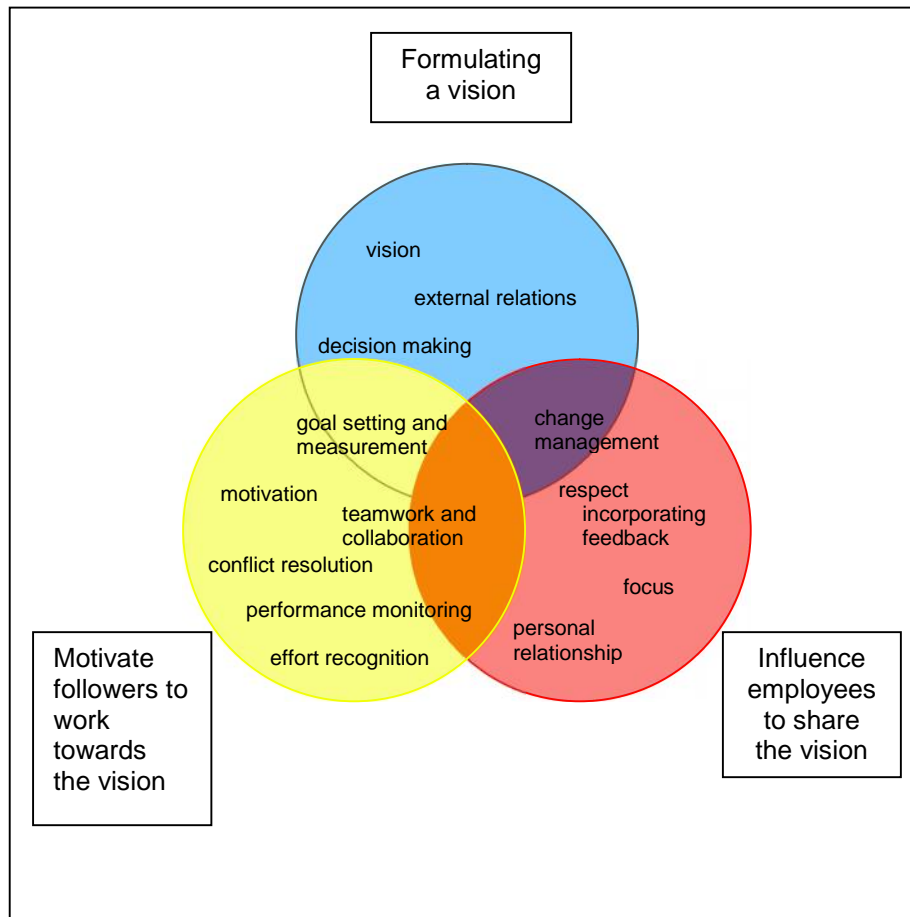


Figure 2.4 Leadership elements

Source: author's illustration based on quoted literature

Chopra defines management as a system comprising a range of human actions designed to facilitate the desired outcome. This human action subsumes planning, organizing, leading, coordinating, controlling, staffing and motivating. This also includes ‘managing’ oneself, a prerequisite to the attempt to manage others (Chopra, Kanji 2011, p. 63). If leading is excluded once again from the items due to the above mentioned reasons, this definition adds planning, organizing, coordinating, controlling, staffing and motivating. Motivation has already been added to the items, while the other items are very clearly management functions and do not apply to the core of leadership, according to the differentiation between management and leadership in the literature review part. Therefore, the definition of Chopra does not add any new items. The found elements of leadership will therefore be kept. The next task is now to find or to create a questionnaire which tests those leadership elements.

In 1963 Stogdill developed the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) which follows Stogdill's typology of leadership style into consideration and initiating structure. The first versions of the questionnaire contained two factorial defined subscales—consideration and initiating structure in interaction. Several new subscales have been

developed, such as production emphasis, tolerance of member freedom of action, influence with superiors, and representation of the follower group (Stogdill 1969, p. 153). This questionnaire has been used as basis for different studies (e.g. Hartmann et al. 2010; Sweney et al. 1975). Hartmann's scale consists of five-point, fully anchored scales that measure respondents' agreement with eight statements concerning consideration behavior, and eight items concerning initiating structure behavior. Respective sample items are 'My supervisor treats his employees as equal' and 'my superior determines in detail what should be done and how it should be done.' The items express the leadership style in which supervisors manage the activities of their subordinates (Hartmann et al. 2010, p. 287). Since Stogdill's questionnaire is mainly used to describe leadership behavior and tries to identify the performed leadership style, it does not seem adequate for the general measurement of leadership which is the main task at hand. Another often used (Kanji 2008, p. 417; Trehan, Shrivastav 2012, p. 55; Clarke 2010, p. 9) leadership questionnaire is the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) which is based on Bass's model of transformative leadership. Bass's conceptualization of transactional and transformational leadership includes seven leadership factors, which he labeled charisma, inspirational, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent reward, management-by exception and laissez-faire leadership. In subsequent writings, he noted that although charismatic and inspirational leadership were unique constructs, they were often not empirically distinguishable, thus reducing his original multifactor model to six factors (Avolio et al. 1999, p. 441). The MLQ (Form 5X) has been developed to address concerns with earlier versions of the MLQ survey, including problems with item wording, lack of discriminate validity among certain leadership factors, and the incorporation of behaviors and attributions in the same scale (Avolio et al. 1999, p. 442). "The six factors and their operational definitions are: (1) Charisma/ Inspirational—provides followers with a clear sense of purpose that is energizing, is a role model for ethical conduct and builds identification with the leader and his or her articulated vision; (2) Intellectual Stimulation—gets followers to question the tried and true ways of solving problems, and encourages them to question the methods they use to improve upon them; (3) Individualized Consideration— focuses on understanding the needs of each follower and works continuously to get them to develop to their full potential; (4) Contingent Reward—clarifies what is expected from followers and what they will receive if they meet expected levels of performance; (5) Active Management-by-Exception - focuses on monitoring task execution for any problems that might arise and correcting those problems to maintain current performance levels; and (6) Passive-Avoidant Leadership - tends to react only after problems have become serious to take corrective action, and often avoids making

any decision at all" (Avolio et al. 1999, pp. 444–445). Clarke used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Form 5X (MLQ-5X) to measure transformational leadership behaviors. All of the MLQ-5X responses are made on a five-point scale ranging from zero (not at all) to four (frequently, if not always) (Clarke 2010, p. 9).

Table 2.1 Comparison leadership measurements

Category	Items by definitions	Bass's MLQ-5X
Formulating vision	External relations	Charisma / Inspirational
	Vision	
Influence employees to share the vision	Decision making	Intellectual Stimulation
	Focus	
	Personal relationship	Individual consideration
	Incorporate feedback	
	Respect	Charisma / Inspirational
	Change management	
Motivate followers to work towards the vision	Process	Management-by-Exception
	Conflict resolution	
	Motivation	Charisma
	Performance monitoring	Contingent Reward
	Goal setting + measurement	
	Effort recognition	Individual Consideration
	Teamwork	

Source: author's illustration based on quoted literature

As shown in table 2.1, the leadership categories drawn from the definition of leadership may be itemized either by the items of independent definitions of leadership and management or by the MLQ – 5X. The MLQ – 5X is based on Bass's theory of transactional and transformational leadership. As became clear in the literature review part, transformational leadership is believed to be the most effective currently known leadership style. Due to those reasons as well as for the sake of comparability in leadership research, it is decided to use the MLQ – 5X in this research for the measurement of leadership.

Measuring emotional intelligence

As shown in the literature review, emotional intelligence (EI) was originally proposed by Salovey and Mayer as a skill set comprising the awareness, understanding, and regulation of emotions both in one's self and in others (Chapman, Hayslip, JR. 2005, p. 154). Chopra sees

emotional intelligence basically as an interconnection between feelings and thinking process, i.e., ‘feeling about thinking’ and ‘thinking about feeling’ (Chopra, Kanji 2010, p. 972). Despite its recent debut, there are already a number of competing definitions of EI. These conceptualizations can be divided into two general streams: ability models in which EI is defined as a set of cognitive abilities in emotional functioning versus mixed trait-ability models that incorporate a wide range of personality characteristics and other traits (Goldenberg, Matheson 2006, p. 33). The consistent overlap between the mixed model measures of EI and personality traits and interpersonal competencies makes it difficult to ascertain the extent to which EI measures may contribute something over and above the established measures traditionally used in occupational settings (Cartwright, Pappas 2008, p. 158). Efforts to establish the validity of EI as intelligence have involved various attempts to develop objective, ‘performance’ measures similar to traditional intelligence tests (Chapman, Hayslip, JR. 2005, p. 154). The devices to measure EI differ in two significant ways. First, they are based on the different conceptual frameworks, as seen above. Second, they use different measurement approaches including performance tests, self-report inventories, or, in some instances, observer ratings (Goldenberg, Matheson 2006, p. 34). Trait EI and self-reported EI have thus far been treated virtually synonymously by current measurement in the field, as have ability EI and EI performance tests (Chapman, Hayslip, JR. 2005, pp. 154–155). As with measures of traditional intelligence, performance-based tests of EI present individuals with problems that are thought to have correct (or at least superior) responses. More important, performance tests elicit responses that can be evaluated against objective, predetermined scoring criteria. Self-report inventories, by contrast, ask people to report their own level of EI. It has been argued that when self-report instruments are used, what may actually be tapped are many aspects of personality and other non-cognitive characteristics. It should be kept in mind, however, that EI conceptualized as ability is, in fact, often measured using self-report instruments (Goldenberg, Matheson 2006, p. 34). These performance measures have also been met with their share of conceptual and psychometric difficulties, including low subscale reliabilities and high standard errors of measurement in independent investigations, difficulty justifying “correct” answers to emotional questions, and potential cultural biases inherent in two competing scoring methods (Chapman, Hayslip, JR. 2005, p. 154). Nevertheless, most psychologists nowadays agree that performance-based measures of emotional intelligence are more meaningful than the self-report system favored by the websites where one can test his or her own EQ (Chopra, Kanji 2010, p. 976). Self-report measures are considered to be limited through inaccurate self-knowledge and are also open to

distortion by faking good or presenting a socially desirable self (Cartwright, Pappas 2008, p. 158).

The trait emotional intelligence is a constellation of emotion-related self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality and should be investigated within a personality framework. The trait-based model defines emotional intelligence as a set of traits, capabilities, and non-cognitive skills that allow individuals to successfully adapt to pressures and demands within the environment. From the perspective of the trait-based model, none of the measurements used for trait EI assess intelligence, abilities or skills but rather they are limited measures of trait emotional intelligence (Chopra, Kanji 2010, p. 977). Trait EI reflects typical or characteristic patterns of emotional experience and behavior rather than information processing with maximal limits putatively accessible through performance testing. Trait EI is currently assessed via self-report measures. It is important to note that traits may also be measured via behavioral observation, performance or free-response measures, or by others' reports (Chapman, Hayslip, JR. 2005, p. 154). Trait measures show medium to large correlations with the major five factor model of personality dimensions, and are generally uncorrelated with intelligence. Ability measures on the other hand show the reverse pattern of positive correlations with intelligence test scores and low correlations with personality (Austin 2010, p. 564). Due to those and similar findings there is now a well-established consensus that the two versions of EI are distinct and do not measure the same construct. Ability EI tests resemble standard intelligence tests, whilst trait EI is measured via self-report; correlations between trait and ability EI test scores have consistently been found to be low (Austin 2010, p. 564).

Ability models conceptualize EI as a form of intelligence that involves emotion. EI defined as ability, comprises a number of skills including emotional perception and expression, emotional facilitation of thinking, emotional understanding, and emotional regulation. At the center of EI are the propositions that emotion can make thinking more intelligent and that one can think intelligently about emotions. As such, EI is thought to have a number of similarities to other types of intelligence in that it should reflect a type of ability or aptitude, be related to other abilities, and develop with age and experience (Goldenberg, Matheson 2006, p. 33). This viewpoint is distinctively different from the trait viewpoint, since as long as EI is seen as an ability, it is imposed that everybody is able to learn it and to develop that skill. As a trait, EI is limited to a certain amount of people who are lucky to be born with the skill. As an ability, EI might be higher in some talented people, but the basics can be learned by anyone.

Goleman also defined EI as an ability and described it in four domains: (1) self-awareness as knowing what we are feeling and why we are feeling; (2) self-management as handling our distressing emotions in effective ways and marshalling positive emotions, getting ourselves involved, enthused about what we are doing and aligning our actions with our passions; (3) empathy as knowing what someone else is feeling; and (4) relationship management (Trehan, Shrivastav 2012, p. 56). The more popularized mixed trait-ability models of EI also make reference to abilities in the processing and use of emotional information but combine these abilities with other traits and characteristics such as optimism, motivation, and capacity to engage in relationships. Mixed trait-ability models are potentially of value in that they acknowledge the importance of multiple aspects of personality that may pertain to emotion. However, they do not appear to represent any new conceptualization of emotional functioning per se and do not seem to relate specifically to the concepts of either emotion or intelligence (Goldenberg, Matheson 2006, p. 33). Since emotions are able to control the whole human body and are therefore interfering with almost all parts of the human personality and its body, it is difficult to draw the line which traits do enhance EI and which are just found in persons with high EI randomly. A quantitative study in this field has not been conducted so far.

MSCEIT

The most comprehensive measure of the ability model is the Mayer, Salovey and Caruso Emotional Intelligence test or MSCEIT, Version 2.0, which is a refinement of an earlier test, the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS). Just like traditional intelligence tests, it is a performance measure, based on the number of correct answers given, and assesses how well an individual solves emotion-laden problems across four domains (Cartwright, Pappas 2008, pp. 155–156; Chopra, Kanji 2010, pp. 975–976). The MSCEIT V2 consists of 141 items, which are divided between eight tasks (two for each of the four theoretical domains to yield four branch scores, together with an overall score of EI) (Cartwright, Pappas 2008, pp. 155–156). The four branches or abilities of Mayer and Salovey's ability model of emotional intelligence are (1) perceiving emotions (B1), (2) using emotions to facilitate thinking (B2), (3) understanding emotions (B3), and (4) managing emotions in oneself and others (B4). Reliabilities for the scales have previously been reported as 0.90, 0.76, 0.77, 0.81, and 0.91 for each of the four branch scales and the full scale, respectively (Clarke 2010, p. 9). The MSCEIT operationalizes the four branch model of EI based on participants' ability to solve a series of emotional problems. Response formats are varied across the different tasks to increase the generalizability of results across response methods and to reduce correlated measurement error. Thus, some tasks use Likert-type rating scales, whereas other tasks use

multiple choice formats. The MSCEIT is scored according to consensus scoring in which the correct answer is the one that is considered correct by the majority of people in a standardization sample of more than 5,000 cases (Goldenberg, Matheson 2006, p. 36). The consensus scoring is enriched by expert scoring, which relies on what researchers in the field regard as the correct response (Cartwright, Pappas 2008, p. 156). Sample tasks include identifying emotions and feelings expressed in faces and pictures and identifying the appropriate behavioral response when presented with a range of emotionally laden scenarios. This model has been criticized by many researchers. Roberts et al. asserted in 2001 that this model may only be measuring conformity, not ability. Brody argued three years later that MSCEIT tests knowledge of emotions but not necessarily the ability to perform tasks that are related to the knowledge that is assessed. Bradberry and Su criticized in 2006 this model for lacking predictive validity and a significant relationship with job performance in the workplace (Chopra, Kanji 2010, p. 976). Austin argues that the scoring method does not correspond with that used in standard intelligence tests, where test items have well defined correct answers. The structural validity of the MSCEIT has also been questioned, as several studies indicate a lack of fit with its theoretical factor structure (Austin 2010, p. 564). An adaptation of the MSCEIT is the CEIS which differs from MSCEIT, in that it is shorter (18 items) and domain specific (marketing), whereas the MSCEIT is longer (141 items) and domain-generic (Peter, p. 877). The CEIS is therefore not explored in more detail.

Bar-On, EQ-i

Another widely used measure is Bar-On's Emotional Quotient Inventory or EQ-i. The general approach of the EQ-i involves four basic phases: (1) identifying key factors related to effective emotional and social functioning, (2) defining these factors as clearly as possible, (3) constructing a psychometric instrument designed to examine the factors involved, and (4) norming and validating the instrument across cultures (Bar-On 2000, p. 364). It comprises 133 items rated on a five-point scale and takes about 40 minutes to complete. It provides an overall score of EI based on five composite scales. These scales are divided into 12 subscales and three facilitator scales (Cartwright, Pappas 2008, p. 157). It is important to stress that the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) was developed to measure one's emotional and social intelligence and not personality traits or cognitive capacity (Bar-On 2000, p. 364). Similarly to Goleman, Bar-On argues that these non-cognitive abilities include five broad categories and sub-categories: (1) intrapersonal emotion skills (including self-actualization and independence) (2) interpersonal emotion skills (including empathy and social responsibility) (3) adaptability (including reality testing and problem solving) (4) stress management

(including stress tolerance and impulse control) (5) general mood (including characteristics such as optimism and happiness) (Cartwright, Pappas 2008, p. 154). The Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence therefore defines emotional intelligence as being concerned with effectively understanding oneself and others, relating well to people, and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands. A deficiency in emotional intelligence can mean a lack of success and the existence of emotional problems. Bar-On proposes that emotional intelligence develops over time and that it can be improved through training, programming and therapy. As self-report test, Bar-On's Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), is designed to measure competencies including awareness, stress tolerance, problem solving and happiness. The EQ-i renders a total EQ score and five EQ composite scale scores comprising fifteen subscale scores: (1) intrapersonal EQ (comprising self-regard, emotional awareness, assertiveness, independence, and self-actualization), (2) interpersonal EQ (comprising empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationship), (3) stress management EQ (comprising stress tolerance and impulse control), (4) adaptability EQ (comprising reality testing, flexibility, and problem solving), and (5) general mood EQ (comprising optimism and happiness) (Bar-On 2000, p. 365). However, doubts have been expressed about this model in the research literature (in particular about the validity of self-report as an index of emotional intelligence) and in scientific settings. The EQ-i is not meant to measure personality traits or cognitive capacity, but rather the mental ability to be successful in dealing with environmental demands and pressures. This model has been found to be highly susceptible to faking (Chopra, Kanji 2010, p. 976). Several studies assessing the relation between the MSCEIT and the self-report Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) have noted low correlations between the two measures ranging from $r_s = .12$ (sample size of 107 respondents) to $.21$ (sample size of 286 respondents) (e.g. Brackett&Mayer, 2003; Mayer et al., 2002). However, this lack of convergence is not surprising given that the Bar-On EQ-i was based on a mixed model conceptualization of EI and thus was designed to assess a different construct than the MSCEIT, which reflects a conceptualization of EI as ability (Goldenberg, Matheson 2006, p. 34).

SSRI

The Schutte Self-Report-Inventory (SSRI) has emerged as the leading brief scale for assessing EI because at 33 items, it is considerably shorter than the other major trait EI scale, the 133-item Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i). Participants respond to the SSRI items (three of which are negatively worded) on a five point Likert scale ranging from one

(strongly disagree) to five (strongly agree). The items were constructed to sample relatively evenly from the three primary content domains of Salovey and Mayer's original articulation of the EI construct: the appraisal and expression of emotion, the regulation of emotion, and the utilization of emotion. These components, along with emotional knowledge, also form the core of Mayer and Salovey's revised ability model and are central pieces in Goleman's and Bar-On's EI models, so the SSRI taps a construct congenial to several conceptions of EI (Chapman, Hayslip, JR. 2005, p. 155). The optimism/mood regulation factor (which has also been labeled "managing self-emotions,") is defined by eleven items that tap mood awareness, regulation, and the use of positive expectations to maintain a good mood. Such items include "I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them," "I have control over my emotions," and "I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on" (Chapman, Hayslip, JR. 2005, p. 156). The emotion appraisal factor (also called "emotion perception") is defined by six items that assess the self-perceived ability to read others' moods and feelings. Items include "I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them"; and "By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing" (Chopra, Kanji 2010, p. 972). The factor for social skills which is also called "managing others' emotions" contains five items which characterize the self-reported ability to help others feel better and deal with others' emotions in a positive way. Sample items are "I help others when they feel down," and "I compliment others when they have done something well." It should be noted that despite the title social skills, the factor primarily assesses dealings with others' emotions (Goldenberg, Matheson 2006, p. 44). The emotion utilization factor involves four items that touch the use of emotions to facilitate creativity and problem solving. It contains items such as "When I feel a change in my emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas"; and "When my mood changes, I see new possibilities" (Cartwright, Pappas 2008, p. 137). Criticisms of the scale have involved its overlap with existing personality measures, particularly those of the Big Five (e.g., neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, conscientiousness); whether it is a onedimensional or multidimensional instrument; and the fact that it contains only three negatively worded items. With respect to the first issue, there has been some question in general about whether the EI construct provides any substantive or useful explanatory or predictive power beyond existing personality (or ability) taxonomies. Specifically, the SSRI has in some studies shown correlations of up to .4 or .5 with various Big Five personality factors (Chapman, Hayslip, JR. 2005, p. 155).

