Empathy and Managerial Effectiveness across Cultures

A Comparative Study on the Link between Hotel Managers’ Levels of Empathy and Their Managerial Effectiveness in the United Kingdom versus Denmark

Empati og ledelseseffektivitet på tværs af kulturer. Et komparativt studie af sammenhængen mellem Hotellederes empatiniveau og deres ledelseseffektivitet i Storbritannien vs. Danmark

Thesis by Inna Timofejeva

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Supervisor: Ole Hinz

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Executive summary

The following thesis has been conducted in order to explore the concept of emotional intelligence (EQ) in business settings across cultures. The importance of emotional intelligence apart from general cognitive abilities has been discussed in the business context for decades and its importance for effective management of people has been stressed out by numerous previous studies. A review of past research on emotional intelligence across different cultures (Shipper et al) emphasizes empathy as one of the most important emotional intelligence skills that ensures effective management. However, research on the link between the two has been scarce (Goleman, 1998). Therefore, the central concept of this study is the importance of managers’ levels of empathy for their managerial effectiveness (as perceived by their respective subordinates) with a special focus on how it manifests itself in a feminine culture as opposed to a masculine culture. The main theoretical point of departure of this study is Hofstede’s cultural dimensions, and the Masculinity/Femininity dimension in particular (Hofstede, 2001). Masculinity is defined by the extent to which a country embraces masculine cultural characteristics, such as earnings and achievement. In countries that rank high on the Masculinity dimension, people tend to emphasize the importance of their jobs and see certain professions as characteristics of gender. On the contrary, in feminine cultures, people tend to value life outside work to a greater extent and emphasize the importance of quality of life. The UK and Denmark were chosen as case countries for this comparative study. The two countries were found suitable for the study as they provide a significant contrast in terms of their scores in the Masculinity/Femininity dimension, with the UK having a score of 66 and Denmark scoring only 16. Due to the limited scope of the study, managers and their respective subordinates employed in 4-star and 5-star hotels in the UK and Denmark, respectively, were chosen for the purpose of this study. In order to measure the empathy levels among hotel managers in the UK and Denmark, respectively, a ready-made questionnaire for measuring emotional empathy “The Questionnaire for Measuring the Empathic Tendency” was used (Mehrabian & Epstein, 1972). Furthermore, an additional questionnaire was designed to measure the responding managers’ managerial effectiveness as perceived by their respective subordinates in terms of their work-related attitudes, including job satisfaction, motivation and loyalty. The two questionnaires were distributed to the case hotels electronically and were the main source of the quantitative data used in this study. Additional qualitative data was collected by means of semi-structured interviews with the
subordinates in the Danish sample of respondents. An analysis of the collected data resulted in findings that partially confirm previous theories about empathy, but also constitute objections to these. Moreover, the collected data indicates significantly lower levels of empathy among the UK managers than among the Danish ones. However, despite this fact and despite the original assumptions, work-related attitudes among the UK subordinates were more positive than those in Denmark. In most cases, the negative work attitudes among the Danish respondents were found to have a direct link to the respective managers’ approach to their employees, which lead to the conclusion that empathy levels may not have the same effect in a highly masculine culture as in a highly feminine culture.

1 Introduction

1.1 What Is Emotional Intelligence and Why Does It Matter?
The first proper book covering the issue of emotional intelligence (EQ) was written in 1995 by Daniel Goleman, giving the subject a lot of popularity and attention in the business world. However, the history of the subject goes back to as early as 1940 when David Wechsler started referring to "intellective" and "non-intellective" aspects that stood for social, affective and personal factors. Along with some other researchers, Wechsler was one of the first to shift the main focus from the cognitive aspects of intelligence, such as memory and problem-solving, to non-cognitive aspects, realizing that they were crucial for defining intelligence. As a result, he defined intelligence as “the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment" (Cherniss 2000, p. 2). Robert Thorndike has also contributed to research on this subject by writing papers on "social intelligence" in the 1930s. In the 1940s, the Ohio State Leadership Studies suggested that social intelligence is crucial for successful leadership, and in the same period of time assessment techniques for measuring cognitive and non-cognitive features were developed based on the earlier work of Murray. The non-cognitive qualities that were measured included sensitivity, interpersonal skills, communication and initiative. The first time the term "emotional intelligence" emerged was in 1990 when it was used by Salovey and Meyer who defined it as "a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action" (Cherniss 2000, p. 4). Along with other researchers, Salovey and Meyer were the ones who took research of emotional intelligence to