Although it is the MSCEIT measure which has tended to dominate the literature, there are several other ability-based measures. These include the Levels of Emotional Awareness Scale

or LEAS whereby respondents are presented with a series of scenarios designed to elicit four types of emotion: fear, anger, sadness and happiness. Respondents are rated on the basis of their perceptions of how they would feel if placed in each scenario and also how they perceive the other person involved would feel. The test shows acceptable reliability and validity with other EI measures and is considered to be a good predictor of emotional recognition (Lane *et al.* 1998; Cartwright, Pappas 2008, p. 156). Similar to the LEAS is the Emotional Accuracy Research Scale or EARS, which was developed by Mayer and Geher in 1996 to afford the benefits of both self report and laboratory measures of EI. However, this is a very short eight-item performance measure, which taps the ability to perceive emotions in others accurately. Both measures focus on a narrower range of emotional abilities and hence are not as widely used as the MSCEIT measure (Cartwright, Pappas 2008, p. 156). More recently, Wong and Law developed the WLEIS measure (Wong and Law EI Scale) in 2002, which is a short 16-item instrument based on the Mayer and Salovey four-branch model from 1997 (Cartwright, Pappas 2008, pp. 156-156). So far there are no validations of this model to be found in literature. The Situational Test of Emotion Management (STEM) and Situational Test of Emotional Understanding (STEU) were developed by MacCann and Roberts in 2008, who also presented validity evidence for these tests (for example, positive correlations with an intelligence test, divergent validity with respect to personality, and, for the STEU, positive association with a MEIS subtest). Although targeting two EI components also assessed by branches of the MSCEIT, they differ from it both in the manner in which the test items were developed and, importantly, in availability to researchers and transparency of test scoring criteria. The MSCEIT is a commercial test with scoring performed by a test company, rather than the scoring key being made available to researchers. The STEM and STEU, and their scoring keys, are freely available. This means that (in contrast to the MSCEIT) access to these tests is not limited by considerations of cost, and work on developing and improving them (e.g., creating and evaluating new items) can take place within the research community (Austin 2010, p. 565). STEM and STEU scores were positively and significantly correlated and also showed significant associations with MSCEIT total score and some branch scores, with the STEM being significantly correlated with the MSCEIT using, understanding, and managing branches and the STEU with the using and understanding branches (Austin 2010, p. 570).

With the large variety of measurements for EI presented above, the question remains which measurement would be most suitable for the work at hand. In order to keep a consistence in

scientific work and to make different researches comparable, only the often used measurements, EQ-I, MSCEIT and SSRI are considered and compared below in table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Comparison emotional intelligence measurements

	Self-report	Performance tests	Correlation with intelligence	Correlations with personality
EI as ability		MSCEIT	Positive correlations	Low correlations
EI as trait	EQ-i	SSRI	Generally uncorrelated	Medium to large correlation

Source: author's illustration based on quoted literature

The main critique on self-report tests is that they are highly susceptible to faking, whilst the major critique on performance tests is that there are no logical ways to find the correct answer to the questions. So neither of these measurements will be able to test emotional intelligence free of critique or in all its perspectives. Since in the literature review emotional intelligence has been defined as ability, it seems advisable to keep the same perspective for the research to follow. For the research to be conducted the MSCEIT is therefore chosen, since it is still dominating the literature and the answers may be seen as correct due to the amount of times the test has been conducted.

Measuring motivation

There are few instruments to measure motivation to be found in literature. Wilson states that the main reason why tests of motivational factors have not found their way into the industrial setting is their failure to show adequate reliability and validity (Wilson et al. 1972, p. 15). This shortage might be due to the varied forms and states of motivation, which make it hard to grasp the concept by one universally valid instrument. For example Leung found in his studies that the correlations with the Ray-Lynn scale indicate that a scale which has been shown to be especially valid as a predictor of occupational motivation does not predict educational motivation at all. Thus, although motivation of different sorts does generalize to some extent, the generalizable part is not necessarily the part responsible for variations in actual achievement (Leung et al. 1983, p. 144). The general disadvantages of the questionnaire-interview are that (1) the samples are usually limited and biased (because of the relatively high cost of the technique or because only certain types of individuals may be willing to answer the questions) and (2) the respondents may answer what they consider

proper or what they think the answer should be rather than what the actual facts are (Meyer 1967, p. 305). Questionnaires trying to test motivation have even more challenges to face. Because of the transparency of their intention they are readily fakeable, and job applicants are naturally reluctant to make responses that would indicate a lack of motivation. Thus interest has arisen in various indirect and supposedly disguised techniques for measuring motivation (Wilson et al. 1972, p. 16). Even though Wilson addresses the interests of job applicants only, they may be transferred to employees since it is likely that no employee who wants to keep his or her job would admit to be de-motivated. Even though there is no generally valid instrument to measure motivation to be found, several researches on the field have used different instruments which will be analyzed below. Many early studies of motivation in regards to work typically measured the amount of free time that subjects were willing to spend on an experiment and interpreted their response to a reward as evidence of an effect. A meta-analysis, however, found support only for the negative effect of extrinsic motivation on intrinsic motivation in the free-time condition, thus suggesting that the effect depends on how the independent variable is measured (Stuhlfaut 2010, p. 82). Furthermore, due to nowadays mixture of free time and working time which is closely linked to smart phones, virtual teams, flexible work arrangements and the growing importance of work-life-balance, the amount of free time a subject is willing to spend on an experiment is influenced by many more variables than shire motivation so that this variable may not be used as a valid indicator for motivation. The projective approach, which derives partly from the Freudian notion of unconscious motivation, is based on the assumption that the motives of an individual are better inferred from analysis of the content of his fantasy. The most widely used projective test of achievement motivation is based on the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT). The need for achievement is typically measured by scoring protocols to four TAT cards administered in a standardized procedure; the scorers look for evidence of achievement imagery (AI) and, if it is present, other qualities found empirically to show differences between stories written under "neutral" and "achievement aroused" conditions. This method has become the standard for research on the achievement motive. The imagery scoring method shows the greatest predictability in the confines of the theory compared to other measures, and moreover does not relate strongly to other self-report inventories measuring the need for achievement (Vestewig, Paradise 1977, p. 595). Critics point out that despite its popularity there are many theoretical and practical objections to this method. There is a considerable body of experimental evidence indicating that the method is deficient in reliability and validity. It is lengthy and difficult to administer, and the scoring system tends to be unwieldy (McClelland et al. estimate that their scoring procedure takes a week to learn to a satisfactory level). In

addition, the method is likely to be perceived by job applicants as bizarre, irrelevant, and perhaps even unethical (Wilson et al. 1972, p. 16). Many questionnaires have also been produced to measure achievement motivation and several of them have been widely used. Among the best known are the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale (Taylor 1953), designed to measure Hullian 'drive' in studies with human subjects, and the Need Achievement Scale of the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) (Edwards 1954), designed to quantify Murray's list of 'interpersonal needs' (Murray 1938) (Wilson et al. 1972, p. 15). "In general, the results tended to reinforce our misgivings about the usefulness of questionnaire and projective methods for measuring motivation. The TAT Need Achievement Test showed no evidence whatsoever of validity, and the various self-report measures of motivation yielded generally inconsistent results" (Wilson et al. 1972, p. 22). Wieseke and his colleagues measured motivation based on Vroom's contingency theory, which suggests that the motivation to perform a particular task (in this case, adopting the new technology tool) depends on (1) the belief that effort will lead to a desired level of performance (expectancy); (2) the confidence that achieving the desired performance will result in positive outcomes, such as a pay raise (instrumentality); and (3) the extent to which these outcomes are desired and important (valence) (Coget 2011b, p. 84). Herpen and his colleagues used three indicators for the individual level of motivation: (1) work satisfaction, which should be positively related to the perceived quality of the compensation system, (2) turnover intent, a proxy of undesired employee turnover, which was expected to be negatively correlated to the perceived quality of the compensation system and finally (3) absenteeism caused by sick leave, which was assumed to be negatively correlated to the perceived quality of the compensation system (Herpen et al. 2005, p. 309). More recently the Work Preference Inventory (WPI) has been developed and been used in different studies. The WPI is a set of scales that measures motivation in people towards work and was developed originally through research conducted on many different groups, including students, managers, military personnel, railroad workers, hospital workers, and secretaries. Subsequently, other researchers have used the WPI to evaluate motivation orientations among additional samples of students in the United States, Canada and the People's Republic of China (Stuhlfaut 2010, p. 81). The WPI consists of 30 statements administered with four-point scales (never or almost never true, sometimes true, often true, always or almost always true) to force positive- or negative-valence responses. Fifteen statements comprise two subscales for intrinsic motivation (IM), challenge and enjoyment, and 15 statements comprise two sub-scales for extrinsic motivation (EM), outwardness and compensation. These subscales were originally developed from a review of the literature about intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, factor analysis, and retesting. The IM

scales were built on five underlying constructs: self-determination, competence, task involvement, curiosity, and interest; and the EM scales were built on five other constructs: evaluation, recognition, competition, rewards and control (Stuhlfaut 2010, pp. 82–83). First suggested 20 years ago, Perry and Wise (1990) proposed that Public Service Motivation (PSM) can have dimensions associated with three types of motives: affective, norm-based, and rational. Building on this multidimensional framework, Perry (1996) later developed a 24-item measure of PSM that identified four dimensions of the PSM construct: attraction to public policy making, commitment to the public interest/civic duty, compassion, and self-sacrifice (SS) (Kim et al. 2012, p. 81). Even though PSM has been widely used for researches in the public service sector, it is bound to this sector and hardly adaptable to other fields of research.

More recently, scientists used self-constructed questionnaires to grasp the level of job motivation, often distinguishing between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, such as Herpen and his colleagues: "The respondents were asked to react to thirteen statements. Seven statements were intended to estimate the level of extrinsic motivation. The intrinsic motivation of the employees was estimated with six questions. The statements refer to motivation coming from the job itself, the level of current monetary compensation and future rewards by means of promotion opportunities" (Herpen et al. 2005, p. 315). Many researchers have even tried to only tackle one of these forms of motivation, intrinsic or extrinsic. The reward of intrinsic motivation is the process of the activity and not an end result (Lesser, Madabhushi 2001, p. 81). Theories including the optimal level of arousal as a state of intrinsic motivation describe the optimal level of arousal or the enjoyment flow as moments during which challenge is in balance with an individual's skills. According to this theory, inadequate challenge is boring and excess challenge causes anxiety (Lesser, Madabhushi 2001, p. 82). When intrinsic motivation shall be measured through those theories, the enjoyment of individuals serves as indicator of intrinsic motivation. In order to measure the overall intrinsic motivation of employees, their enjoyment during all different tasks they are performing on a regular basis should be measured, a task that seems hard to realize. Other theories state that intrinsic motivation is evident through a commitment to a meaningful purpose, the choice of activities to accomplish the task, the personal sense of competence gained through performance, and the activity of monitoring progress toward the purpose (Stuhlfaut 2010, p. 81). A third common method to measure intrinsic motivation is the approach via the crowding out effect, which was presented above. Researchers find that when employees perceive an external intervention to be controlling, it not only reduces intrinsic motivation, but their work

performance and effort are also likely to be diminished over time. To understand the influence different controls have on employees' intrinsic motivation, it is considered whether each formal control type is likely to be particularly controlling (Christ et al. 2012, p. 438).

Extrinsic motivation is viewed to be the acquisition of rewards or avoidance of punishment (Lesser, Madabhushi 2001, p. 82). Extrinsic motivation is therefore easier to test, for example in an experiment setting. Christ et al used a simplified data entry task in an experimental setting in which participants were financially motivated to enter data as quickly as possible (compensated dimension). Importantly, participants were informed that the company values both data entry speed and accuracy (Christ et al. 2012, p. 433). Recent research offers a hierarchy of three levels of motivation which does not differentiate between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation: global, contextual and situational. Global motivation involves relatively enduring individual differences (e.g., extroversion); contextual motivation addresses generalized motives in broad life contexts, such as sports, work, or technology. Situational motivation refers to the motivation a person experiences when he or she is involved in an activity (Chan, Lam 2011, pp. 611–612). The shown variety of measurement instruments for motivation has once again pointed out the lack of a generally valid instrument. It does therefore seem advisable to create a questionnaire or experiment depending on the kind of motivation one wants to measure. Due to the task at hand to find out if the motivation of hotel employees is correlated to the emotional intelligent leadership of their followers, the more widely range of a questionnaire seems to be the first choice. In order to reduce the motivation to fake answers, it is important to assure respondents that their answers are anonym and that their employers will not be informed about their individual results. Furthermore it is important to include questions covering different sources of motivation. These sources may be – as seen in questionnaires of previous researchers – extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Another possible classification of motivational sources would be the motivational inventory theory by Barbuto and Scholl which was presented in the literature review part. This model includes five sources of motivation: intrinsic, instrumental, external and internal self-concept, and goal internalization (Barbuto, Scholl 1998, p. 1011). In order to test all these possible sources of motivation, the questionnaire would become much longer than a questionnaire which covers intrinsic and extrinsic motivation only. Since it is a common belief that nearly all motivation can be classified into intrinsic or extrinsic motivation and the questionnaire will not only include motivational questions but also some about leadership and emotional intelligence, for this research a differentiation between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation will be made only.

The following table shows the itemization of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation from a sample of six researches which were conducted during the past years.

Table 2.3 Itemization of motivation in literature

		(CHRIST et al. 2012)	(Lesser, Madabhush i 2001)	(Stuhlfaut 2010)	(Mundhra 2010)	(Ke et al. 2012)	(Herpen et al. 2005)
Intrinsic	Autonomy				x		
	Relatedness				x		
	Interesting	x					x
	Entertaining	x					
	Enjoyable	x	x	x		x	x
	Exciting	x					
	Competence		x			x	
	Challenge				x		x
Extrinsic	Reward Recognition				x		
	Performance				x		
	Identified Regulation		x				
	External Regulation		x				
	Compensation			x			x
	Outward			x			

Source: author's illustration based on quoted literature

Concerning the intrinsic motivation, most authors agree that the task has to be seen as enjoyable. Furthermore, a task seen as challenging, interesting and matched to the employee's competencies seems to indicate intrinsic motivation. Those four components are the main indicators for intrinsic motivation drawn from the sample. In regards to the extrinsic motivation, compensation is the only item named by two different authors of the sample. Very close to the term of compensation is reward recognition which is defined by adequate pay, fair rewards and equal opportunities (Mundhra 2010). Adequate rewards, opportunities for self development and constructive feedback are descriptions for the item 'performance' (Mundhra 2010). Due to the overlapping of definitions one can summarize adequate pay and the adequate rewards under the term salary while fair rewards and equal opportunities may be summarized as recognition. The constructive feedback as well as the opportunities for self development point in the same direction as the identified regulation which is defined by possibilities to enrich one's knowledge and to seek out sources of information (Lesser, Madabhushi 2001). So those three definitions may be subsumed as development. The terms outward and external regulation are both similarly defined by the importance of what others

think and the influence others have on own decisions (Stuhlfaut 2010). Those terms shall therefore be summarized as Prestige.

Tentative Model

Having operationalised the relevant terms and defined the items by which they shall be measured, a tentative model of the relationship between the concepts can be constructed. This model will form the basis for the further research which will be conducted.

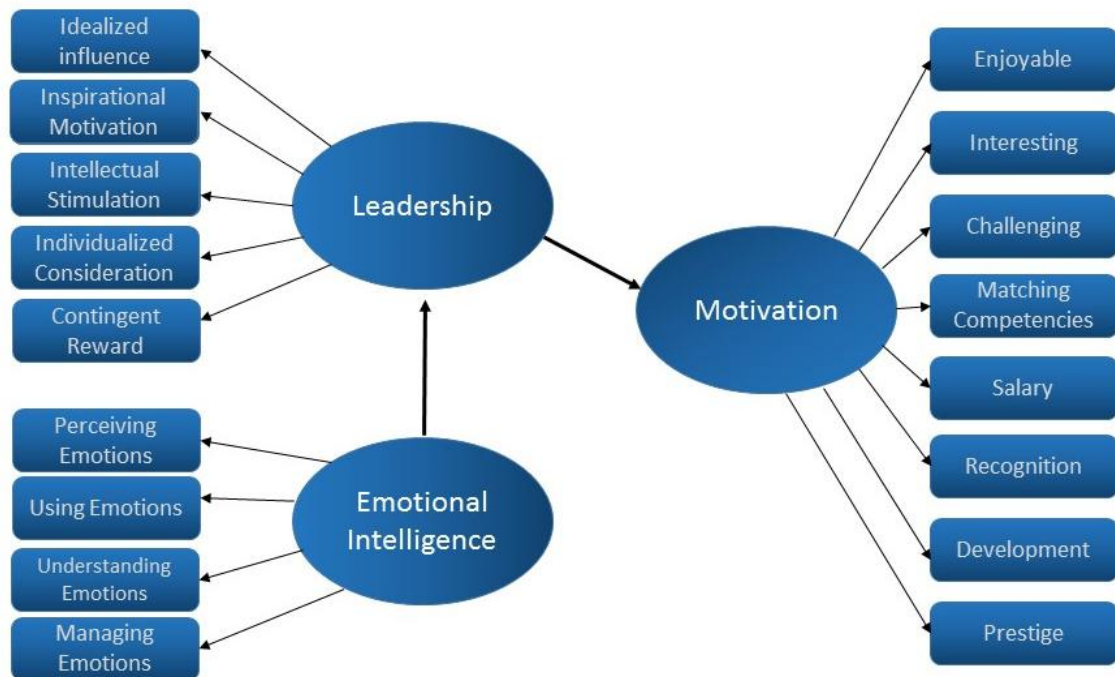


Figure 2.5 Tentative model with measurement models
 Source: author's illustration based on selected measurement tools

Figure 2.5 shows the tentative model which is to be tested with structural equation modelling. The latent variables which cannot be measured directly are shown within the ovals, their relations forming the latent model. Each latent variable is measured through the variables which are measured by the selected questionnaires. Those form the measurement models of the latent variables.

After having developed a model how emotional intelligence, leadership and motivation could be interacting in the hotel industry, the next step is to test this model empirically. The selection of research methods should be made very carefully, since "the link between research findings and research design is crucial, as the methods chosen by a research team can either create possibilities or place restrictions on the nature of the conclusions that can be drawn" (Devine, Heath 2009, p. 3). In order to validate the model for a whole industry, a quantitative

research with questionnaires seems inevitable. Therefore it has already been decided to use questionnaires from previous researches on emotional intelligence and leadership. The quantitative research has two weak points: firstly, the shire testing of the model can substantiate hypothesis or neglect them, but no enhancement of the model will be suggested. Since the model was developed on a purely theoretical basis, it seems advisable to test it qualitatively as well in order to detect weaknesses or necessary amendments of the model. Therefore expert interviews on the model will be conducted before it is tested quantitatively. The quantitative research on the model may detect correlations between the emotional intelligence and leadership abilities of leaders in the hotel industry and the motivation of employees in the hotel industry. The impact of leader's emotional intelligence on the motivation of their employees can only be logically deduced, which is the second weakness of a purely quantitative research.

2.3 Expert interviews

Questionnaire and preparation

Taking into account that an expert is someone who bears responsibility for the development, implementation or control of a solution or who has a privileged access to information about groups of persons or processes of decision making (Meuser, Nagel 2005, p. 73), experts choreograph their movements by using their own inner world and knowledge of the outer world when interpreting, analyzing and evaluating progress towards achieving a strategic result (Linderman et al. 2011, p. 355). This expert knowledge shall be used to see if amendments of the suggested model are necessary or if it is in line with the experts' understanding of emotional intelligence, leadership and motivation in the hotel industry. In order to gain the largest possible insight, academic experts from the fields of emotional intelligence, leadership and hotel industry have been chosen as well as current leaders within the hotel industry. There is little literature to be found on expert interviews. This might be due to the individuality of those interviews. The trial to make the expert interview to a solid method neglects the context of the research which consists of relativeness and is not generalizable. Each expert interview is based on a research context based definition of the term expert. Furthermore the interview with an expert is a social interaction and accident-sensitive situation, facts that reduce the adaptability of strict guidelines for conducting interviews (Bogner, Menz 2005, p. 34). Other than in different forms of open interviews, within the expert interview the interviewed person itself is not the subject of the analysis. The context of interest is an organizational or institutional context which is not identical with the life context of the acting person and of which the person is only on 'factor' (Meuser, Nagel

2005, pp. 72–73). The interviews are usually conducted as structured interviews which often involve standard questions that attempt to evaluate the interviewee along predetermined relevant dimensions, and often involve the quantification of these dimensions by the interviewers using rating scales (Ganzach et al. 2000, p. 4). The main task of the expert interviews to be conducted is to find out the expert's view on the two main dimensions of the model. Firstly, if employee motivation in the hotel industry can be influenced at all by the leader, and secondly, if the emotional intelligence of a leader influences his or her leadership abilities. Interviewers must avoid imposing their nouns on the experts. Since experts (as well as all individuals) are theorists of their own personal world, they work best when they are not distracted by having to fit their experience into the nouns of an interviewer's world. Interviewees should be allowed to use their noun framework, and, the interviewer has to adjust his word choice to mirror their use (Linderman et al. 2011, p. 356).

One challenge is that the questions are formulated in English as is the whole thesis. Many of the experts to be interviewed are Germans since the quantitative research will be conducted in Germany. It is important that the experts are given the possibility to answer the questions in their first language, due to the primacy of the first language which plays an important role - only statements in the first language of the interviewees are seen as original and authentic (Kruse et al. 2012, p. 46). A high competence in the language of the interview is therefore crucial. On the other hand, grammatical deficits can be evened out by paraverbal (intonation, pauses, rate of speaking) and non-verbal (gesture, facial expression) means, which are not necessarily important for the goal of the communication (Berkenbusch 2012, p. 245). So the questions have to be translated into German and the answers of the experts back into English. Two different types of translation can be distinguished: the alienated translation where it is tried to keep the foreignness even within the translated text and the naturalizing translation where it is tried to eliminate the foreignness. Those two types of translation show the main problem of translation, the polarity (Wettemann 2012, p. 107). In the 1980s, the skopos theory initiated a paradigm shift in the translation sciences, moving from the linguistic orientation of translation to a more communicational and later on functional approach. The main components of the skopos theory are goal orientation, receiver orientation and culture orientation. Translators build a bridge between the original text and the target text, a task where they have to make decisions which may vary. Translation is therefore always interpretative and subjective; there can not be one absolute translation. In terms of the skopos theory the goal of the translation, being the determinant factor for the translation process, can be expatiated and controlled (Wettemann 2012, pp. 106–108). It is impossible to translate

answers into another language in a complete objective or neutral way (Kruse et al. 2012, p. 45). The crucial element for the correct interpretation is the knowledge of the context, which means the knowledge for the common or adequate behavior for a certain situation (Berkenbusch 2012, p. 229). To secure quality within translations it is advisable to either work with more than one translation or to re-translate the statements from the foreign language back to the language of the interviewee and compare it with the original statements (Kruse et al. 2012, p. 60). In this case, the author has German as a first language and is familiar with the German culture, the context knowledge as well as the mastery of the foreign language is therefore given. In order to secure the right translation of the questions, they have been translated into German and retranslated into English. Gaps that appeared between the first translation and the retranslation were closed by reformulating the German questions until their retranslation matched the original version. In regards to the answers of the experts the translation has been made according to the skopos theory, oriented on the context of the German culture, the environment of the expert (e.g. scientific researcher, practical leader) and the goal of the questions. Even though the translation has been made very carefully it does clearly possess an interpretative part as stated above and shall therefore not be seen as the only possible translation of the answers but as the most suitable translation to be found.

Conduction of interviews and analysis of results

As experts in the research field of the hotel industry a professor of Operations Management at a U.S. school of Hotel Administration who has formerly consulted for several prominent hotel companies was chosen (Interview A) as well as the director of a German university of corporate education who has lectured on the hotel industry for the past decades (Interview B). As practitioners from the hotel industry an area manager for training and quality for a luxury hotel brand in Germany (Interview C) and a front office manager at a mid-scale hotel in Germany with leadership experience in Germany and Switzerland (Interview D) have been chosen. In regards to the field of emotional intelligence a trainer and coach in the fields of communication processes, moderation and team development has been chosen who has also published a book on emotional intelligence at the workplace and is lecturing at a university in Germany (Interview E). The interviews were conducted over the telephone between July 18th and August 3rd 2013. After having collected those interviews, the question is how to analyse such qualitative data. The goal of the analysis of expert interviews is to find statements about representatives, about shared knowledge, structures of relevance, constructions of the reality, interpretations and patterns of analysis (Meuser, Nagel 2005, p. 80). When analyzing expert interviews, one should first transcribe the interview. Detailed sequences can be paraphrased

carefully - a good paraphrase is not selective. The so generated text can then be structured with headlines which should ideally use the terminology of the expert. In a next step, similar passages are tried to be found within different interviews to be summarized under joint headlines or categories. The next step is the sociological conceptualization where terms and headlines are translated sociologically to allow an interpretation in more general discussions. The goal is a systematization of relevancies, typologies, generalizations and concepts. Finally, this widened perspective of sociological terms is to formulate generalized 'matters of fact' (Meuser, Nagel 2005, pp. 83–91). Since the interviews in question have been conducted as semi-structured interviews, it is not necessary to find headlines for certain subjects as they are already structured through the questions. The goal of the expert interviews was to test the hypotheses which are the basis for the model about motivation, leadership and emotional intelligence in the hotel industry. The first question which the experts were asked was concerning the motivation of employees. The experts were asked to name the main motivators for employees in the hotel industry. The table below shows the answers of the experts by interview (I) number of question (Q), the number of statement by the expert (No), the paraphrase of the original wording the reduction of the answers to categories. The categories were then reduced to motivators which were differentiated between intrinsic and extrinsic motivators.

Table 2.4 Motivators in the hotel industry seen by experts

I	Q	No	Paraphrase	Reduction	Motivators
D	1	3	Mistakes shall be seen as opportunities for training	Possibility to learn from mistakes and make a good job	Extrinsic motivators: - Compensation - Development - Working conditions
A	1	1	Desire to make a contribution, to make a good job		
A	1	2	Receive recognition for a job well done	Receive recognition	
D	1	2	Value the performance of employees	Compensation	
A	1	3	Receive rewards		
B	1	1	Compensation		
D	1	5	Compensation		
E	1	3	Money	Development / Career opportunities	
A	1	4	Advancement possibilities		
D	1	4	Development of employees, reward for a good job		
C	1	1	Career opportunities		
E	1	2	Career opportunities, advancement	Intrinsic motivators - Skills development - Recognition - Relationships - Interesting Tasks	
A	1	5	A sense of shared commitment		
B	1	2	Work climate		
E	1	1	People and relationships like respect, appreciation		
D	1	1	Acknowledge the employee and take concerns seriously		
E	1	4	Support to combine work and family	Working conditions	
B	1	3	Guests and frame conditions in general		
C	1	2	Diversified task	Interesting tasks	

Source: Author's illustration based on conducted expert interviews

Table 2.4 shows that the expert named intrinsic as well as extrinsic motivators and that most motivators were named by more than one expert. The hypothesis that employees in the hotel industry are mainly intrinsically motivated cannot be seen as substantiated since the experts named almost even numbers of intrinsic and extrinsic motivators. The results of the expert interviews support the categories which were defined for the questionnaire to measure motivation of employees in the hotel industry. The second part of the expert interviews concerned the relationship between leadership and motivation. The most important findings are displayed in the table below:

Table 2.5 Relationship between leadership and motivation seen by experts

I	Q	No	Paraphrase	Reduction	Leadership and Motivation
B	2	4	Leadership can influence motivation to a certain amount through work-climate	Leadership does influence the motivation of employees, directly and indirectly	Leadership is one of the most important factors when it comes to employee motivation
C	2	3	Leaders can strongly influence the motivators by formulating goals		
A	3	7	Motivation of employees depends between 10 – 50% from the leader		
E	2	6	A leader can influence structural motivators indirectly through approval or disapproval		
D	2	5	Motivators can be influenced by leaders		
E	2	5	The leader is very, very important for motivators such as atmosphere and relationships, also as a role model.	Leadership is the most important factor for employee motivation	In order to motivate their employees, leaders should:
E	3	7	A leader influences the motivation to at least 50%, dissatisfaction with the leader is one main reason for leaving a job		
C	3	4	60% of the motivation of employees depend on the leader		
D	3	6	The leader influences the motivation by 60%		
A	4	10	Leaders need to be self-assured	Leaders need to be role models in their behaviour, and be strong, self-assured personalities	- Be role models - Be strong personalities - Show product- and task-related enthusiasm - Work actively to build their team
E	4	8	Leaders need to be able to reflect their behaviour and its effects		
D	4	7	A leader needs patience, assertiveness and empathy; he must be willing to make decisions and stand up for the team.		
C	4	5	A leader must have learned how to lead, have a good leader himself and be motivated.		
A	4	8	Leaders need honesty and integrity and should not be narcissists		
B	4	8	A leader needs to convey joy for the labour and enthusiasm for the product and the offer and be part of the offer	Leaders need to show product- and task-related enthusiasm	
A	4	9	Leaders need enthusiasm, passion and openness to new ideas and questions		
B	4	9	Leaders need to be fair and open		
E	4	9	A leader must also be able to give feedback and support	Leaders need to actively build their team	
A	4	11	Leaders need to be interested and committed to team building		

Source: Author's illustration based on conducted expert interviews

As shown in table 2.5, experts do rate leadership as the main factor influencing motivation of employees, a statement which supports the hypothesis that leadership is positively correlated to the motivation of employees. Among the traits and skills leaders need to positively influence the motivation of their employees, emotional intelligence was not named. That

could indicate that emotional intelligence does not have the hypothesized leverage effect. This effect is further explored in the next part of the expert interviews.

Table 2.6 Leadership and Emotions as seen by experts

I	Q	No	Paraphrase	Reduction	Leadership and Emotions	
C	7	8	Positive emotions of the leader are helpful	Positive emotions, e.g. through excitement can be helpful	Emotions play an important role in the leadership process, positive as well as negative	
B	7	12	Positive emotions help to be relaxed and sort things out.			
E	7	12	Positive emotions make a leader less critical			
A	5	12	Emotions are positive if they come through excitement and enthusiasm			
C	7	9	Negative emotions lead to a negative aura of the leader	Negative emotions have negative impacts on the leadership process		
B	7	13	Negative emotions come from over-enthusiasm or seeing things too critical.			
E	7	11	Permanent concern, stress and trouble have an influence on cognitive abilities			
A	5	13	Negative emotions take away the focus from one's job			
B	5	10	Emotions will enforce loyalty and motivation	Emotions do play an important role in the leadership process		Especially people-oriented tasks of the leadership process are influenced by emotions
D	5	8	Emotions bind the employee to the product			
C	5	6	Emotions do play an important role but they do not belong at the work place.			
E	5	10	There is no area which is not affected by emotions			
B	6	11	Emotions are important in all areas of leadership – a differentiation is difficult			
A	7	15	Emotions can support the leader if he knows how to deal with them			
A	6	14	Team-orientation is strongly influenced by emotions	Emotions influence mainly people-oriented areas and attitudes		
C	6	7	Motivation, performance and accuracy are influenced by emotions			
D	6	9	External appearance and attitude can only be trained through emotions			
D	7	10	Emotions are positive for teambuilding and motivation			
E	6	10	All areas that concern employees and team are influenced by emotions			

Source: Author's illustration based on conducted expert interviews

Table 2.6 clearly shows that all experts agreed upon the important role emotions play in the leadership process. Especially parts of the leadership process concerning people like teambuilding and motivation were seen as strongly influenced by emotions. It became also clear that emotions are not seen as uncritical in the leadership process. Experts made a clear distinction between positive and negative emotions and pointed out that emotions can have negative impacts as well as positive impacts. It was also stated that emotions can have a supporting role in the leadership process if a leader knows how to manage emotions. The next questions asked about the interrelation of all three concepts.

Table 2.7 Emotional Intelligence, Leadership and Motivation as seen by experts

I	Q	No	Paraphrase	Reduction	Emotional Intelligence, Leadership and Motivation
D	8	11	EI is very important in the leadership process	EI is important in the leadership process especially when it comes to treating employees	Emotional intelligence is very important in the leadership process
C	8	10	EI plays an important role and is gaining importance		
E	9	15	EI helps a leader to know employees better and to treat them more individually		
E	10	16	A modern and flexible leadership style is impossible without the goal-oriented management of emotions		
B	8	14	EI has a key role in leadership, even if one does not always succeed with it		
E	8	13	EI helps a leader to treat people better and to have less trouble. One can lead without EI but will then not have long term success		
A	8	16	Leaders need to know their own emotions and be aware of the emotions of their followers	EI has an impact on the motivation of employees	Emotional intelligence seems to have an impact on employee motivation
D	9	12	EI has an impact on the motivation of employees		
B	9	16	EI has an impact on the motivation of employees but sometimes a clear word or displayed outrage is necessary to keep undesired developments under control.		
A	9	17	Emotional intelligence is necessary to make all of the motivators happen	EI helps a leader to influence his or her employees	Emotional intelligence will facilitate the influence a leader has on the employees
D	10	13	A leader will be able to influence his followers if he is emotional intelligent and knows how to handle the emotions of the employees.		
C	10	12	Influencing employees is easier with EI but is possible without it as well		
C	9	11	EI is necessary to influence employees		
A	10	18	The higher the EI of a leader, the higher his or her influence on the employees		

Source: Author's illustration based on conducted expert interviews

When asked about the role of emotional intelligence all experts agreed that emotional intelligence does play an important role in the leadership process and will leverage the influence a leader has on the employees. Those statements substantiate the hypothesis that emotional intelligence does have an impact on the leadership process. When it came to role emotional intelligence plays for the motivation of employees, experts were rather hesitant and did not seem convinced that emotional intelligence has an important influence on the motivation of employees. The third thesis for defence, stating that emotional intelligence has a leveraging effect on the impact leadership has on motivation can therefore be seen as only

partly substantiated by the experts. Summarizing, the expert interviews have mostly substantiated the hypothesis of the model. Not substantiated was the hypothesis that employees in the hotel industry are mainly intrinsically motivated. Experts named intrinsic as well as extrinsic motivators. Both parts of motivation will be tested in the quantitative analysis, so that even if the hypothesis is falsificated the impact on leadership and emotional intelligence on motivation will still be measured. It was confirmed by the conducted interviews that leaders do have a significant impact on the motivation of employees and that the leadership process is influenced by emotions. To identify motivation as the part of leadership which is mainly influenced by emotions was not possible, but it was named as one of the important areas within leadership to be impacted by emotions. It became clear that emotional intelligence is necessary to manage emotions and avoid the negative impact they might otherwise have. The experts furthermore stated that successful leadership is not based on emotional intelligence alone but on professionalism and successes in strategic decisions as well. Overall the model has been approved by the experts and can be tested quantitatively without further amendments.

Conclusions of analytical findings

The analytical part demonstrates that especially leadership is of crucial importance in the hotel industry, since leaders cannot control the work situation of their employees due to the external factor. Experts confirmed that leadership is extremely important for the motivation of employees. Due to the working conditions within the German hotel industry it is assumed that employees in this industry are mainly intrinsically motivated, a motivation which might be threatened by extrinsic rewards. Non-monetary rewards could therefore be one solution to keep the intrinsic motivation up. As seen in chapter one, the focus on the employee as an individual is constantly growing, which means that also incentives have to be individualized to the needs and expectations of an employee. One prerequisite therefore is that the individual employee with its needs and expectations is known to the leader. One way to achieve this state is the emotional intelligence of a leader, helping him understanding the emotions of his or her followers and finding the right reactions and incentives. Experts confirmed that emotions do play an important role in the leadership process, especially within the interpersonal parts of the process, e.g. interaction with employees. The experts also warned that emotions could influence the leadership process positively or negatively. The better a leader is able to control his or her emotions, the better he or she will be able to use the positive impact of emotions and reduce the negative impact. Therewith a leader will be able to have a better knowledge of his or her employees and to value them on an individual basis,

which is likely to lead to a higher intrinsic motivation of employees. The analytical part also showed the research gap of quantitative research within the hotel industry especially in Germany, a gap which this dissertation aims to reduce with the following research.

3 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RELATION BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, MOTIVATION AND LEADERSHIP

3.1 Quantitative Research

Design of questionnaires

The quantitative part of the research will use questionnaires to measure the emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness of leaders and the motivation of employees as well as leaders in the hotel industry in Germany. In order to grant comparability with previous researches pre-used questionnaires will be used to measure emotional intelligence (MSCEIT) and leadership effectiveness (MLQ – 5X). In order to measure motivation it was decided to create a new questionnaire which measures internal as well as external motivation. Multi-category questions are chosen in order to be able to calculate the correlations of the results (Raab-Steiner, Benesch 2012, p. 55). A rating scale with five to seven categories is chosen which will avoid the overwhelming of an interviewee. In regards to an even or uneven number of categories, prior researches showed that a neutral category is used not only to express a neutral position but also to avoid any answer which can have negative effects on the information drawn from a questionnaire (Raab-Steiner, Benesch 2012, pp. 57–58). Since people tend to confirm statements rather than neglecting them, it is decided to use positive as well as negative formulations of questions (Raab-Steiner, Benesch 2012, p. 47). Furthermore, respondents have the tendency to mark either on the right or on the left hand side of a scale and stick with this direction. In order to avoid this bias, scale directions should change within the questionnaire, but not too often to avoid confusion of respondents (Porst 2011, p. 74).

Intrinsic motivation shall be measured by the amount to which the task is seen as enjoyable, interesting, challenging and matched to the employee's competencies. Extrinsic motivation shall be measured by how the work is seen in regards to compensation, fairness, development and prestige. Each item shall be measured by two questions, with one question as a summary asking to put in an order intrinsic and extrinsic motivators. The questions are taken from different motivational questionnaires, e.g. the question to measure how challenging the job is seen by the employee (Question 19) is taken from Stuhlfaut (2010). With this question the daily usage of knowledge is asked. The more new knowledge is needed to complete daily tasks, the more challenging the job is supposed to be. At the questionnaire, the extrinsic questions will be put at the beginning since they are less likely to tackle too personal information and discourage respondents to continue. The leadership questionnaire will be embedded in the motivational

questionnaire. One filtering question within the statistical part of the questions will make sure that leaders and followers each get the right set of questions in the leadership part.

Sampling and distribution

After having constructed a questionnaire its usability and quality is tested with a small sample. The pretest serves to test the understandability of the questionnaire and the answering time. The 'loud thinking' approach is chosen, where the researcher is sitting next to the test person and asking him or her to say aloud all their thoughts in regards to the questionnaire (Raab-Steiner, Benesch 2012, p. 61). The questionnaires were therefore given to three employees from the hotel industry in Germany – one leader and two followers – who were asked to fill out the questions while speaking out loud their thoughts about the meanings of the questions and being able to ask questions when uncertainties would arise. This small pretest showed that all employees were able to understand the questions correctly and could answer them without further help or guidance. The questionnaire was therefore not amended. The time estimate (20-30 minutes) did prove correct since all respondents completed the questionnaire within this time frame (20 minutes / 23 minutes / 28 minutes).

The next step is to draw an appropriate sample. "Different sampling frames affect the representativeness of the sample [...] and the generalizability of the research findings" (Devine, Heath 2009, p. 5). A sample is a small part of the population, the selection of the sample should be done according to certain criteria to allow generalized statements. If there is no evidence about a certain distribution of relevant variables, it is advisable to take a random sample, where each holder of the relevant variables has the same probability to be drawn into the sample (Raab-Steiner, Benesch 2012, pp. 18–19). For the research at hand it seems therefore advisable to draw a random sample of leaders and employees in the hotel industry in Germany. The question is how to distribute the questionnaire in order to make sure that each employee and each leader has the same probability to be drawn into the sample. The way interviews were conducted has changed significantly over the past few years - Personal face-to-face interviews have lost on importance, in 1990 65% of interviews have been conducted face to face, in 2010 the percentage dropped to 21%. At the same time, telephone interviews gained on importance between 1990 (22%) and 1995 (45%) but dropped again in 2010 (35%). Written interviews (paper and pencil interviews) have dramatically lost their importance from 22% in 2000 to 6% in 2012, while online interviews gained from 3% in 2000 to 38% in 2010 (Kaase 2012, pp. 36–37) . This development indicates that an internet survey might be the right research design. When weighing the option of an internet survey, the first question

should be the internet coverage in the population of interest. In 2013 82% of the German households had internet coverage, in 2014 the number rose to 84%. (Statistisches Bundesamt Deutschland 2014) Uneven internet access, as present in most countries, means that certain populations will be severely underrepresented in internet surveys, even in the countries with high internet coverage overall. For studies where the measures of interest are not related to the dimensions along which internet coverage is distributed these gaps in coverage will not be problematic (Smyth, Pearson 2011, p. 17). From the coverage perspective an internet survey in Germany will therefore be a realistic option, which offers different advantages. At internet surveys, there are few additional costs associated with surveying respondents who are spread over wide geographic areas, whereas such cost may lead for mail, telephone and face-to-face surveys to be conducted in smaller geographical areas (Smyth, Pearson 2011, p. 14). From a questionnaire design perspective, the internet offers the advantage of being able to utilize complex questionnaires and employ skip patterns that might be sources of error in a mail survey. From a respondent point of view, the internet provides a certain amount of privacy which may lead to more honest reporting on sensitive questions. Additionally, respondents to internet surveys have more control over the pace of the survey. However the internet is also more dynamic than the telephone in the sense that it is not uncommon for internet users to flip from one task or screen to another (Smyth, Pearson 2011, pp. 20–21). Other challenges for the internet survey are the sampling and the response rates for those surveys. One of the main challenges is that no country has an adequate general population sampling frame, or list of internet users or their e-mail addresses. Furthermore, the e-mail addresses lack standardization, making it impossible to develop an algorithm for random selection from all possible addresses (which is possible with telephones) (Smyth, Pearson 2011, p. 17). Overall, internet surveys can be expected to yield response rates ranging from six to 15 percentage points lower than other survey methods. Internet surveys of specialized populations tend to produce higher response rates, while those of more general populations yield lower response rates (Smyth, Pearson 2011, p. 31). In general, "for internet and paper-and-pencil self-administered questionnaires, measurement equivalence has been established in numerous cases, and when differences were found, these could be attributed to differences in sample composition or to self-selection" (De Leeuw, Hox 2011, p. 66). Due to the advantages of internet surveys it is decided to use the internet to distribute the questionnaires. An introduction is placed before the questionnaires, thanking the respondents and naming the subject of the questionnaire and usage of results. As time estimate, 20-30 minutes is quoted, since the MLQ takes 15-20 minutes to be completed, according to the MLQ manual. The time to complete the motivational questionnaire is estimated at 5-10 minutes.

Data for this study were collected in two time periods to reduce common biases when same source data are used to assess both the predictors and the criteria (Hassan et al. 2013, p. 137). At the first step, the leadership / motivation questionnaire was posted on the facebook page of the ahgz (allgemeine hotel- und gaststättenzeitung), the general newspaper for the hospitality industry in Germany, it was posted within a hotel user group at the online business network xing, it was sent out twice as an advertisement within a daily newsletter for the hotel industry and sent out once within the online newsletter of a hotel journal. This way, all employees and leaders in the hotel industry in Germany did have the chance to get access to the link. Due to the distribution over the internet and the self-selection, it has to be assumed that only German participants filled out the questionnaire. This first distribution of the questionnaires was done between September 24th, 2013 and October 15th, 2013. Concerning the MSCEIT a separate link had to be purchased which could not be embedded in the leadership / motivation questionnaire. Furthermore, this questionnaire was only supposed to be filled in by leaders. Therefore it was decided to send the link to a sample of German hotels, asking to forward it to one of their leaders. In order to draw a random sample, the price-comparing website trivago.de was chosen, which displays all hotels which are bookable online, so each hotel does have the possibility to be displayed on this webpage. The webpage divides Germany into nine regions and 45 sub-regions. From each sub-region three hotels were chosen, namely number two, five and eleven on the displayed list. The order of the display depends on the availability of the hotel, its price as well as its listing on other web pages. The sample was drawn on September 21st, 2013 and the link to the online version of MSCEIT sent out the same day. The second data collection was done approximately one year after the first data collection. Since a complete list of all approx. 35,000 hotels in Germany is not existent, an independent website was chosen (www.hotelier.de), which lists 23,800 hotels in Germany. Every 23rd hotel from this list was selected so that a list of 1,034 hotels in Germany was randomly chosen. This list was compared with the list of 130 hotels which have been contacted within the first round of data collection and three hotels which were on both lists were excluded. An e-mail was sent out to the human resource departments of the remaining 1,031 hotels with both links to the questionnaires, asking them to distribute the link for the motivation / leadership questionnaire among all employees and the emotional intelligence questionnaire only to leaders with a team of at least four followers. This e-mail has been sent out to all hotels on October 20th, 2014. A first reminder has been sent shortly after, on October 22nd. The second reminder was sent out one week after the first e-mail has been sent out, on October 27th. The first round of sampling brought 76 usable questionnaires on leadership and

motivation. A response rate cannot be calculated, since the link of the questionnaire has been made public and not been sent to a certain amount of recipients. The second round where 1,031 hotels were contacted generated 375 usable questionnaire. Assumed that only one employee per hotel answered the questionnaire, this gives a response rate of approximately 36%. This rate might be lower since the possibility exist that more than one employee per hotel has answered the questionnaire, leaving less hotels to have answered in total.

3.2 Analysis of results

Respondent's profile

The questionnaire about motivation and leadership was filled out completely by a total of 451 respondents. Due to the posting of this questionnaire in various online newsletters and web pages a response quote cannot be calculated. The profile of the respondents is summarized in table 3.1:

Table 3.1 Respondent's profile motivation and leadership

Demographic Variables		Total numbers in the survey	Share expressed in percent in the survey	Share expressed in percent in the German Hotel Industry
Gender	Male	175	38.8	38.25
	Female	276	61.2	61,75
Age (in years)	15-24	66	14.6	n/a
	25-29	164	36,4	n/a
	30-34	101	22.4	n/a
	35-39	66	14.6	n/a
	40 and above	54	12.0	n/a
Time in Hotel Industry (in years)	0 to 3	52	11,5	n/a
	Over 3 to 6	205	45,5	n/a
	Over 6 to 9	142	31.5	n/a
	Over 9 to 12	10	2.2	n/a
	Over 12 to 20	33	7.3	n/a
	More than 20	9	2.0	n/a
Employment	Non-Manager	267	59.2	n/a
	Manager	184	40.8	n/a

Source: author's illustration / Statistisches Bundesamt Deutschland

It is striking that even though most of the respondents are relatively young (51.0 percent are younger than 30 years), their time in the hotel industry is long on a comparative level, 43.0 percent have been working in this industry for more than six years. This phenomenon might be explained with the academic education of the respondents. 27.0 percent do have an education which does not qualify for studies at a university, 46.3 percent did qualify for studies at a university but did not use this qualification while only 24.0 percent did go to

university. 2.7 percent did not specify their education level. From the education level one can estimate the age at which respondents finished school which would be around 15 to 16 years for those without the qualification for university and around 18 to 19 for those with a qualification. The apprenticeship in the hotel industry is usually three years in Germany but can be shortened to two years. This explains why employees in the hotel industry to have several years of experience at a relatively young age. There are no official numbers about the time in the hotel industry or the age distribution of the employees. From the respondents around 60% are non-managers, which means that around 40% of the respondents are leading a team. This number cannot be compared to the basic population since no such numbers are officially available and the definition of “managers” and “non managers” may differ among the hotels. For this survey respondents were asked to rate themselves as managers if they lead a team of at least four individuals, since the differentiation is mainly made between leaders and followers. The distribution among males and females can be seen as representative of the population of the hotel industry in Germany, as the comparative numbers show.

The questionnaire about emotional intelligence was filled out by 181 respondents in total. There are no official numbers about the population of leaders in the hotel industry in Germany. According to Hänssler, a hotel of approximately 100 employees does have a hierarchical structure with about 15 leaders (Hänssler 2008, p. 45), that would make 0,15 leaders per employee. According to the number of hotel employees in Germany that would make 71,170 leaders, the drawn sample represents therefore 0.25% of the total population. First the link has been sent out to 132 hotels and the selected hotels have been reminded twice (once after two weeks, once after six weeks). This produced 65 completed questionnaire, leading to a relatively high response rate of 48.15 percent, assuming that each hotel did only give the link to one manager. In the second phase the link was sent to 1.000 hotels randomly selected (excluding the 130 from the first phase) and the hotels were reminded after three days and after one week. This produced 116 usable questionnaire, the response rate dropping to 11.6% which might be linked with the short response time given. Since this link was only sent out to hotel managers with the clear instruction to have it filled out by individuals in managerial positions only, it is assumed that only managers have filled out this questionnaire. This assumption cannot be measured since the questionnaire did not ask for positions and could not be modified to do so. The questionnaire could not be started without indicating a name, from which a respondents profile in terms of the gender could be drawn. The distribution between the genders is almost even. This seems to be unusual, as it was shown above that in the hotel industry in Germany only 38.25% of the employees are male. In total

Germany, 53% of the working population are male and 47% female, while only 27.7 percent of the management positions in Germany are occupied by females (Körner, Günther 2012). Compared with those total numbers, it becomes clear that there are significantly more women working in the hotel industry in Germany than in other industries. In total Germany, the percentage of female workers dropped by 19 percent points or 41% between total working population and leaders. If the same change rate would apply for the hotel industry, then between 37 and 43% of the leadership population would be female. Those assumptions would mean that the sample has too many female respondents. Since no official numbers exist to confirm the calculations above and the sample is almost evenly distributed between the genders, the sample will not be rejected.

Table 3.2 Respondent's profile emotional intelligence

Demographic Variables		Absolute Value	Percent
Gender	Male	89	49.17
	Female	92	50.83

Source: author's illustration based on data collected in 2013 and 2014

Structural equation modelling

Structural equation modeling offers a mean of developing and evaluating ideas about complex relationships (Grace 2006, p. 3). "Structural equation modeling can be defined in its most basic sense as the use of two or more structural equations to model multivariate relationships" (Grace 2006, p. 10). Jöreskog, who is seen as the inventor of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), defines it as follows: "The structural equation model is used to specify the phenomenon under study in terms of tentative cause and effect variables and various causal effects. Each equation in the model represents a causal link rather than a mere empirical association, and the structural parameters do not, in general, coincide with coefficients of regressions among observed variables. The structural parameters represent relatively unmixed, invariant, and autonomous features of the mechanism that generates the observable variables" (Jöreskog, Sörbom 1982, p. 404). Today, structural equation models are widely used in empirical research to investigate interrelationships among variables, some of which may be latent. Generally, the methods are used to study structural relations among latent variables that are related to observable variables through a measurement error model (Rivera, Satorra op. 2002, p. 85). The foundations for SEM can be found in Spearman's Factor Analysis in 1904 where at the heart of the analysis stood the discovery that one could infer the presence of a latent dimension of variation from the pattern of the pair wise correlation coefficients (Bartholomew op. 2002, p. 1). The roots of modern SEM lie in the path analysis developed mainly by Wright in the 1920s. But Structural Equation Modeling has also been influenced by a number of quantitative sub disciplines such as biometrics, econometrics,

psychometrics and sociometrics (Grace 2006, pp. 12–13). Each regression model contains one dependent variable and at least one independent variable. The relation between both variables is defined with the regression equation. When different regression models are combined with each other, this type of modeling is called path analysis (Reinecke 2005, p. 7). Modern SEM can primarily be attributed to the synthesis of path analysis and factor analysis accomplished by Jöreskog in the early 1970s (Grace 2006, pp. 12–13). Before Jöreskogs presentation of his new statistical approach, it has been differentiated in the late 1960s between a measurement level and a structural level which goes along with the differentiation of manifest and latent variables. Those models are referred to as multiple indicator models (Reinecke 2005, p. 8). But even with the differentiation between measurement and structural level, problem solving possibilities were limited within the purely analytic way. The further development brought iterative solving approaches with Jöreskogs Structural Equation Model based on a system of equations of variable vectors and parameter matrices. Jöreskogs model was the scientific base for the software LISREL (Reinecke 2005, p. 9).

Factor analyses can either be exploratory, in that the theory is not used to guide the analysis, or confirmatory, where theory is used to structure the model (Grace 2006, p. 14). The building of causal models with structural analysis is a primarily hypotheses-testing and therefore confirmatory approach of statistical analysis (Reinecke 2005, p. 10). The effect of a single x on y can be called structured if there exists sufficient evidence from all available sources to support the interpretation that x_1 has a causal effect on y_1 (Grace 2006, p. 7). Correlation itself is no proof for causality. Causality within a model is bound to four prerequisites: first the theoretical reasons, since without theoretically deducted hypotheses a causal interpretation of the postulated relations between variables is not possible. Secondly, the empirical correlation, which form the empirical basis for causal relations. Third, the asymmetry of time because only if between the variables x and y time has passed a causal relation between both variables might be suggested. The last prerequisite is the elimination of the influence of third variables, so that the influence of variable x on variable y does not disappear if the influence of other variables is controlled (Reinecke 2005, p. 12). Structural equation models are built upon the complete body of available knowledge. Models are only rejected if the observed data does not match expectations derived from the model. This philosophy facilitates the invocation of causal interpretation because it automatically incorporates the knowledge available to the scientist. This forms the basis for cause and effect interpretations (Grace 2006, p. 9).

The reason why SEM was chosen to analyze the complex relationship between motivation, leadership and emotional intelligence was that in order to understand systems the capacity to examine simultaneous influences and responses is required. Conventional uni-variate analyses are usually limited to the examination of a single or at most a few processes at a time (Grace 2006, p. 3). Furthermore, three characteristics of structural equation modeling exceed the potential of classical statistical methods: first, explicit hypotheses can be formulated how many manifested variables are used to measure a latent variable. Second, correlative as well as causal relations between the constructs can be formulated. And third, the hypotheses can be tested in the measurement model and in the structural model with test statistics and Goodness-of-fit measures (Reinecke 2005, p. 13). Other than the 'first generation' multivariate methods (e.g. principal components analysis, cluster analysis, canonical correlation), SEM as 'second generation' method is capable of confirmatory tests and thus more suitable for evaluation of multivariate hypotheses. Furthermore, conventional multivariate methods seek to estimate generic fixed models and lack the flexibility required to represent a model that best matches a particular situation (Grace 2006, p. 13). The flexibility of using structural equations to represent relationships creates the ability to estimate the influences of unmeasured, underlying causes or latent variables (Grace 2006, p. 17). For the analysis at hand, the underlying relationships between certain leadership or EI factors and motivation can be evaluated as well as the moderating effect of EI. The goodness-of-fit measures allow to draw different plausible models with different paths inbetween the latent variables and chose the model which best fits the observed data. Once a model fits the observed data in a satisfactory way, analysis can not only be based on the paths between the variables but also based on their intercepts and means of factors. Since the mid 1990s the program AMOS (Analysis of Moment Structures) is available for the calculation of structural equation models which was chosen for the analysis of the current data. The popularity of this program can be explained with its user-friendly graphical surface as well as with its linkage to the statistical program SPSS (statistical package for social sciences) (Reinecke 2005, p. 377). Since the preliminary analysis has been done with SPSS it seems logical to use a compatible programme for the further analysis.

Preliminary analyses

Before the results are analyzed, the reliability of the results is tested by calculating Cronbach's alpha for the different questionnaires. For the newly designed questionnaire of motivation an alpha value of 0.896 is calculated, showing good to excellent reliability. For the leadership questionnaire MLQ-5X the handbook states the alpha value at 0.86, it is calculated at 0.851 which indicates a good reliability. For the emotional intelligence questionnaire

MSCEIT a reliability of 0.91 is quoted in the handbook. The calculated value of Cronbach's alpha is 0.899 which is slightly below the indicated value but still represents an excellent reliability of the tool. Since in the model motivation is measured with all eight factors and no differentiation between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is made, SPSS is used to determine whether employees in the hotel industry are mainly intrinsically motivated. Intrinsic motivation was measured through the factors enjoyable, interesting, challenging, and matching competences, extrinsic motivation was measured through the factors salary, recognition, development and prestige. Each factor was measured through different questions and at the end the participants were asked to define their personal order for all of those factors. All answers were measured within a five point Likert scale, the values for the factors were calculated by summing up the responses to the respective questions and adding the value for the rank the factor has been put in, where rank one gave eight points, rank two gave seven points and so on. The sum for each factor was then divided by the number of questions to have each factor scaled from one to five. The values of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation have been calculated as the median of the factors. The median was chosen over the mean to make the result dependable from outliers.

Table 3.3 Descriptive analysis motivation of employees

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Median	Standard Deviation
Enjoyable	451	0	5	4	1.410
Interesting	451	0	5	4	1.292
Challenging	451	0	5	3	1.445
Competence	451	0	5	3	1.267
Salary	426	0	4	2	1.131
Recognition	451	0	5	3	1.193
Development	451	0	5	3	1.387
Prestige	451	0	5	2	1.231
Intrinsic	451	0	5.0	3.5	1.1595
Extrinsic	451	0	5.0	3	1.0340

Source: author's illustration based on SPSS calculations of data collected in autumn 2013 and 2014

The table shows that the median of the intrinsic motivation is higher than the median for the extrinsic motivation, as well as almost all factors for intrinsic motivation have a higher median than the factors for extrinsic motivation. The lowest median was measured for salary which also has the lowest standard deviation, confirming the assumption that motivation of employees in the hotel industry in Germany is mainly non-monetary. The intrinsic motivation of employees in the hotel industry in Germany can be stated as higher than the extrinsic motivation. An ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) test was executed to test if the difference

between both values is statistically significant. This test lead to the result that the null-hypothesis, neglecting the difference between both values, can be rejected, since the calculated difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is statistically significant ($F = 6.325$; $p=0.012$).

A second question which can be answered with statistical analyses is if the motivation of employees in the hotel industry varies between managers and non-managers. Therefore the medians of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are compared for managers and non-managers.

Table 3.4 Median values for motivation of managers and non-managers

Employment		Intrinsic Motivation	Extrinsic Motivation
Non-Manager	Median	3.5	2.935
	N	267	267
	Standard Deviation	1.1740	1.0134
Manager	Median	3.675	3
	N	184	184
	Standard Deviation	1.1412	1.0649

Source: author's illustration based on SPSS calculation

The comparison in the table above shows that the medians for intrinsic as well as for extrinsic motivation are slightly higher for managers than they are for non-managers. The difference was again analysed with the ANOVA analysis to see if the difference is statistically significant. The analysis confirmed the null-hypothesis ($F=0.362$; $p=0.548$), which leads to the conclusion that there is no statistically significant difference between the motivation of managers and non-managers within the hotel industry in Germany measured within this sample.

When analysing the hotel industry in Germany it became clear that differences in the population in regards to gender and ethnicity exist. Due to before discussed reasons it is not possible to discuss the cultural differences of motivation, leadership and emotional intelligence within this doctoral thesis. The gender differences can be analysed nevertheless.

Table 3.5 Gender differences emotional intelligence, leadership and motivation

Variable	Gender	N	Median	Standard Deviation
Emotional Intelligence	Female	92	3.7925	.74991
	Male	89	2.5	.96941
Leadership	Female	276	3	.83111
	Male	175	3	.91573
Intrinsic Motivation	Female	276	3.5	1.26245
	Male	175	3.5	.96772
Extrinsic Motivation	Female	276	2.75	1.01925
	Male	175	3	1.04142

Source: author's illustration based on SPSS calculations of data collected in 2013 and 2014

Table 3.5 shows the differences in of median values when tested for gender differences. After an ANOVA analyses has been conducted, both differences, extrinsic motivation ($p < 0.05$) and emotional intelligence ($p < 0.01$), proved to be statistically significant. In regards to extrinsic motivation, females of the sample did report a lower extrinsic motivation than did the males of the sample. This results adds a new layer of possible interpretation to the result presented above, that employees in the hotel industry in Germany are mainly intrinsically motivated. In regards to the differences between genders when it comes to emotional intelligence, this result was analysed further by comparing the median values and standard deviations of the different factors of emotional intelligence.

Table 3.6 Gender differences factors of emotional intelligence

Variable	Gender	N	Median	Standard Deviation
Perceiving emotions	Female	92	3	1.05557
	Male	89	3	1.56103
Using Emotions	Female	92	4	1.13576
	Male	89	3	1.03473
Understanding Emotions	Female	92	4	1.16118
	Male	89	2	1.39486
Managing Emotions	Female	92	3.6601	1.04879
	Male	89	2	1.27477

Source: author's illustration based on SPSS calculations of data collected in 2013 and 2014

Table 3.6 shows that women did reach a higher median in all the factors of emotional intelligence except perceiving emotions. The ANOVA analyses showed that the difference

between male and female respondents when it comes to using emotions is not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$). Therefore the significant difference between male and female respondents when it comes to emotional intelligence has to derive from understanding and managing emotions.

Analysis with Structural Equation Modelling

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is conducted with the software AMOS to analyse the fit of the collected data to the proposed model. In a first step of analysis, the measurement models are calculated.

Table 3.7 Model fit measurement model motivation

	Chi-Square	df	² / df	CFI	RMSEA
Measurement Model Motivation	298.137	20	14.907	0.846	0.176
Measurement Model Motivation – amended	16.886	9	1.876	0.996	0.044

Source: author's illustration based on AMOS calculations of data collected in 2013 and 2014

The measurement model of motivation provides an unadequate fit with the Chi-Square / degrees of freedom ratio ranging above the suggested 3.0, the comparative fit index (CFI) value ranging below 0.9 and the root mean square of approximation (RMSEA) higher than 0.08 (Perrin et al. 2012, p. 187). The modification indices are consulted to see which amendments to the model would improve the model fit. Various covariances between the factors are suggested. Since it is plausible that the different factors measuring motivation are related, the suggested covariances are drawn and the model is recalculated. As shown in table 3.7, the model fit has improved with the amendments, now providing a good model fit with the Chi-Square / degrees of freedom ratio ranging below 3.0, the CFI having a value above 0.9 and the RMSEA being below 0.08. The measurement model for motivation will therefore be kept with the amendments.

Table 3.8 Model fit measurement model leadership

	Chi-Square	df	² / df	CFI	RMSEA
Measurement Model Leadership	149.097	5	29.891	0.638	0.253
Measurement Model Leadership – amended	1.890	1	1.890	0.998	0.044

Source: author's illustration based on AMOS calculations of data collected in 2013 and 2014

The measurement model for leadership does also provide a poor model fit after the first calculation with the Chi Square / degree of freedom ratio at 29.891, the CFI at 0.638 and the RMSEA at 0.253. In order to achieve a better model fit, the modification indices are

consulted. Covariances are suggested from contingent reward to intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and idealized influence as well as from individualized consideration to intellectual stimulation. Being theoretically plausible, those covariances are drawn, leaving the measurement model with only one degree of freedom but a much improved model fit. As shown in table 3.8, the Chi Square / degrees of freedom ratio is with 1.890 below the critical value of 3.0, the CFI is with 0.998 above the recommended 0.9 and the RMSEA value is below 0.08 with 0.044. Due to the good model fit the measurement model is kept with the amendments.

Table 3.9 Model fit measurement model emotional intelligence

	Chi-Square	df	χ^2 / df	CFI	RMSEA
Measurement Model Emotional Intelligence	38.881	2	19.441	0.898	0.202
Measurement Model Emotional I. – amended	0.34	1	0.34	1.0	0.000

Source: author's illustration based on AMOS calculations of data collected in 2013 and 2014

As experienced with the measurement models for motivation and leadership, the measurement model for emotional intelligence does also not provide satisfactory model fit at the first calculation with a Chi Square / degree of freedom ratio of 19.441 and a RMSEA value of 0.202. Due to the limited degrees of freedom only one of the suggested covariances is drawn, between understanding and perceiving emotions. The model fit has improved with this amendment as shown in the table above, which is why the covariance between understanding and perceiving emotions is kept.

After the measurement models have been analysed and amended to achieve an adequate model fit, all three measurement models are brought together to the full latent model which has been suggested before.

Table 3.10 Model fit full latent model

	Chi-Square	df	χ^2 / df	CFI	RMSEA
Full latent model	1,377.427	101	13,638	0.676	0.168
Full latent model – amended	1,146.778	94	12.200	0.733	0.158
Leadership-Motivation	442.802	49	9.037	0.847	0.134
EI - Motivation	504.262	38	13.270	0.829	0.165
Leadership - EI	148.667	16	9.292	0.885	.136

Source: author's illustration based on AMOS calculations of data collected in 2013 and 2014

The full latent model does not show an adequate model fit, with all values outside of the suggested range of adequate model fit. The modification indices suggest many covariances, of which only the ones within the measurement models are drawn. Those amendments lead to a

better but still not adequate model fit (see table 3.10). The measurement model of emotional intelligence is then taken out to see the change of the model fit if only leadership and motivation are part of the model. The model fit increases notably but still does not reach adequate model fit. A similar effect is reached when calculating a model consisting only of leadership and emotional intelligence. The model composed only of emotional intelligence and motivation does not improve the model fit compared to the full latent model. Before making further amendments to the model, the moderating role of emotional intelligence between leadership and motivation shall be explored further.

In order to test the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the influence leadership has on motivation, a hierarchical regression analysis is conducted as suggested by Xiaqi et al. (Xiaqi et al. 2012, p. 263). The analysis consists of three steps. In the first step the control variables gender, age, and time in the hotel industry were entered. In the second step, the „main effects“, leadership and emotional intelligence were entered. In the third step, the product of leadership and emotional intelligence was entered to test the moderating effect, as suggested by Xiaqi et al. Table 3.11 represents the results of the analysis according to the steps.

Table 3.11 Hierarchical regression analysis

Independent variables	Dependent variable - Motivation		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
<i>Step 1</i>			
Gender	.220*	.710**	.722**
Age	.016	.027	.032
Time in industry	.050	.020	.024
R ²	.015		
<i>Step 2</i>			
Leadership (A)		-.075	-.993**
Emotional Intelligence (B)		.471**	-.411*
R ²		.145**	
R ²		.131**	
<i>Step 3</i>			
AxB			.300**
R ²			.210**
R ²			.064**

Note: Significant at * $p < 0.05$ and ** $p < 0.01$

Source: author's illustration based on SPSS calculations of data collected in 2013 and 2014

The control variables gender, age and time in the industry do not have an impact on the measured motivation, as they explain only 1.5% of the variance. The results show that emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between motivation and leadership ($\beta=0.300$, $p<0.01$). Leadership and emotional intelligence taken together explain 21% of the variance of motivation on a statistically significant level.

In order to test this moderating effect with structural equation modelling, first the model of leadership and motivation is pulled up again. The regression coefficient between leadership and motivation is estimated at 0.663 with $p=.007$. That means that a statistically significant relation between motivation and leadership exists. In the next step emotional intelligence is entered into the model and arrows are drawn from leadership to emotional intelligence and from emotional intelligence to motivation. If the relation between motivation and leadership is reducing when emotional intelligence is included in the model, the moderating effect of emotional intelligence can be seen as substantiated. After including emotional intelligence to the model, the regression coefficient between leadership and motivation decreases to -.717 and does no longer show statistical significance ($p>0.05$), while the relations between motivation and emotional intelligence ($\beta=.369$) and leadership and emotional intelligence ($\beta=.145$) are statistically significant.

Since the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the relation between leadership and motivation has been substantiated, the latent model with all three latent variables will be further pursued. In order to increase the model fit, other adjustments have to be made. Once all the suggested covariances have been drawn between the factors within the measurement models, the model fit is not adequate with a χ^2 / df ratio of 13.224, a CFI value of 0.733 and a RMSEA at 0.165. Since no covariances shall be drawn outside of measurement models and the latent model itself seems to be correct, the factors within the measurement models have to be checked if they might be changed in order to achieve a better model fit. The factor of intellectual stimulation is shown as not statistically significant ($p>0.05$) which is why this factor is removed from the model and the model recalculated, but the fit has not improved much ($\chi^2 / df = 13,851$; CFI = 0.739; RMSEA = 0.169). All other factors are statistically significant, so that the next logical step in order to increase the model fit would be to draw covariances outside of measurement models if they seem plausible. The covariance which is suggested to have the greatest influence on the discrepancy is between understanding emotions and motivation. It could be plausible that if a leader is especially good in

understanding emotions it would directly influence the motivation of employees, so the covariance is drawn and the model recalculated. The model fit increases slightly ($\chi^2 / df = 12,417$; CFI = 0.771; RMSEA = 0.159) but is still not satisfactory. Which is why the next plausible covariance with the suggested highest influence is drawn between inspirational motivation and motivation. Once again the model fit increases but not enough for a satisfactory model fit ($\chi^2 / df = 11,494$; CFI = 0.793; RMSEA = 0.153). So the procedure is repeated. After having repeated that process several times, covariances have been drawn outside the measurement models and insignificant covariances have been eliminated, the model fit has reached a satisfactory level at most indicators ($\chi^2 / df = 4,445$; CFI = 0.934; RMSEA = 0.087). All estimates kept in the model are statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). The model will be analysed and interpreted in more detail below.

3.3 Interpretation of Results

Interpretation of measurement model motivation

The measurement model for motivation was the first one to be analyzed and amended for a good model fit. The measurement model consists only of the latent variable motivation and the eight indicators which were drawn from literature and expert interviews to measure it.

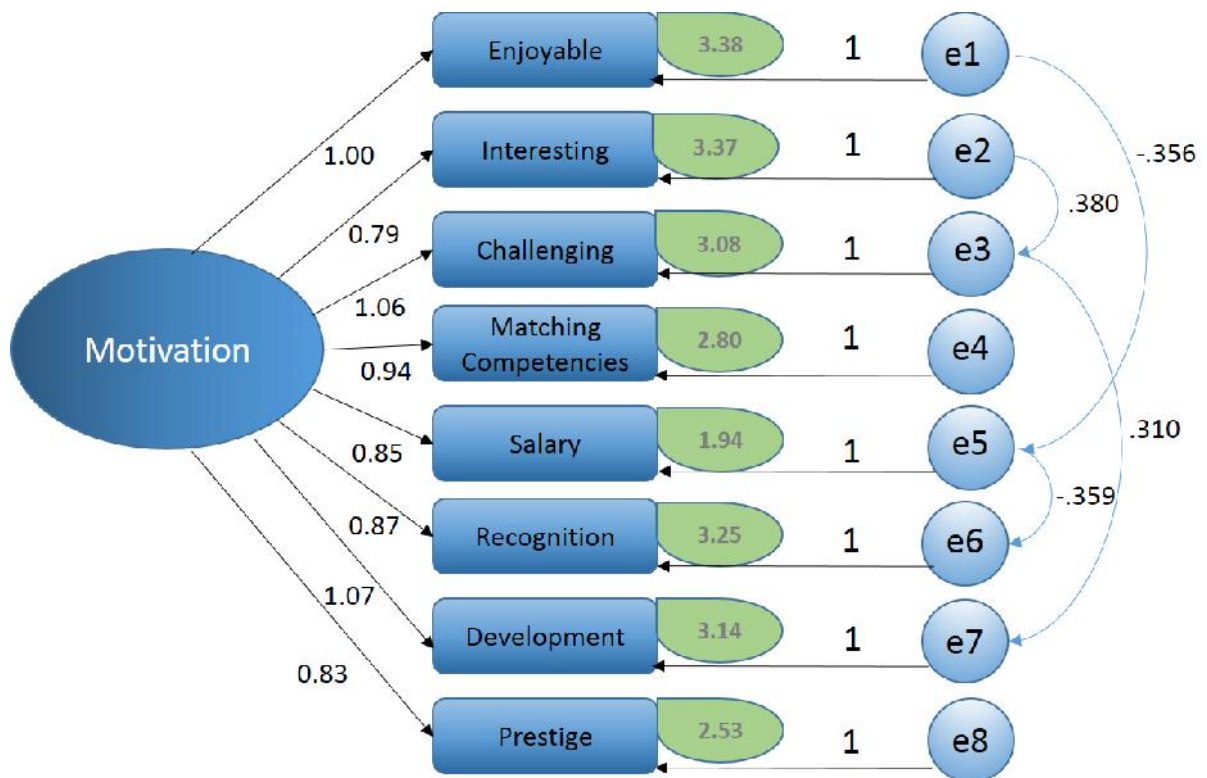


Figure 3.1 Measurement model motivation

Source: author's illustration based on AMOS calculations of data collected in 2013 and 2014

The values on the arrows from motivation to the different factors represent the regression weights of the factors. One randomly chosen factor (in this case enjoyable) has a set regression weight of one, in accordance to which the regression weights of the other factors will be calculated. Within the measurement model for motivation it is noticeable that all regression weights are in a narrow spread of values; furthermore they are all significant ($p < 0.01$). The lowest value is associated with interesting, meaning that from the drawn sample an interesting task has the lowest influence on motivation from all the intrinsic and extrinsic factors. This is surprising as it would have to be expected from the literature analysis and from further studies that an interesting task has a stronger influence on motivation. The fact that its influence on motivation seems to have decreased may be explained with the new interests of generation Y which was the most represented generation within the respondents. Generation Y is looking for a work-life-balance, which might lead to employees of this generation spending more free time with tasks they find interesting which is why the importance to have them at work has reduced. Furthermore, generation Y has been described to be looking for meaningful tasks which make a contribution to the society, it might be that there is a shift in the desired attribution of tasks. But one also has to keep in mind that an interesting task still does have a significant and relatively high influence on employee motivation, just not as strong as the other factors. The factors with the highest regression weights are challenging and development, meaning that if employees find their tasks challenging and feel that they have personal and professional development possibilities at their workplace, their motivation will rise. Those results are in accordance with the knowledge society which has been described before. Employees, especially those from generation Y, become more and more knowledgeable and are keen to use this knowledge, to challenge it and to learn more. One effect of this type of society are the flatter hierarchies which make higher positions and professional development more reachable than before. The values in the green bubbles are the estimated intercepts of the factors, which are the means of the y-values if x is zero, meaning that those values are not influenced by other factors. The possible values range from one to five, the highest ones were estimated for enjoyable and interesting. All estimated intercepts are statistically significant at a level $p < 0.01$. The fact that enjoyable and interesting did reach the highest scores does mean that employees from the hotel industry in Germany do rate their jobs as rather interesting and enjoyable. What is noticeable is that interesting is the factor which has the weakest influence on motivation – the factors with the highest influence on motivation, development and challenging, are still above the average of 2.5 but weaker than interesting and enjoyable. This leads to the conclusion that there is potential in the hotel industry in Germany to increase the motivation of its employees

by focusing even more on the factors challenging and development. The lowest value has been estimated for the salary, which is not surprising since the salaries in the hotel industry in Germany are low in comparison with the average salaries. In order to achieve a better model fit of the measurement model, suggested covariances have been drawn. The drawn covariances are all statistically significant ($p < 0.01$). What is interesting about those covariances is that salary shows negative covariances with enjoyable and recognition. Meaning that if the salary goes up, the employees perceive their job as less enjoyable and to get less recognition. The effect on how enjoyable the work is seen can be explained with the crowding out effect, described in the motivational theory part. If a person is doing a task because he or she enjoys it, which is for intrinsic reasons, and then starts to get extrinsic rewards for it, the person is likely to rate the task as less enjoyable. This negative effect is not likely to present a great threat for the hotel industry in Germany since the salaries are below the average pay and are not likely to meaningfully increase. But since the motivation in this industry is mainly intrinsic, this effect should be kept in mind, should the salaries increase. The second negative covariance was between salary and recognition. This effect might be explained with the fact that after a pay increase the leader feels that the work of the follower is already recognized and does show less recognition than before the pay increase. This is a crucial mistake, since recognition does have a significant influence on the motivation of employees which is slightly higher than the influence the salary has. The lack of recognition can therefore not be compensated by a higher salary. Positive covariances were found between interesting and challenging and challenging and development. Those covariances seem plausible; if an employee rates his or her work challenging he might see better chances for personal and professional development if the challenge is mastered. The covariance between challenging and interesting points in the direction that employees find their tasks as positively challenging, making them more interesting. Another possibility would have been that they find their tasks negatively challenging when the tasks become too difficult or stressful. The covariance between interesting and challenging has also an effect on the overall motivation of employees, since interesting was one of the highest rated factors while challenging had one of the strongest influences on motivation.

Interpretation measurement model leadership

The second measurement model which was analysed within the structural equation modelling was the measurement model for leadership, consisting of the latent variable leadership and the five factors measuring it, based on Bass' and Avolio's Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire.

The questionnaire has been used in various researches and has been developed and proofed scientifically.

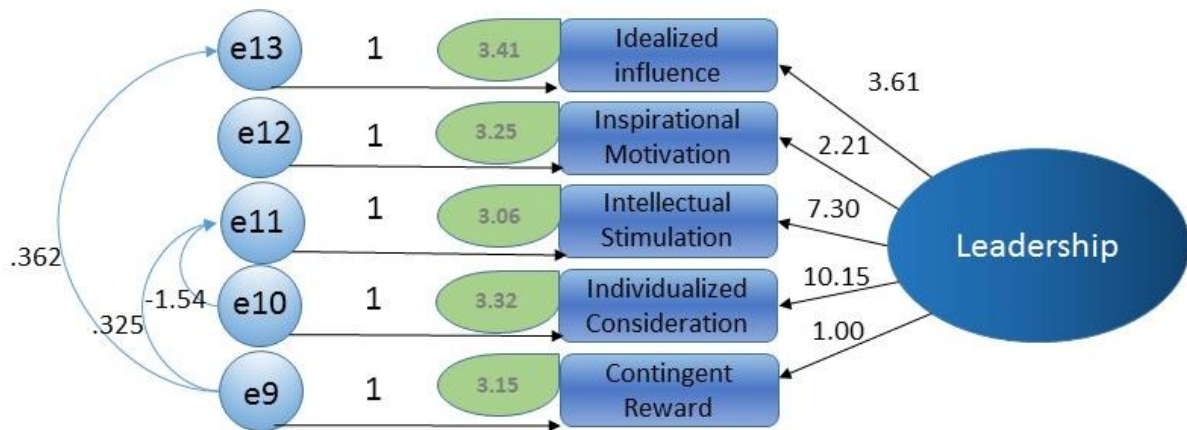


Figure 3.2 Measurement model leadership

Source: author's illustration based on AMOS calculation of data collected in 2013 and 2014

The five factors used to measure leadership were taken from the extensive research Bass and Aviola have done on leadership. They used all factors equally to measure transformative leadership, which is why the factor to standardize the regression weight on the latent variable had to be chosen randomly. This way, contingent reward was chosen and its influence on leadership standardized to one. This regression weight has the lowest value, with the second lowest value of inspirational motivation being more than the double. The in comparison extremely low regression weight of contingent reward can be explained with the basic population of the hotel industry, where salaries tend to be low and therefore the other parts of leadership play a more important role. Also noticeable are the extremely high regression weights of individual consideration and intellectual stimulation, which have the strongest influence on leadership. Their statistical significance ($p < 0.05$) is not as high as for the other three regression weights in this measurement model ($p < 0.01$) but still significant. The greatest influence on leadership has individualized consideration – its influence is ten times greater than the one from contingent reward. This might be explained with the overall development of leadership researches were the individual is gaining continuously on importance. The importance of the employee as an individual is best reflected in the factor individualized consideration were the leader is paying individual attention to the employee and customizing his or her behaviour in accordance with the strengths and weaknesses of the employee considered. The great importance of individual consideration for leadership as a whole concept can on the one hand be seen as a confirmation of the development process of leadership and leadership theories with the individual employee gaining importance which has been shown before. On the other hand it can be explained with the new values generation Y is

expecting from leaders and leadership and how they are likely to perform leadership. Both explanations point in the same direction that the importance of individual consideration is part of a current development of leadership over the past few years and is likely to continue, which is why individualized consideration is likely to gain further on importance. This might be seen as a risk for the hotel industry, were due to shift working times and the great span of control leaders in the hotel industry frequently have it is difficult for leaders to spend individual time with all of their employees. If a leader is responsible for a department which is working 24 hours a day, like the front desk or roomservice, he or she will most likely spend more time with the day staff than with the night staff who might barely be able to see the leader. So the importance of individualized consideration can and shall be seen at a warning sign towards the hotel industry to change those patterns in order to enable their leaders to spend individual time with their employees and consider them individually in order to leverage their leadership effectiveness. The high regression weight of intellectual stimulation can be explained with the knowledge society which is more knowledgeable than earlier societies whereas generation Y is better educated than the generations before them, which leads to the fact that employees want to use their knowledge and be intellectually stimulated. This may once again be seen as a risk for the hotel industry, were many tasks are repetitive and not per se intellectually stimulating. It is therefore a crucial part of leadership in the hotel industry to make sure that employees are able to use their knowledge on a daily basis. The potential of this stimulation is also shown in the intercepts, were intellectual stimulation has the lowest score with 3.06. This is not a particularly low value, as are all the intercepts for the leadership factor ranging between 3.06 and 3.41. When analysing those numbers one have to keep in mind that leadership has been measured double sided: leaders have rated their leadership style as have employees rated the leadership style of their leaders. The results might therefore be biased by the self-reporting answers of the leaders. The value of the intercept for intellectual stimulation cannot be declared as low, but is the lowest among five and has clearly potential to go up, especially keeping the immense influence on leadership in mind. The highest intercept has been estimated for idealized influence with 3.41. Idealized influence consists of leaders being role models, displaying desirable behaviour and influencing their followers to behave in the same way. The fact that leaders as well as their followers rate this factor as particularly high is a good sign in regards to the way leaders are seen by their followers, although the factor has the second lowest influence on leadership. As per the covariances, the only negative one was suggested between intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration at a notably high value of 1.537 and significant at $p < 0.01$ level. This means that when the intellectual stimulation goes up, the individualized consideration is dropping considerably. This might

either be explained with the same effect that has been mentioned between salary and recognition at the motivational model, were salary might be replacing recognition. In regards to the leadership model it might be that leaders see the provision of an intellectual stimulating task as individual consideration and might therefore reduce their efforts to individually consider the employee who has received the task. On the other hand the result might also be explained with the expectancy of the employees. It seems plausible that after receiving a particular task which they find as intellectually stimulating they feel that they do need special attention and care while working on that task. Even if the consideration of their leader stays at the same level they might perceive it as reduced since it would then no longer meet their expectations. Positive covariance were found between contingent reward and intellectual stimulation as well as contingent reward and idealized influence. Those covariances are also statistically significant ($p < 0.01$). The positive covariance between contingent reward and intellectual stimulation can be explained with the fact that the more intellectually stimulated an employee feels, the more likely he or she is to have a job with more than basic responsibilities and receives therefore above-average rewards. The positive covariance between contingent reward and idealized influence is harder to explain plausibly. One possible explanation is that employees who receive more rewards do rate their leader as higher personally which is most directly expressed in the idealized influence category. Another explanation could be that followers who rate their leader high as a person do perceive their rewards as higher than employees who rate their leader as not as high.

Interpretation measurement model emotional intelligence

The last of the three measurement models is the measurement model of emotional intelligence, consisting of the latent variable emotional intelligence as well as the four factors used to measure the variable, namely managing emotions, using emotions, perceiving emotions and understanding emotions. This measurement model has not been invented by the author but derived from the literature review and is based on the categories measured by the MSCEIT which was chosen as appropriate questionnaire to measure emotional intelligence.

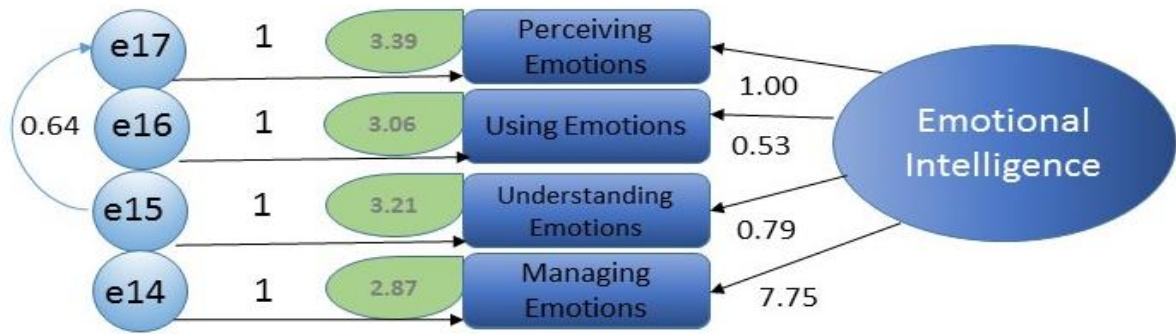


Figure 3.3 Measurement model Emotional Intelligence

Source: author's illustration based on AMOS calculations of data collected in 2013 and 2014

When analysing the measurement model for emotional intelligence, the first noticeable outcome of the calculated model are the values of the regression weights. The regression weight for perceiving emotions is randomly selected to be standardized at one, understanding emotions has a similar effect on emotional intelligence with a regression weight of 0.79 while using emotions has a reduced influence with a regression weight of 0.53. Impressive is the value for managing emotions which is estimated at 7.75. This effect is quite noticeable and has not been reported in other studies in this extreme so far, but might be explained with the hierarchical order of the factors of emotional intelligence. The process of emotional intelligence is, that emotions need to be perceived before one is able to understand them. Only if a person is able to perceive and understand emotions, he or she will be able to use emotions and – at an even higher stage – to manage them in his or her favour. Even though this is a possible explanation for the high regression weight of managing emotion, it is not completely satisfactory as all factors together form emotional intelligence which shall not be used as a synonym for managing emotions. In the presented model, the regression weight for managing emotions is reported as not statistically significant ($p < 0.05$), which is why the singular effect of this factor on emotional intelligence will not be explored in further detail. All other regression weights are statistically significant ($p < 0.01$), with using emotions at the lowest value of 0.53. This might be explained with the conscious and unconscious part of emotional intelligence. A person can perceive and understand emotions unconsciously, without thinking about them. In order to use emotions, conscious reflection about the perceived emotions and the effect they could be used for is needed. Since emotional intelligence is a relatively new concept and not yet really trained in Germany, it might be that the respondents are able to unconsciously perceive and understand emotions but lack the training to effectively use them. This hypothesis is substantiated by the intercepts which are higher for perceiving and understanding emotions than they are for using and managing emotions. Managing emotions

displays the lowest intercept which does point in the direction of the lack of training which is needed for most people in order to reach this stage of emotional intelligence. All intercepts are statistically significant ($p < 0.01$). As for the covariances, a positive and significant ($p < 0.01$) covariance has been detected between perceiving emotions and using emotions. This might be an effect of the above explained process that perceiving emotions forms the basis for the conscious dealing with them. It therefore seems plausible that the better a person is able to perceive emotions, the more likely he or she is to effectively use them.

Interpretation of complete model

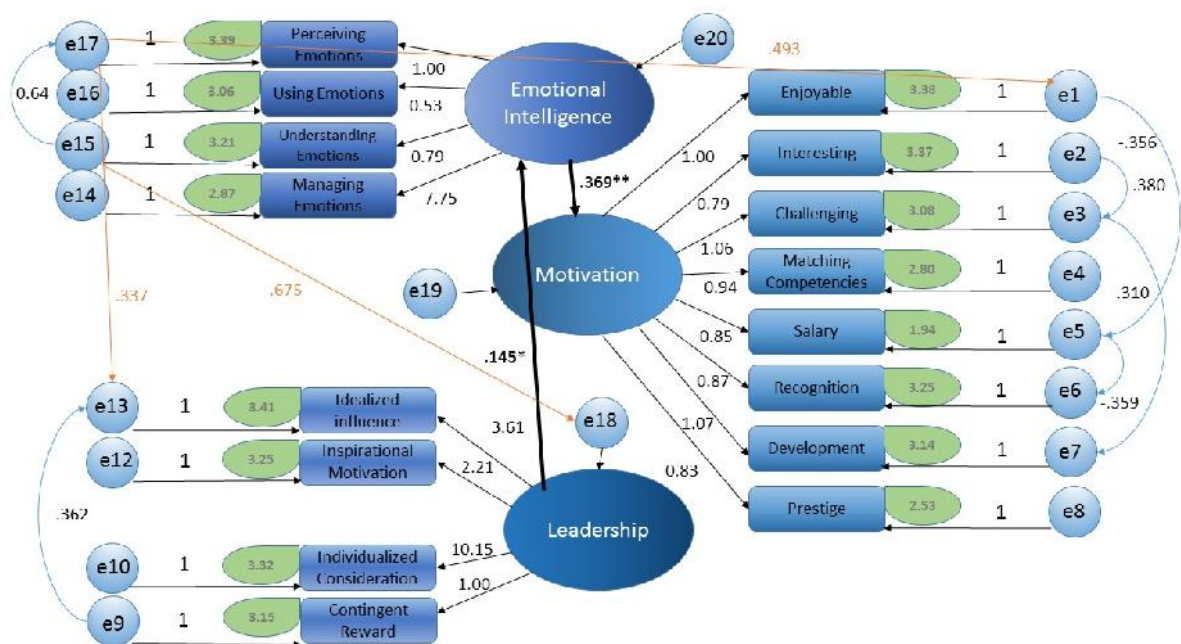


Figure 3.4 Full latent model

Source: author's illustration based on AMOS calculations of data collected in 2013 and 2014

After having interpreted the individual measurement models, all three measurement models are once again put together into the full latent model for interpretation. In the complete model only those covariances have been drawn outside the measurement models (red lines) which showed the highest significance ($p < 0.01$) and were plausibly explicable. This way the model stays more organized and is easier to be read and interpreted. The first noticeable difference in this model compared to the tentative model is that in the latent model the arrow between leadership and motivation is missing. As explained at the analysis of the moderating effect of emotional intelligence, once the path from leadership to motivation has been drawn over emotional intelligence, the direct path between leadership and motivation became insignificant ($p < 0.05$). This is a proof for the moderating effect emotional intelligence has on the relation between leadership and motivation. The path between leadership and emotional

intelligence shows a regression coefficient of $\beta=.145$ ($p<0.05$) and the path between emotional intelligence shows a regression coefficient of $\beta=.369$ ($p<0.01$). This means that leadership and emotional intelligence are positive related, if one goes up the other will follow in the same direction. The same is true for the relation between emotional intelligence and motivation. This way, leadership does have a positive effect on motivation which is strengthened by emotional intelligence. Surprising is the full mediating effect of emotional intelligence. Before emotional intelligence has been entered to the model, a direct and significant relation between leadership and motivation has been measured. After emotional intelligence has been entered into the model, the direct relation between leadership and motivation has dropped significantly and lost its significance ($p>0.05$). This effect has not been expected before and enhances the importance emotional intelligence plays for leadership and especially for motivation of employees through leadership. In other words, the lack of emotional intelligence cannot be compensated by leadership when it comes to motivation of employees, while a lack of leadership effectiveness can partially be compensated by emotional intelligence, since the path between motivation and emotional intelligence shows the greater coefficient at a higher significance. As became clear in the analysis of the emotional intelligence measurement model, there is still potential among the leaders in the hotel industry in Germany to improve their emotional intelligence skills especially when it comes to using and managing emotions. The need to improve those skills has been substantiated by the role they play in the relation between leadership and motivation. As seen in the hierarchical regression analysis, leadership and emotional intelligence explain 21% of the variance of employee motivation in the hotel industry so there are likely to be other factors which do have a significant influence on employee motivation and were not touched within this dissertation. Another aspect are the tested gender differences. Men and women were found to have no statistically significant difference when it comes to leadership, but women were found to be stronger at emotional intelligence. Before entering emotional intelligence to the model, both genders were therefore likely to have the same leadership effect on motivation. Since emotional intelligence has a direct impact on employee motivation, female leaders are likely to have a higher positive impact on the motivation of their employees than male leaders do. In regards to the covariances, one significant ($p<0.01$) positive covariance was found between understanding emotions and leadership. This covariance supposes that from all the factors measuring emotional intelligence, and therefore having an indirect path to leadership, understanding emotions has a direct and positive relation to leadership. That means that the better a leader is able to understand his own emotions and the emotions of his surroundings, the better he or she will be in his or her

leadership efforts. This relation seems plausible, since the better a person understands what another person is feeling, the more adequate he or she can react to those feelings and avoid the overwhelming of others. On the other hand, the better understanding a person has about what oneself is feeling and where those feelings are coming from, the more likely it becomes that the person will be able to control the feelings and appear more even-tempered which might be an advantage for leadership efforts. This effect once again proves the need for leaders in the hotel industry in Germany to be trained in emotional intelligence in order to increase their leadership effectiveness and have then – directly and indirectly – a higher influence on the motivation of their employees. The second positive and significant ($p < 0.01$) covariance has been estimated between perceiving emotions and idealized influence. Perceiving emotions has been described before as the basis of emotional intelligence, as the ability to perceive emotions through facial expressions, tones of voice or gesture. This ability varies among individuals. Even if a person is not trained in emotional intelligence, if he or she is able to perceive emotions he or she will react to them – consciously or unconsciously. Persons who are not able to perceive emotions lack the possibility to react to them what might make their reactions seem inadequate and cold. A person with the ability to perceive emotions is therefore more likely to be perceived as empathetic and understanding. Such a person is in the context of leadership more likely to be perceived as a trustworthy person which might serve as a role model and has therefore more ease to influence other people. This connection could serve as a plausible explanation for the covariance between perceiving emotions and idealized influence. The third positive and significant ($p < 0.01$) covariance was found between perceiving emotions and enjoyable as part of the measurement model of motivation. The meaning of perceiving emotions has been explained above. This covariance points in the direction that employees do perceive their daily tasks as more enjoyable if their leader is able to perceive emotions. Such a connection has been mentioned by the experts which were interviewed before the quantitative analysis. They stressed the importance of the leader as a person plays in how a follower perceives his or her daily tasks. That result might be explained if a leader is reacting adequately to emotions of followers and is therefore perceived as empathetic person, this empathy might be copied by the followers due to the exposed position of the leader which makes his emotions and actions more likely to be copied by non-leaders. This copying of behaviour which is judged positively might lead to a more positive work atmosphere which makes followers perceive their daily tasks as more enjoyable, even though those tasks may not have changed at all. All the relations discussed above lead to the conclusion that emotional intelligence seems to play a key role in the leadership and the motivational process and is likely to become even more important if the development over the

past few years with individuals gaining importance is continuing. The hotel industry in Germany should therefore consider emotional intelligence as one of the main factors for dealing with future challenges in the terms of leadership and motivation.

Interpretation of differences between managers and employees

As deduced from the literature review it is to be expected that a difference in motivation between managers and employees is visible, since managers are motivated more by intrinsic factors of their work, factors which employees find more in their private lives outside work. From the basic statistical analysis where the means of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation between managers and non-managers have been compared, it became clear that the overall motivation of managers is higher than the motivation of non-managers, a result which is in line with the analysed literature. Managers do name their job as main source for their self-fulfilment and have clear imaginations about their work situations – most of which are realized (Myers 1966, p. 50). Managers do score higher in intrinsic as well as in extrinsic motivation than non-managers, whereas the difference in extrinsic motivation is greater between managers and non-managers than it is in intrinsic motivation. Since according to existing literature (e.g. Park, Word 2012, p. 727), managers are supposedly more intrinsic motivated than extrinsic, it was to be expected that the difference between managers and non-managers in intrinsic motivation would have been greater. The result can be explained firstly with the hotel industry in Germany for which the hypothesis has been substantiated that employees in the hotel industry are rather intrinsic motivated. This might lead to a relatively high level of intrinsic motivation among employees in the hotel industry in Germany compared to other industries, which might reduce the difference between managers and non-managers. Furthermore, a parallel can be drawn to the results Park et al. found when comparing the motivation of public and non-profit managers. They found that "the nonprofit sector in comparison to both government and the for-profit sector have a much larger percentage of female workers. It is likely that the role women play in this sector enhances the ties between work life balance policies and motivation for nonprofit sector employees" (Park, Word 2012, p. 726). As seen from statistical data as well as from the respondents profile, the hotel industry in Germany has a large percentage of female workers as well, which might, according to Park, enhance the importance of work life balance and intrinsic motivation. Summarizing it can be stated that managers in the hotel industry in Germany show a greater motivation than non-managers for intrinsic as well as for extrinsic motivation. Due to the specifications of the hotel industry in Germany and the high intrinsic motivation among employees in this field, the difference between managers and non-managers is greater in regards to extrinsic motivation.

3.4 Results and interpretation of theses for defence

After the existing literature has been reviewed and analyzed, three theses for defence have been formulated which were describing the relations between motivation, leadership and emotional intelligence in the hotel industry in Germany. The first thesis for defence stated that employees in the hotel industry in Germany are mainly intrinsically motivated (T1). This hypothesis was not substantiated by the experts, who rated the intrinsic motivation equally high as the extrinsic motivation. To test this thesis, the median of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation were compared statistically. The median of the intrinsic motivational factors as well as for the intrinsic motivation overall was greater than for extrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivational factors. The ANOVA analysis showed that this difference is of statistical significance ($p < 0.01$). It was further deducted from the data that women display a statistically significant higher degree of intrinsic motivation than men do, a difference which could not be detected when it comes to extrinsic motivation. The explanation for the higher intrinsic than extrinsic motivation among hotel employees in Germany may therefore not lay in the hotel industry and its circumstances, but in the fact that most of the employees working in this industry are female. The reason for the high intrinsic motivation has not been tested within this doctoral thesis, since no control group has been tested from a different industry. Nevertheless the thesis T1 can be substantiated since the intrinsic motivation among employees of the hotel industry in Germany is higher than their extrinsic motivation.

The second thesis stated that the motivation of employees is positively related to the effectiveness of leadership of their leader (T2). This thesis for defence was supported by the experts in the interviews. In order to test this thesis, the structural equation model was drawn to estimate the effect leadership has on motivation. The influence of leadership on motivation was estimated based on the observed data with a statistically significant regression coefficient of 0.66 showing a positive relation between both concepts. The correlation between both variables which has been calculated in SPSS has been measured with a Spearman Rho of .102 with a two-tailed significance of $p < 0.05$. The Spearman correlation was chosen since some of the variables were in an ordinal scale. In the structural equation modelling the relation has become insignificant once emotional intelligence has been entered into the model. If one is looking only at the concepts of leadership and employee motivation, T2 can be seen as substantiated, nevertheless further analysis within this thesis has brought forward that the focus on those two concepts only might be too myopic and needs to be widened.

According to the third thesis for defence, emotional intelligence moderates the effect of leadership on motivation (T3). This thesis was also substantiated by the expert interviews, although not as clearly as T2 which might be due to the uncertainty about the concept of emotional intelligence. To test this thesis for defence, a hierarchical regression analysis has been performed, confirming the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the relation between leadership and motivation. To substantiate this outcome, emotional intelligence has been added as a third latent variable to the model with a new path going from leadership to motivation over emotional intelligence. With this path added, the direct path between leadership and motivation lost significance and became weaker while significant and positive paths were found between leadership and emotional intelligence and emotional intelligence and motivation. It can therefore be stated that emotional intelligence moderates the effect of leadership on motivation, which partially substantiates T3.

3.5 Relation of the current research to previous researches in the field

In order to test the external validity of this research and to understand its role in the current body of researches in the same and related fields, it is important to relate the results to comparable studies performed during the past few years. The results will be divided according to the theses for defence which were used, in order to make them more comparable with other studies. In regards to T1 concerning the motivation of employees in the hotel industry, no recent scientific studies for Germany were found, but some researches have been conducted in other parts of the world like the United States of America, Brazil and India. Kim et al. stated recently that due to increased competitions in the hotel industry, organizations place much emphasis on “service with a smile” to maximize service quality and customer satisfaction (Kim et al. 2012, p. 1029), which clearly states the importance of studies in the field. Crawford et al. found no significant difference between employees with goals versus employees without goals as related to intrinsic work satisfaction. Employees who are intrinsically satisfied with their work are not necessarily committed and invested in the organization. Intrinsically satisfied employees may not see the organizations’ success as their own (Crawford, Hubbard 2008, p. 122). This finding supports the results of the research at hand that not only managers who are usually stronger committed and invested in the organization are intrinsically motivated but that also employees do display a high intrinsic work satisfaction in the hotel industry. Sledge et al. also confirmed the hypothesis of intrinsic motivation with their findings on job satisfaction in the hotel industry in Brazil: almost every respondent showed contentment with the job that they held. ‘I like my job’ was a frequent response. Employees often arrived early and left late for their shifts in order to ensure full coverage by the staff. Cheerful attitudes and dedication to fulfill job requirements were

commonplace (Sledge et al. 2008, p. 1676). Umashankar et al. on the other hand criticized that in India not enough meaning is given to the daily tasks making it hard for the employees to find satisfaction from the job itself: not enough importance or meaning has been assigned to the tasks that are being performed by the industry. If managers cannot find meaning in what they do then the dishwasher (given the existing hierarchies) definitely does not find any meaning or pride in what he/she does (Umashankar, Kulkarni 2002, p. 46). Among the motivators, Brazilian employees showed the highest levels of satisfaction with the work itself at 84% (Sledge et al. 2008, p. 1679); whereas recognition did not seem to be an ultimate goal for the employees, but one that they accepted readily. In addition to individual acknowledgement of a job well done, respondents expressed fulfillment with teamwork and coworker collaboration (Sledge et al. 2008, p. 1676). This supports the finding that recognition does influence motivation of employees in the hotel industry, but is not one of the main motivators. According to Patkin, money is not the thing they desire most from their work. Instead, showing appreciation, respect, and even love are the three most important ways to make people feel great about their work (Patkin 2011, p. 40). This result confirms the found linkage between individual consideration and employee motivation. Hanna has researched on the motivation of Generation Y in the hotel industry in the United States and states that “to win over this generation and gain their support ... you need to draw a clear line between performance and the potential reward” (Hanna 2009, p. 2). This statement might explain why salary was part of the job satisfaction component which had a major influence on motivation and also shows the importance of recognition as the third component which might gain importance as more workers of Generation Y enter the hotel industry. Summarizing it can be stated that the findings on motivation of employees in the hotel industry in Germany were in line with previous findings of researches in this field.

The second thesis stated that leadership was positively related with employee motivation; this thesis for defence was substantiated by the findings of this research. A positive correlation between leadership and motivation has been confirmed by various studies over the past decades, e.g. (Belle 2013); (Lam, O'Higgins 2012), (Graen et al. 2006) and (McElroy 1982). Therefore the current finding can be seen in line with prior research, since no study was found where the effect of leadership on employee motivation was questioned and no linkage was found. To relate the current research to the existing body of scientific research, recent studies have been selected which were conducted from a different viewpoint in order to gain new ideas and insights which can enhance the current results. An Egyptian case study for example, which studied the effects of leadership on different soft skills, found that motivation (intrinsic

and extrinsic) and leadership support were significantly positively correlated to employee's job satisfaction (Abd-El-Salam et al. 2013, p. 44). In this study job satisfaction was not seen as part of motivation but as separate construct, the result showing a strong positive correlation to motivation supporting the labeling of component one within the measurement model of motivation as job satisfaction. Grant found that both, transformational leadership and beneficiary contact can motivate employees to perform more effectively (Grant 2012, p. 471). This findings were also supported by Belle who studied a randomized control group experiment with nurses working at a large public hospital in Italy and found that the performance effects of transformational leadership were greatly enhanced by two job design manipulations— beneficiary contact and self-persuasion interventions—both of which were intended to heighten the awareness of the participants that they were making a positive difference in other people's lives (Belle 2013, p. 127). Both authors had similar findings that the contact of the employee with the beneficiary of their work can enhance the effects of leadership and motivate employees to perform better. Since in the hotel industry the direct guest contact is given for most employees, it could be that this contact is enhancing the motivating effect of transformative leadership. Coget used Vroom's VIE – theory to test if the motivation of managers can have spill over effects on customer service representatives and found that managers' expectancy and instrumentality (but not valence) spilled over to customer service representatives, most likely through social learning and that the expectancy and instrumentality components of charismatic managers' motivation spilled over to customer service representatives more than those of non-charismatic managers (Coget 2011a, p. 84). Due to the differentiation of motivation with Vroom's model the findings are of great validity for the effect of leadership behavior on subordinate motivation. According to Coget, employees are likely to mirror the expectancies their leader has and the instruments he or she uses to achieve those goals but employees are unlikely to value the goals in exactly the same way as their leader does. The fact that the motivation of charismatic leaders is more likely to spill over to employees than the one of non-charismatic leaders strengthens the importance of idealized influence on employee motivation which was lower than expected in the current research. Henderson et al. found that transformational leadership is important for high quality care delivery, and behaviors of nurse leaders that are inspiring and reinforcing are instrumental in creating work practices that deliver optimum care. This is possible when processes are initiated that enable staff to feel greater confidence about discussing and making changes in the workplace. The initiative shows that using rewards in everyday practice can be powerful in shifting perceptions about the value of high standards, teamwork and recognition of work (Henderson et al. 2013, p. 24). Dennon also stresses the importance of recognition

and states that “recognition can be as simple as verbal praise or, if a significant milestone has been reached, a celebration. The supervisor should know in advance the options for rewarding team performance. The more opportunities for recognition, the better the outcomes” (Dennan, Richey 2012, p. 51). The importance of recognition has been shown at the current research with the great influence individual consideration had on employee motivation. Zhang et al. measured leadership according to the LMX model and studied the effect of leader and employee personality. They found a beneficial effect of leader-follower congruence in proactive personality on LMX and employees work outcomes. They also found that these effects of congruence on work outcomes were partially mediated by LMX quality in such a way that congruence was related to higher-quality LMX, which was in turn associated with higher levels of job satisfaction, affective commitment, and performance (Zhang et al. 2012, p. 123). The effects of the similarity or difference between leader and follower personalities on the effect of leadership were not studied at the research at hand but could be a topic for further research when looking for ways to leverage the effect of leadership on employee motivation. In regards to the motivation of generation Y, Millar et al. recently found that Millennials linked all of the stories they were told in the experiment to the closest working community instead of the company. It was an important source for motivation and demotivation in the stories. Most of the examples offered in relation to good motivation at work were connected to pleasant colleagues and a good work community (Millar et al. 2014, p. 577). This result could be a hint for the decreasing importance of the company itself as motivator (e.g. with prestige, name etc.) and a shift towards work community and leadership.

The third thesis for defence stated that emotional intelligence of the leader would have a moderating effect on the correlation between leadership and motivation. EI research using ability-based instruments has produced mixed results. Whereas some articles have shown EI and transformational leadership behavior to be positively related, others have reported non-significant results, and yet others have shown the relevance of EI to hinge on moderating factors such as leaders’ extroversion and emotional intensity (Walter et al. 2011, p. 48). Crumpton states that human motivation is intricately tied to emotions. Employee motivation directly impacts social achievement goals (including those on the personal side) and is correlated to emotional intelligence (Crumpton 2013, p. 144). Sadri found EI to be a key component of effective leadership and suggests that leaders high in EI are able to recognize, appraise, predict and manage emotions in a way that enables them to work with and motivate team members (Sadri 2012, p. 537). Meisler recently suggested a positive relationship between EI and job satisfaction (Meisler 2014, p. 287). Walter in his meta-analysis of various

studies on the relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence states that various studies have demonstrated ability-based EI tests to be positively related to managerial performance (Walter et al. 2011, p. 50). Lopez-Zafra et al. studied the correlations between leadership, emotional intelligence and gender differences and found that emotional clarity, emotional repair, and femininity were the most predictive factors for transformational leadership, accounting for 17% of the variance. This result shows that both, gender roles (femininity) and emotional intelligence (emotional clarity and emotional repair), are related to transformational leadership and predict the extent to which an individual is transformational in his or her leadership style (Lopez-Zafra et al. 2012, pp. 104–105). The authors used MLQ to measure transformational leadership but did use a different test for emotional intelligence, which is why the factors of emotional intelligence are not directly comparable to this dissertation. Lee et al. studied the effect of emotional intelligence on the effectiveness of project leaders and found that “emotional intelligence competencies have a direct influence on project performance at all times, irrespective of length of projects. It can be interpreted that emotionally stable behavior of project manager help team members to focus and concentrate on project tasks at hand without distractions caused by emotionally instability of leaders. In this regard, emotional intelligence competencies directly relates to project performance.” (Lee et al. 2013, p. 8) This study substantiates the hypothesis that emotional intelligence does have an influence on leadership effectiveness, but measures the performance of employees rather than their motivation. It could be an interesting topic for further research if the emotional stability of the leader which leads to a better focus and higher concentration of the team members does also lead to a higher motivation or if motivation is triggered by other leadership behaviors. An interesting result is stated in the research of Shahedul Quader who found that emotional intelligence has proved itself to be particularly associated to the transactional leadership style. The particularly strong relationship between three factors of EI - namely self-awareness, self-motivation and emotional mentoring - with the transactional approach has challenged the traditional association of EI with the transformational style (Shahedul Quader 2011, p. 14). Most other studies focused on the transformational leadership style, as did the author based on the literature review. The results of Shahedul Quader challenge this viewpoint and lead to the question if the relationship between emotional intelligence, leadership and motivation would have been different if leadership would have been viewed from the transactional point. Based on the available literature it seems hard to believe that transactional leadership does have a greater impact on the motivation of employees than transformational leadership which is more focused on the employee as an individual, but the results of Shahedul Quader have been seen as unlikely as well. Lindebaum

and Cartwright studied leadership from a transformational standpoint but used the trait approach to emotional intelligence and found that correlations between the project managers' trait EI self-ratings and other transformational leadership level ratings do not reach the level of statistical and practical significance typically desired (Lindebaum, Cartwright 2010, p. 1327). The overall picture emerging from the available researches on the relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence seems balanced. Published evidence contradicts extreme claims that EI has no value for leadership theory and practice. Clearly, academic researchers are frequently reporting significant relationships between EI and leadership emergence, behavior, and effectiveness. From this base, it seems reasonable to conclude that EI has the potential to contribute to the leadership field (Walter et al. 2011, p. 52).

Conclusions of empirical findings

The empirical findings mainly confirmed the theses for defence formulated in the first two chapters, that employees in the hotel industry are mainly intrinsically motivated and that their motivation is positively and strongly related to the leadership effectiveness of their leader. As per the role of emotional intelligence, the empirical findings brought a surprise: emotional intelligence strongly moderates the relation between leadership and motivation, meaning that when emotional intelligence is added to the model, the relation between leadership and motivation turns insignificant. The practical implication of this finding is that leaders do have an impact on the motivation of their employees, which is very strongly influenced by their emotional intelligence. If leaders lack the emotional intelligence, no matter what their professional expertise is, they will not be able to gain as much influence on the motivation of their followers as leaders with high emotional intelligence do. The theoretical implication of this finding is the new importance of the question if emotional intelligence shall be seen as a trait or as an ability. If emotional intelligence is seen as a trait that would mean that the trait theories of leadership could be useful after all, if e.g. emotional intelligence was one of those traits. Since researches on emotional intelligence have shown that emotional intelligence is growing with life experience, it seems more likely that emotional intelligence is an ability which can be achieved by training and experience. This definition would fit the theories of leadership following the trait theories – a leader with high emotional intelligence will be able to act situational adequate and to value an employee as an individual. Another conclusion of the empirical part is that male and female leaders did not differ much in their leadership abilities, but that women showed greater strength in the field of emotional intelligence. As discussed before, emotional intelligence is likely to add to leadership abilities. The conclusion would be that since women score higher in emotional intelligence they would score higher in

leadership as well. Since they don't, they must be weaker than their male counterparts in other parts of leadership. But since emotional intelligence has been proven to be the moderating effect between leadership and motivation, it is likely that female leaders do have more motivated employees than male leaders do.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Conclusions concerning employee motivation:

- 1.) Motivation is created through incentives within the perceived situation for the employee; this situation is hardly controllable in the hotel industry due to the external factor guest.
- 2.) Employees in the hotel industry in Germany are mainly intrinsically motivated.
- 3.) Females in the German hotel industry tend to have a higher intrinsic motivation than male employees do.
- 4.) Generation Y, as the current working generation, needs more flexibility in terms of work times and work place and more frequent and personalized feedback than earlier generations did.
- 5.) To influence the motivation of employees in the hotel industry in Germany, daily tasks have to be interesting, challenging and enjoyable to the employee and matching the employee's competencies.

Conclusions concerning leadership:

- 6.) Leadership theories focusing on the relation between leader and follower did prove to be the most effective ones.
- 7.) The evolution of research in the field of motivation as well as in the field of leadership have both increased the importance of the employee as an individual throughout the last decades. This trend also explains the introduction of emotional intelligence as a relatively new concept to the management sciences.
- 8.) Transformational leadership which functions without direct transaction, is of crucial importance for the motivation of employees within the hotel industry, since the direct transaction time between leaders and their followers is varying.
- 9.) Leadership is positively related to the motivation of employees in the hotel industry in Germany.
- 10.) In regards to the leadership abilities no significant difference was found between the genders.

Conclusions concerning emotional intelligence:

- 11.) The effect leadership has on motivation is strongly moderated by emotional intelligence, a fact that partly confirms the third thesis for defence.
- 12.) Emotions are created unconsciously and can be stronger than rational thoughts and therefore overrule rational behavior intentions.
- 13.) If emotions are not recognized and managed properly they may have a negative impact on the leadership situation.

14.) Emotional intelligence could enhance the effects of transformational leadership, as it allows the leader to gain deeper insights about the needs of his or her followers.

15.) The ability of a leader to understand emotions has a direct impact on his or her leadership abilities.

16.) The ability of a leader to perceive emotions is directly connected to how enjoyable his or her followers perceive their jobs.

17.) Female leaders scored significantly higher at emotional intelligence than did male leaders in the sample.

18.) Leadership and emotional intelligence explained 21% of the variance of motivation of the sample, with time in industry, gender and age taken as control factors. Other factors will have to be researched and considered, such as beneficiary contact.

Those conclusions lead to the following suggestions and practical implications:

Implications for managers in the hotel industry

1.) Generation Y, which represents the young workforce currently between 15 and 35 years old, does have an increased need for feedback and recognition.

2.) Managers should try to be a role model for their followers and display behaviour which they wish their followers to copy. This behaviour has the prerequisite that a manager is able to reflect and analyze his or her behaviour and changes it accordingly.

3.) Managers should focus on their emotional intelligence, either through official trainings or through internal reflection. They should always consider that their emotions and how they are handled have an impact on the team, its motivation and their leadership.

4.) Managers and leaders should be aware that employees, especially female employees, are mainly intrinsically motivated, try to keep that motivation up and avoid the crowding out effect.

5.) Managers should be aware of the potential lying in their behaviour on the motivation of employees and therefore analyse their behaviour and amend it where necessary to reach greater employee motivation which is crucial in the hotel industry.

Implications for employees in the hotel industry

1.) Young employees (aged 15 to 35) in the hotel industry should be aware that their needs in regards to working conditions, feedback, and flexibility differs from the needs of previous generations of employees and therefore communicate their needs clearly.

- 2.) They should reflect upon situations in which their motivation decreases due to interactions with guests and try to implement strategies to deal with such situations without losing motivation.
- 3.) Employees should take into account that they are – sometimes unconsciously – influenced by the emotions of their leader and analyze those emotions and their impact on their own feelings and behaviour.
- 4.) Employees should furthermore be aware of the fact that their emotions are often readable from their facial expressions, tone of voice and gestures and that their emotions may influence peers, guests and leaders.
- 5.) Therefore all employees should try to recognize and regulate their own emotions to attain better interactions with other individuals.

Implications for providers of hotel education

- 1.) Providers for hotel education should teach the influence that leadership has on motivation within the hotel industry to make leaders as well as employees aware of their mutual dependence which is often unconscious.
- 2.) Hotel education should furthermore focus on emotional intelligence, as it has a significant influence on the relation of leadership on motivation. Training on emotional intelligence should be included in hotel education on different levels, since it is crucial for employees as well as for leaders to know how to manage their emotions while being observed by followers and guests during the greater part of their workday.
- 3.) Training on emotional intelligence should also be offered to employees and leaders currently working at the hotel industry in order to provide a benefit for the current workforce as well as for the future one.
- 4.) When teaching emotional intelligence, the differences among males and females especially in regards to intrinsic motivation and emotional intelligence should be kept in mind.
- 5.) Providers of hotel education should also amend their training to cater to the needs of generation Y in regards to flexibility, technology and feedback.

Implications for further research

- 1.) Further research should be focusing on the leveraging effect of beneficiary contact on leadership and motivation in the hotel industry. This might be one of the factors other than leadership and emotional intelligence influencing employee motivation. Those other factors should be researched further in order to allow a better understanding and therewith better management of employee motivation.

- 2.) Research should be conducted on leadership factors which were left out at the model studied in this research, such as cultural differences existing in the hotel industry in Germany. In this context, differences between the culture of birth and the culture of education should be made.
- 3.) The effect of emotional intelligence on leadership and motivation could be studied in other countries to test the results on their generalizability.
- 4.) It should also be analysed if the mainly intrinsic motivation in the hotel industry in Germany is due to the fact that the industry does not offer many extrinsic incentives or due to the fact that females are per se more intrinsically motivated and overrepresented among the hotel employees. Other studies also suggest making a differentiation between transactional and transformational leadership, and studying the effects of both concepts, since surprising results might be found.
- 5.) It would also be advisable to substantiate or neglect the results of this study by repeating it with a larger, more representative sample.

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APPENDIX

Appendix 1 – Expert Interview Questionnaire English

Dimension	No.	Question
Motivation and Leadership	1	In your opinion, what are the main factors that influence the motivation of employees in the hotel industry?
	2	Can those factors be influenced by the leader? If yes, in which direction?
	3	To which percentage do you think the motivation of an employee is dependable on the behavior and attitude of his or her leader?
	4	Which abilities or traits does a leader need in your opinion in order to positively influence the motivation of his or her employees?
Leadership and Emotions	5	In your opinion, which role do emotions play in the leadership process?
	6	Are there certain areas of leadership which are more influenced by emotions than others?
	7	Under which circumstances will emotions have a positive or negative influence on the performance of the leader?
	8	How would you describe the role of Emotional Intelligence in the leadership process?
Conclusion	9	Do you think that Emotional Intelligence of the leader has an impact on the motivation of the employee?
	10	Is Emotional Intelligence necessary for a leader in order to influence his or her employees?

Appendix 2 – Expert Interview Questionnaire German

Dimension	Nr.	Frage
Motivation und Leadership	1	Was sind Ihrer Meinung nach die Haupteinflussfaktoren auf die Mitarbeitermotivation in der Hotellerie?
	2	Können diese Faktoren durch die Führungskraft beeinflusst werden? Wenn ja in welche Richtung?
	3	Was glauben Sie, zu welchem prozentualen Anteil hängt die Motivation eines Mitarbeiters von dem Verhalten und den Einstellungen seiner Führungskraft ab?
	4	Welche Fähigkeiten oder Eigenschaften benötigt eine Führungskraft Ihrer Meinung nach um die Motivation ihrer Mitarbeiter positiv zu beeinflussen.
Leadership und Emotionen	5	Welche Rolle spielen Emotionen Ihrer Meinung nach im Führungsprozess?
	6	Gibt es bestimmte Führungsbereiche die stärker von Emotionen beeinflusst werden als andere?
	7	Unter welchen Umständen haben Emotionen einen positiven oder negativen Einfluss auf die Leistung der Führungskraft?
	8	Wie würden Sie die Rolle von emotionaler Intelligenz im Führungsprozess beschreiben?
Zusammenfassung	9	Glauben Sie dass die emotionale Intelligenz der Führungskraft einen Einfluss auf die Motivation des Mitarbeiters hat?
	10	Ist emotionale Intelligenz für eine Führungskraft nötig um ihre Mitarbeiter zu beeinflussen?

Appendix 3 – Motivation Questionnaire German



0% ausgefüllt

Liebe Hotel-Mitarbeiter und Führungskräfte,

vielen Dank für Ihr Interesse und Ihre Bereitschaft, den vorliegenden Fragebogen auszufüllen. Es handelt sich um einen Fragebogen zum Thema Motivation und Führung in der Hotellerie. Die Daten werde ich im Rahmen meiner Doktorarbeit auswerten.

Die Befragung ist komplett anonym, persönliche Daten wie Geschlecht und Alter werden nur aus statistischen Gründen abgefragt. Die Bearbeitungszeit dauert etwa 20 - 30 Minuten.

Ich freue mich auf spannende Ergebnisse und stehe für Fragen jederzeit gerne zur Verfügung.

Herzliche Grüße
Barbara Wagner

Weiter

Befragung unterbrechen

Abbrechen und alle Angaben löschen

Barbara Wagner, Faculty of Management, Universität Lettlands, Riga

Zunächst benötigen wir bitte einige statistische Angaben von Ihnen.

1. Ich wüsste gerne, aus welcher Gegend Sie kommen.

Wie lauten die ersten beiden Ziffern Ihrer Postleitzahl?

Meine Postleitzahl beginnt mit den Ziffern xxx.

2. Welches Geschlecht haben Sie?

- weiblich
- männlich

3. Wie als sind Sie?

[Bitte auswählen]

4. Welches ist der höchste Bildungsabschluss, den Sie haben?

- noch Schüler
- Schule beendet ohne Abschluss
- Hauptschulabschluss/Volksschulabschluss
- Realschulabschluss (Mittlere Reife)
- Fachhochschulreife (Abschluss einer Fachoberschule)
- Abitur, allgemeine oder fachgebundene Hochschulreife (Gymnasium bzw. EOS)
- Hochschulabschluss
- anderer Schulabschluss:

5. In welcher Form sind Sie im Hotel beschäftigt?

- In Ausbildung
- Student/in
- Fachkraft
- Führungskraft

6. Wie lange arbeiten Sie schon in der Hotellerie?

Bitte wählen Sie die zutreffende Anzahl an Jahren (inkl. Ausbildung) aus.

- Weniger als ein Jahr
- Bis zu drei Jahren
- Bis zu sechs Jahren
- Bis zu neun Jahren
- Bis zu zwölf Jahren
- Bis zu zwanzig Jahren
- Über zwanzig Jahre

Es folgen einige Fragen zu Ihrer Motivation. Bitte beantworten Sie diese so gut wie möglich. Vertrauen Sie dabei auch auf Ihren ersten Impuls, was die Antwortmöglichkeiten angeht.

7. Wie angebracht finden Sie die Anerkennung die Sie bekommen?

Die Anerkennung die ich bekomme...

- Ich bekomme keine Anerkennung
- Ist weniger als ich verdiene
- Passt zu meiner Leistung
- Ist mehr als ich verdiene
- Ist nicht von meiner Leistung abhängig

8. Wie gerecht finden Sie die Anerkennung die Ihre Kollegen erhalten?

	zu viel Anerkennung					zu wenig Anerkennung
	5	4	3	2	1	
Meine Kollegen bekommen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

9. Welche Möglichkeiten der persönlichen Weiterentwicklung bietet Ihre Arbeit?

	trifft voll zu					trifft nicht zu	
	5	4	3	2	1		Weiß nicht
Bei der Arbeit kann ich....							
Meine Fähigkeiten weiter entwickeln	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Meine Persönlichkeit weiter entwickeln	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Wertvolle Lebenserfahrung sammeln	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

10. Wie sehr entsprechen die Entwicklungsmöglichkeiten bei der Arbeit Ihren persönlichen Zielen?

gar nicht voll und ganz

Die Entwicklungsmöglichkeiten entsprechen meinen Lebenszielen

11. Was halten Ihre Freunde und Ihre Familie von Ihrer Arbeit?

Bitte markieren Sie alle zutreffenden Aussagen.

Meine Freunde und meine Familie...

- Halten mich für verrückt, diese Arbeit zu machen
- Mögen meine Arbeit nicht besonders
- Finden meine Arbeit ganz normal
- Interessieren sich nicht für meine Arbeit
- Finden meine Arbeit spannend und interessant
- Sind neidisch auf meine Arbeit

12. Wie glaube Sie wird Ihre Tätigkeit in der Gesellschaft angesehen?

sehr angesehen gar nicht angesehen

5 4 3 2 1

Meine Tätigkeit ist

13. Wie wichtig ist Ihnen Ihr Gehalt?

14. Wie würden Sie Ihr Gehalt einschätzen?

Mein Gehalt ist...

Viel zu gering Gerade genug zum Leben Gerade noch ok Vollkommen ausreichend Wirklich motivierend

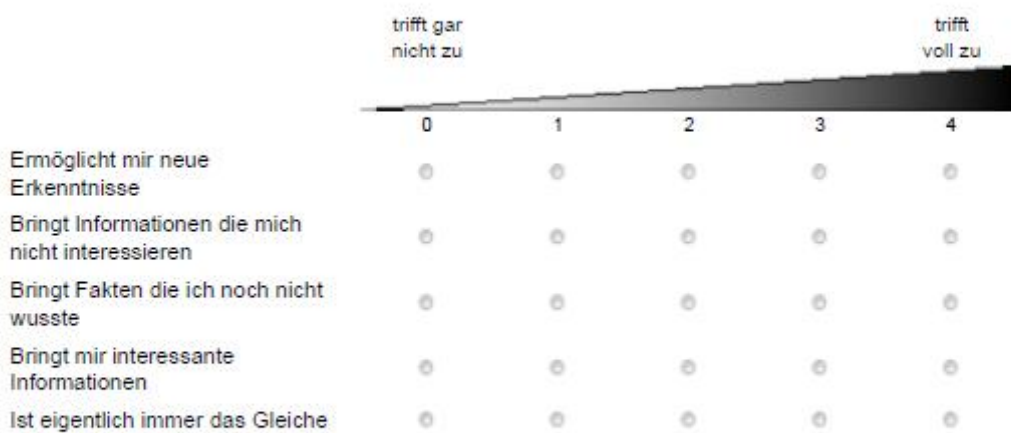
15. Wie würden Sie Ihre tägliche Arbeit am ehesten beschreiben?

Bitte markieren Sie alle Begriffe die Ihre tägliche Arbeit zutreffend beschreiben.

- Langweilig
- Angenehm
- Normal
- Macht Spaß
- Nervig
- Ganz ok

16. Wie interessant empfinden Sie Ihre tägliche Arbeit?

Meine tägliche Arbeit....

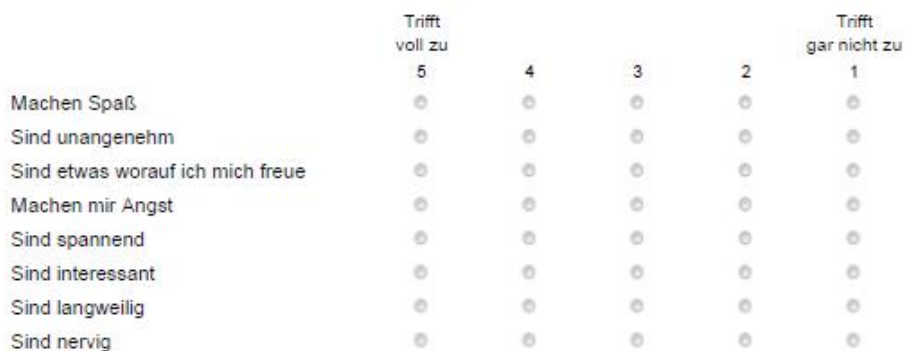


17. Wie sehr möchten Sie bei Aufgaben gefordert werden?

Ich bevorzuge Aufgaben, die

18. Wie würden Sie die Aufgaben beschreiben, die Sie im Rahmen Ihrer täglichen Arbeit erfüllen müssen?

Die meisten meiner täglichen Aufgaben...



19. Wie sehr fordert Ihre Arbeit Sie?

Bei der Arbeit...

- Nutze ich bestehendes Wissen immer auf die selbe Art
- Muss ich bestehendes Wissen immer neu anwenden
- Kombiniere ich bestehendes Wissen mit neuen Aspekten
- Erweitere ich mein Wissen ständig
- Muss ich mich oft in Themen komplett neu einarbeiten

20. Wie würden Sie Ihre Fähigkeiten und Fertigkeiten in Bezug auf Ihre Aufgabenstellung einschätzen?

	bin ich richtig gut 0	bin ich ziemlich gut 1	bin ich durschnittlich 2	bin ich nicht so gut 3	bin ich eher schlecht 4
In meinen täglichen Aufgaben...	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

21. Wie viel von den nötigen Fähigkeiten für Ihre Aufgabe besitzen Sie schon?

Bitte schätzen Sie sich selbst ein.

Muss ich

beherrsche ich

Appendix 4 – Motivation Questionnaire English

Dear hotel employees and leaders,

Thank you for your interest and willingness to complete the questionnaire at hand. This questionnaire is about motivation and leadership in the hotel industry. I will analyze the collected data within my dissertation.

The questionnaire is anonymous, personal data such as gender and age are just asked for statistical reasons. The answering time will be approximately 20-30 minutes.

I am looking forward to interesting results and am happily available for any further questions.

Best regards
Barbara Wagner

First I need some statistical information from you.

1. I would like to know from which region you are.
What are the first two digits of your zip code?
My zip code starts with the digits __ xxx

2. What is your gender?
 female
 male

3. How old are you?
 Please chose ___

4. What is your highest educational achievement?
 still student
 finished school without diploma
 certificate of secondary education
 General certificate
 polytechnic degree
 university-entrance diploma
 university diploma (including Masters and Doctors)

5. How are you currently employed?
 in apprenticeship
 student
 employee
 leader

6. How long are you working in the hotel industry?
 Please chose the appropriate number of years (incl. apprenticeship).
 less than a year
 more than one up to three years
 more than three up to six years
 more than six up to nine years
 more than nine up to twelve years
 more than twelve up to twenty years
 more than twenty years

Some questions about your motivation are following. Please answer them as good as possible. Also trust your first impulse in regards to the answering possibilities.

7. How adequate do you find the recognition you receive?
 The recognition I receive....
 I do not receive any recognition
 is less than I deserve
 is adequate for my performance
 is more than I deserve
 is independent from my performance

8. How adequate do you find the recognition your colleagues receive?
 My colleagues receive....
 too much recognition 1 2 3 4 5 too little recognition

9. Which possibilities for personal development does your work offer?
 At work I can... Totally agree 1 2 3 4 5 do not agree do not know
 Develop my skills
 Develop my personality
 Gain precious life experience
 Not develop myself
 I do not have time to
 use development possibilities
10. To which degree do the development possibilities at work correlate to your personal goals?
 The development possibilities not at all 1 2 3 4 5 completely
 correlate to my life goals
11. What do your friends and family think of your work?
 Please mark all applicable answers.
- My friends and family...
 think I am crazy for doing this work
 do not like my work very much
 think my work is pretty normal
 are not interested in my work
 think my work is exciting and interesting
 are jealous for my work
12. How do you think your work is seen in the society?
 My work is highly prestigious 1 2 3 4 5 not prestigious
13. How important is your salary for you?
 My salary is unimportant 1 2 3 4 5 very important
14. What do you think about your salary?
 My salary is
 much too low just enough to survive just ok completely enough motivating
15. How would you describe your daily work?
 Please mark all terms which adequately describe your daily work:
 boring
 pleasant
 normal
 enjoyable
 innerving
 ok
16. How interesting do you think your work?
 My daily work... Totally agree 1 2 3 4 5 do not agree at all
 Offers new insights
 Gives me information I am not interested in
 Provides new facts I did not now about
 Gives me interesting information
 Is the same every day

17. How much would you like to be challenged at tasks?
I prefer tasks which are....
Completely new to me Nearly new to me Combine the known and unknown Do not need much effort I could solve in sleep
18. How would you describe the tasks you have to perform during your daily work?
Most of my daily tasks are Completely agree 1 2 3 4 5 do not agree
Enjoyable
Unpleasant
Something I look forward to
Frightening
Exciting
Interesting
Boring
Innervating
19. How much does your work challenge you?
At work...
___ I use existing knowledge in the same way every time
___ I have to use existing knowledge differently every time
___ I combine existing knowledge with new aspects
___ I expand my knowledge continuously
___ I have to work myself into new topics frequently
20. How would you estimate your skills and your knowledge in regard to your tasks?
At my daily tasks...
I am really good I am pretty good I am average I am not so good I am bad
21. How much of the necessary skills for your task do you already have?
Please rank yourself.
The tasks needed for my job I still have to learn 1 2 3 4 5 I master completely

Appendix 5 – examples leadership questionnaire

Due to copyright reasons, only five items of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire shall be reproduced.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

1.	I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts.....	0	1	2	3	4
2.	I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.....	0	1	2	3	4
3.	I fail to interfere until problems become serious.....	0	1	2	3	4
4.	I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards.....	0	1	2	3	4
5.	I avoid getting involved when important issues arise.....	0	1	2	3	4

Appendix 6 – examples emotional intelligence questionnaire

Due to copyright reasons, a maximum of six items of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test can be published in this dissertation.



Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test

Section A B C D E F G H
Exit

INSTRUCTIONS: Select the best alternative for each of these questions.

9. When Steve discovered that several students were cheating on exams, he thought it was morally wrong. When he told the teacher, the teacher said there was nothing he could do about it. Steve planned to pursue the matter with a school administrator because he felt _____ by what had happened.


<input type="radio"/> 1	a. mollified
<input type="radio"/> 2	b. outraged
<input type="radio"/> 3	c. despaired
<input type="radio"/> 4	d. depressed
<input type="radio"/> 5	e. addoned

10. Matt had been hurt by one of his closest friends and was feeling angry. Matt told his friend how he felt, and when the friend did it again, Matt became _____.

<input type="radio"/> 1	a. angry
<input type="radio"/> 2	b. fearful
<input type="radio"/> 3	c. very annoyed
<input type="radio"/> 4	d. worried
<input type="radio"/> 5	e. enraged

Previous Item
Next Item

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Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test

Section A B C D E F G H I
Exit



INSTRUCTIONS: How much is each feeling below expressed by this picture? (Please select a response for each item.)


1. Happiness

	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

2. Sadness

	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Previous Item
Next Item



Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test

Section A B C D E F G H
Exit

INSTRUCTIONS: For each item below, you are asked to imagine feeling a certain way. Answer as best as you can, even if you are unable to imagine the feeling.

1. Imagine feeling guilty that you forgot to visit a close friend who has a serious illness. In the middle of the day, you realize you completely forgot to visit your friend at the hospital. How much is the feeling of guilt like each of the following?

	Not At All			Very Much		
a. cold	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	
b. blue	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	
c. saved	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	

2. Imagine feeling content on a wonderful day, with terrific news about your job and family. How much is the feeling of contentment like each of the following sensations?

a. warm	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5
b. purple	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5
c. salty	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5

Previous Item
Next Item

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Appendix 7 – transcript expert interview A

1. In your opinion, what are the main factors that influence the motivation of employees?

Desire to make a contribution (do a good job), recognition for a job well done, rewards (incl compensation), advancement opportunities, a sense of shared commitment

2. Can those factors be influenced by the leader? If yes, in which direction?

Yes, all of them can be influenced both positively and negatively

3. To which percentage do you think the motivation of an employee is dependable on the behavior and attitude of his or her leader?

It will vary across individuals—my estimate would be from 10% to 50%.

4. Which abilities or traits does a leader need in your opinion in order to positively influence the motivation of his or her employees?

Honesty, integrity, passion, enthusiasm, self-assured, open to questions & new ideas, interest in & commitment to team building, not a narcissist

5. In your opinion, which role do emotions play in the leadership process?

They can be positive or negative. Positive if they come through in excitement & enthusiasm. Negative if the person is weak-willed (i.e., the opposite of self-assured). If they take focus away from doing one's job (which is often the case), they are definitely negative.

6. Are there certain areas of leadership which are more influenced by emotions than others?

The team-orientation versus narcissism dichotomy would be one that could be strongly affected, I think.

7. Under which circumstances will emotions have a positive or negative influence on the performance of the leader?

Everyone has triggers that make bring on emotions. Being aware of the triggers is important, but also how to channel the emotions. For example, sadness could be viewed negatively, but channeled correctly could end up being positive. Ideally, the emotions don't undermine the items in Q4, but used to support them.

8. How would you describe the role of Emotional Intelligence in the leadership process?

NOTE: For Questions 8-10 I'm using the definition of Emotional Intelligence from Wikipedia: "**Emotional intelligence (EI)** is the ability to identify, assess, and control the emotions of oneself, of others, and of groups. It can be divided into *ability EI* and *trait EI*".

Emotional Intelligence has a very important role. First, one needs to know one's own emotions (see Q7). Second, the awareness of what's happening to one's employees is really important if one hopes to lead them—are the emotions a result of the boss' actions, external causes, or just internal to the employee?

9. Do you think that Emotional Intelligence of the leader has an impact on the motivation of the employee?

Definitely. We can all think of clueless bosses, who have no idea what's going on with their employees. If you review the things I answered in Q1, Emotional Intelligence is necessary to make all of them happen.

10. Is Emotional Intelligence necessary for a leader to influence his or her employees?

Since it would seem that Emotional Intelligence would be measured on a sliding scale (from low to high) rather than yes/no, I would say higher Emotional Intelligence would yield more influence. Personally I'd much rather work for someone with high Emotional Intelligence, everything else equal.

Appendix 8 – transcript expert interview B

1. In your opinion, what are the main factors that influence the motivation of employees?

Vergütung, Arbeitsklima, Gäste und Rahmenbedingungen generell

Compensation, work climate, guests and frame conditions in general

2. Can those factors be influenced by the leader? If yes, in which direction?

Ja, zu einem gewissen Teile. Führung ist wichtig für Arbeitsklima im Unternehmen. Aber auch Gästearrichtung.

Yes, to a certain amount. Leadership is important for the work climate in an organization. But the guest orientation of the hotel is important as well.

3. To which percentage do you think the motivation of an employee is dependable on the behavior and attitude of his or her leader?

Sehr unterschiedlich, wichtige Rolle. Gastronomiepreise in D niedriger als in anderen Ländern, aber höhere Kosten. Höheres Preisniveau wäre wünschenswert – um bessere Bezahlung zu ermöglichen. Wareneinsatz 7% MwSt. Verkaufspreise 19%. „Billigland“ was Lebensmittel angeht.

That differs a lot, in general it plays an important role. But one shall not underestimate the importance of compensation. The prices in the hospitality industry in Germany are lower than in other countries while the costs especially for the work force are higher. A higher price level would be desirable to enable a better compensation.

4. Which abilities or traits does a leader need in your opinion in order to positively influence the motivation of his or her employees?

Freude an der Arbeit vermitteln, Begeistern für Produkt und Angebot, Gerechtigkeit, Teil des Angebotes sein, Offenheit

To convey joy from the labour, to enthuse for the product and the offer, fairness, being part of the offer, openness

5. In your opinion, which role do emotions play in the leadership process?

Emotionen spielen schon eine Rolle. Wenn es gelingt, emotional jemanden mitzunehmen stärkt das die Loyalität und die Motivation.

Emotions do play a role. When it is possible to take somebody along emotionally the loyalty and the motivation will be enforced.

6. Are there certain areas of leadership which are more influenced by emotions than others?

In allen Bereichen wichtig – Differenzierung schwierig.

Emotions are important in all areas – a differentiation is difficult.

7. Under which circumstances will emotions have a positive or negative influence on the performance of the leader?

Ja. Wenn man sehr positiv mit etwas verbunden ist, begeistert ist, macht man alles viel besser. Wenn man positiv emotional ist bekommt man Dinge besser geregelt, Gelassenheit, man darf nicht zu sehr begeistert sein. Man darf Dinge nicht zu kritisch, nicht zu kompliziert sehen.

Yes. If one is attached positively to something, enthusiastic about something, everything will be much better. If one is positively emotional it is easier to sort out things and to be relaxed. But one shall not be over-enthusiastic. One shall not see things too critically or too complicated.

8. How would you describe the role of Emotional Intelligence in the leadership process?

Sehr wichtig im Führungsbereich. Für eine Organisation insgesamt eine tragende Rolle – gerade in Deutschland das immer wieder in Trübsinn verfällt. Schlüsselrolle – gelingt nicht immer. Beobachtung bei anderen.

Very important in the area of leadership. For an organisation in general it plays an important role – especially in Germany which falls into melancholy time after time. Emotional intelligence has a key role, one does not succeed with it all the times but one shall observe it in others.

9. Do you think that Emotional Intelligence of the leader has an impact on the motivation of the employee?

Grundsätzlich ja. Wobei damit nicht alles gelöst ist. Gibt auch andere Dinge manchmal muss man jemanden ganz klar was sagen, Empörung zeigen. Wenn man sehr positiv und sehr offen ist können sich andere Dinge entwickeln, die man bremsen muss. Man muss Interessengeleitet sein sehen – das ist gut und normal. Andere Interessen wirken sich auch in der Arbeitsleistung auswirkt.

In general yes. But that does not solve everything. There are other things as well and sometimes they call for a clear word or a displayed outrage. If one is very positive and very open, other things can develop which one should slow down. One has to be driven by interests – this is good and normal. But other interests do have an impact on the performance as well.

10. Is Emotional Intelligence necessary for a leader to influence his or her employees?

Wie man als Führungskraft wahrgenommen wird hängt auch von der fachlichen Seite ab, ob man Erfolge erzielt. Es hängt viel davon ab wie die Führungskraft gesehen wird.

The way how somebody is perceived as a leader depends on the professional side as well, if somebody is succeeding. A lot depends on how one is seen as a leader.

Appendix 9 – transcript expert interview C

1. In your opinion, what are the main factors that influence the motivation of employees?

Karrierechancen & abwechslungsreiche Arbeit

Career opportunities and diversified tasks

2. Can those factors be influenced by the leader? If yes, in which direction?

Ganz stark sogar, wenn nicht klappt es überhaupt nicht. Indem man den Mitarbeiter fördert und leitet und Ziele vereinbart die auf Erreichung kontrolliert wurden.

Very much so, if not it would not work out. A leader has to develop and lead his employees and agree on goals of which the achievement has to be controlled.

3. To which percentage do you think the motivation of an employee is dependable on the behavior and attitude of his or her leader?

60%

4. Which abilities or traits does a leader need in your opinion in order to positively influence the motivation of his or her employees?

Muss selbst führen können – das muss die Führungskraft gelernt haben. Die Wenigsten können das von Haus aus. Die Führungskraft muss motiviert sein und selbst gut geführt werden.

A leader needs to know how to lead – that is something a leader must have learned. Only a few know it intuitively. A leader needs to be motivated and to have a good leader himself.

5. In your opinion, which role do emotions play in the leadership process?

Eine Große – sollten aber keine Rolle spielen, aber wir sind halt alles Menschen. Emotionen gehören nicht in die Arbeit. Emotionslos wäre vieles viel einfacher – zumindest fast ohne Emotionen.

A big one – but they shouldn't play a role, but we are all just humans. Emotions do not belong at the work place. Without emotions many things would be much easier – at least nearly without emotions.

6. Are there certain areas of leadership which are more influenced by emotions than others?

Ja. Die Motivation. Die Leistungsfähigkeit. Die Genauigkeit.

Yes. The motivation. The performance. The accuracy.

7. Under which circumstances will emotions have a positive or negative influence on the performance of the leader?

Kann nicht pauschalisieren, können sowohl positiven als auch negativen Einfluss haben. Wenn die Führungskraft etwas angenehmes erlebt hat, dann sind die Emotionen hilfreich. Wenn etwas Negatives passiert ist, strahlt man eine negative Aura aus und das ist extrem negativ. Und das passiert in der Hotellerie fast nur da Kritik das Lob überwiegt.

One cannot generalize that topic, emotions can have a positive as well as a negative influence. When the leader has experienced something pleasant his emotions will be helpful. If something negative happened, he will radiate a negative aura and this is extremely negative. And that happens a lot in the hospitality industry since there is more critique than praise.

8. How would you describe the role of Emotional Intelligence in the leadership process?

Ja, definitive. Kommt immer mehr. Es gibt schon Firmen die den Test machen – in Deutschland verboten.

Emotional Intelligence plays an important role in the leadership process and is gaining on importance. There are already companies using such tests but they are prohibited in Germany.

9. Do you think that Emotional Intelligence of the leader has an impact on the motivation of the employee?

Ja, absolut. Wenn ich emotional intelligent bin kann ich die Mitarbeiter beeinflussen.

Yes, absolutely. If I am emotionally intelligent I can influence the employees.

10. Is Emotional Intelligence necessary for a leader to influence his or her employees?

Geht auch ohne, über Emotionale Intelligenz wird erst seit kurzem gesprochen – früher ging das auch. Wenn man es hat ist es definitiv leichter.

It works without Emotional Intelligence as well. Emotional Intelligence is only discussed for a short period of time – in earlier times the influence of employees worked as well. But it is definitely easier if one is emotionally intelligent.

Appendix 10 – transcript expert interview D

1. In your opinion, what are the main factors that influence the motivation of employees in the hospitality industry?

Im Prinzip verhält es sich hierbei wie beim Beschwerdehandling. Der wichtigste Punkt ist, dass die Mitarbeiter Beachtung bekommen und Ihre Anliegen und Sorgen ernst genommen werden. Sie müssen sehen, dass Ihre Arbeit geschätzt wird. Fehler dürfen nicht als Katastrophen behandelt werden, sondern als Chance für Trainings. Des Weiteren ist es wichtig, dass die MA gefördert werden. Sie müssen sehen, dass es sich lohnt, Leistung zu erbringen. Interne Beförderungen und Teilnahme an externen Trainings sind da gute Tools. Natürlich hilft auch immer ein finanzieller Anreiz, idealerweise etwas, wovon auch das Hotel profitieren kann (Bsp. Upsell- Programme)

In general it is like the handling of complaints. The most important point is to acknowledge the employee and to take his or her requests and concerns seriously. They have to see that their work is valued. Mistakes shall not be treated as catastrophes but be seen as chances for training. Furthermore it is important to develop the employees. They have to see that it is worth the effort to deliver a good performance. Internal promotions and external trainings are good tools for that. Naturally a monetary incentive is always helpful, ideally something the hotel profits from like upselling-programmes.

2. Can those factors be influenced by the leader? If yes, in which direction?

Natürlich, un zwar durch die Umsetzung der beschriebenen Punkte!

Of course, by realizing the above mentioned points.

3. To which percentage do you think the motivation of an employee is dependable on the behavior and attitude of his or her leader?

Ich teile das gerne in 3 Schritten ein: 60 / 30 / 10. Zu 60% hat der Teamleader/ Abteilungsleiter es in der Hand, dass sein Team motiviert ist, zu 30 % liegt es an innerbetrieblichen Gegebenheiten und zu 10 % an den Kollegen (ich setze Punkt 3 sehr gering an, da dies auch zum Großteil durch Punkt 1 & 2 beeinflusst wird).

I like to divide that in three Steps: 60 / 30 / 10. To 60% the teamleader / head of department influences the motivation of the team. 30% depend on the intra-company circumstances and 10% on the colleagues (I put point 3 pretty low because it is mainly influenced by point 1 and 2)

4. Which abilities or traits does a leader need in your opinion in order to positively influence the motivation of his or her employees?

Relativ einfach: Geduld, Empathie, Durchsetzungsfähigkeit. Er muss Rückgrat haben und entscheidungsfreudig sein. Er muss auch den Mut haben, sich gegen Kollegen und Vorgesetzte zu stellen, um das Team zu schützen, bzw Interessen des Teams zu vertreten.

Relatively simple: patience, empathy, assertiveness. A leader needs to possess a backbone and be willing to make decisions. He must have the courage to place himself against colleagues or subordinates to protect the team or to represent the interests of the team.

5. In your opinion, which role do emotions play in the leadership process?

Emotionen spielen eine große Rolle, damit sich die MA im Team wohl fühlen und sich mit dem Hotel identifizieren können. Dem Manager fällt diesbezüglich eine wichtige Aufgabe zu. Er stellt das Team zusammen und vermittelt die Werte, CI, CB. Durch Emotionen werden MA an das Produkt, das Konzept und an die Kollegen gebunden.

Emotions play an important role to make the employees feel good within the team and to identify themselves with the hotel. The manager has an important task in this regards. He puts the team together and communicates values, corporate identity, corporate behaviour. Through emotions employees can be bound to the product, the concept and the colleagues.

6. Are there certain areas of leadership which are more influenced by emotions than others?

Wie beschrieben, durch das Erzeugen von Emotionen habe ich die Chance, die MA zu binden. Jedoch sollten Entscheidungen, welche die betrieblichen Abläufe und Aufgaben betreffen, frei von jeglicher Emotionalität sein. Diesbezüglich kann man auch die Standards unterscheiden in Signatures und SOP´s. Signatures betreffen das äußere Erscheinen, die Attitude und die Umsetzung dessen ist nur durch das Erzeugen von Emotionen zu erreichen. SOP´s hingegen sorgen für wesentliche buchhalterische Abläufe, sie schaffen die Rahmenbedingungen, in denen sich der MA bewegen kann und soll. Dies ist ein ganz nüchterner Prozess, in dem es um sture Umsetzung geht.

As described, through the building of emotions I do have the chance to bind the employees to the company. But decisions regarding organizational processes or tasks should be free of every emotion. In this regard one can distinguish the standards into signatures and standard operating procedures (SOPs). Signature relate to the external appearance and the attitude and their implementation is only reached through emotions. SOPs on the hand make sure that important processes are kept in line, they create frame conditions for the employee to move within. This a dry process which is a pure following of rules.

7. Under which circumstances will emotions have a positive or negative influence on the performance of the leader?

Emotionen sind positiv im Bereich der Motivation und für das Teambuilding. Negative Folgen hat es eher im Bereich Appraisals.

Emotions are positive in the area of motivation and for the team building. Negative emotions appear in the area of appraisals.

8. How would you describe the role of Emotional Intelligence in the leadership process?

Sehr wichtig, Geduld und Empathy sind für eine Führungskraft sehr wichtig.

Very important, patience and empathy are very important for a leader.

9. Do you think that emotional intelligence of the leader has an impact on the motivation of the employee?

Ja.

Yes.

10. Is emotional intelligence necessary for a leader to influence his or her employees?

Ja, wenn eine Führungskraft emotional intelligent ist, und weiß, wie sie mit den Emotionen ihrer Mitarbeiter umgehen muss, wird es ihm oder ihr leichter fallen, die Mitarbeiter in die gewünschte Richtung zu lenken.

Yes, if a leader possesses emotional intelligence and knows how to handle the emotions of his or her employees he will be able to influence them in the desired direction.

Appendix 11 – transcript expert interview E

1. In your opinion, what are the main factors that influence the motivation of employees?

This depends on the type of person. Either people and relationships (leader and colleagues, respect, appreciation), or career opportunities (opportunity for advancement, support), or money (is often overstated, this is mostly a recognition issue) and newer the support to combine work and family.

2. Can those factors be influenced by the leader? If yes, in which direction?

In regards to relationships and atmosphere the leader is very, very important, also as role model. Career opportunities and the possibility to combine work and family are more structural issues, but even there is the role of the leader not unimportant: if the leader disapproves of the structures employees will maybe not have the courage to use the structures in their advantage.

3. To which percentage do you think the motivation of an employee is dependable on the behavior and attitude of his or her leader?

Minimum of 50%. When asked about reasons to switch jobs, many employees mention to be unsatisfied with their leader. If the relationship with the leader is negative, there is nothing that is not disrupted.

4. Which abilities or traits does a leader need in your opinion in order to positively influence the motivation of his or her employees?

Being able to reflect the own behavior and what one does, to reflect the effects of ones behavior, to give feedback and critically develop oneself, to give support, to reflect and avoid actions that create damage, to be willing to reflect oneself critically, to know oneself and one's own impact – this is all a process and does not happen fast

5. In your opinion, which role do emotions play in the leadership process?

A bigger role than assumed so far, even at rational decisions. There is nothing which is not influenced by emotions, especially when interacting with people. One has to learn to control emotions not to be too impulsive and to use emotions as orientation guide, as support for decisions and to perceive the relevant emotions.

6. Are there certain areas of leadership which are more influenced by emotions than others?

Everything that has to do with employees and team, how conflicts are handled, how to interact with different types of personalities, how to ease a situation. Even in strategic questions if something can be reflected.

7. Under which circumstances will emotions have a positive or negative influence on the performance of the leader?

Incriminating emotions such as permanent concern, a lot of trouble and most importantly stress have an influence on the cognitive abilities. If somebody has good emotions and is happy he is less critical and more likely to oversee mistakes. One should be alert not to be too euphoric and force oneself to think twice. The self-perception is important, one shall not suppress emotions but notice and regulate them.

8. How would you describe the role of Emotional Intelligence in the leadership process?

To perceive emotions, to regulate and influence them are all parts of emotional intelligence. If a leader possesses emotional intelligence he or she will be able to treat people better and to

have less trouble. But this is not the only important part in leadership, structure and professionalism are also important. One can be a leader without emotional intelligence and work with elbows, but that will not lead to long success.

9. Do you think that Emotional Intelligence of the leader has an impact on the motivation of the employee?

Yes, if a leader has a feeling what is going on he or she can handle the employee in a more adequate and tailor-made way, can lead the team better and is more professional in treating himself and others. Some believe that the employees are like themselves and try to motivate them the same way they would be motivated. Emotional Intelligence provides a larger variety of acting possibilities and helps to tune oneself better into someone else and know what they need.

10. Is Emotional Intelligence necessary for a leader to influence his or her employees?

With emotional intelligence a leader can act more custom-fit. One has to lead situational, adapt ones actions to the person and the situation, to be flexible. Good senses are necessary to adapt the leadership style accordingly. A modern and flexible leadership style is impossible without the goal-oriented management of emotions. But many need to use emotions without having learned how to deal with them.