1.2 Emotional Intelligence in the Business Settings
When it comes to the emotional intelligence at the work place, various case studies, including companies like US Air Force and L'Oreal to name a few, have proved throughout the years that higher emotional competences such as assertiveness, empathy, happiness, and emotional self awareness lead to higher performance, better motivation and commitment to the company, more successful leadership among the managerial employees, consequently higher profits for the companies (Goleman, 1998). Several case studies have also indicated that emotional intelligence competences are a greater predictor of the success at the workplaces than the IQ competences, such as memory, problem solving, logical thinking etc. (Cherniss, 2000)

After writing his main book "Emotional Intelligence" in 1995, Goleman conducted research in 1998 in which he applied the notion of emotional intelligence to business settings. The conclusion of his research was that there are five emotional intelligence components that matter at work: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skill (Goleman, 1998). While these components may be said to be somewhat "soft" as opposed to the conventional leadership qualities, such as high IQ, vision, toughness and determination, Goleman's research of nearly 200 international companies indicated that, even though the above-mentioned conventional qualities are important, they only serve as a means of entrance into leadership positions, whereas the emotional intelligence competences were the main predictors of success (Goleman, 1998). In that same article, Goleman argued that emotional intelligence is not something people are born with, but rather qualities they develop throughout their life that can be improved at any age with a certain amount of effort and determination (Goleman, 1998).

1.3 Emotional Intelligence and the Culture
Several studies look at the intersection of emotional intelligence and culture (Moon, 2011). It is believed that emotional intelligence is rather culture-relative i.e. what is considered emotional intelligence in one culture may not be considered emotional intelligence in another (Moon, 2011) For example, in a comparative study of North Americans and East Asians it was discovered that since in general North Americans are more expressive that East Asians, when interpreting other people's emotions they would look for the cues such as facial
expressions and mouth, whereas East Asians would have to deal with much more subtle cues such as eyes and surrounding context (Moon, 2011). Moreover, when it comes to what emotions the two groups focus on in terms of valence (negative/positive) and level of arousal (low/high), North Americans were found more prone to focus on the valence of the emotions as well as use the high arousal emotions, trying to influence their environment, whereas East Asians were found more concerned with the interpersonal orientation emotions and tending to use low or moderate arousal emotions in an attempt to adjust to their surrounding environment. (Moon, 2011) These differences are claimed to be the result of horizontal individualistic values and logical thinking characteristic for North Americans and vertical collectivistic cultural values and holistic thinking prevalent to Eastern Asians. (Moon, 2011) These differences stress the fact that emotional intelligence conceptualisation cannot be unbiased without considering the differences in culture. Moreover, when applied to people from Eastern Asia, emotional intelligence (EI) measurement tests oriented towards a North American culture would most probably show lower, and, thus, flawed results (Moon, 2011). Furthermore, a strong connection has been detected between emotional intelligence and the transformational leadership style that has become more and more popular in the business environment and has been proved to bring more positive achievements than the conventional transactional style (Reilly & Karounos, 2009). When exploring countries in different cultural clusters, research also shows that a certain leadership style that is proved to be the most effective for a particular cluster wouldn't lead to the same positive results in another cultural cluster (Reilly & Karounos, 2009). For example, in the Anglo cluster comprised of countries like Canada, England and Australia, the participative and team-oriented leadership style was identified as the most successful one owing to the high implementation of democracy and freedom and a high extent of individualism in these countries. However, when applied in China, this leadership style resulted in demotivated, bad employees. Moreover, it has also been indicated that, in order to succeed in managing different cultures, managers working across borders should receive specific training to improve some of Goleman's Emotional Intelligence skills. Empathy and social skills have been identified as the most important EI competences when it comes to adjusting to foreign cultures (Reilly & Karounos, 2009).

1.4 Research Question
With the business world becoming more and more global these days and companies being exposed to many different work cultures, a question may arise as to the importance of
emotional intelligence when working with a culturally diverse workforce and whether EI is equally important in different cultures. Various studies have been conducted on what makes management of a culturally diverse workforce successful. However, psychological aspects, like emotional intelligence, are rarely dealt with. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to look into the importance of emotional intelligence in the business environment in different cultures and to come up with some guidelines as to how multinational organizations (MNSs) can utilize emotional intelligence competences in order to adjust to any discrepancies they may encounter.

Under this broad topic a number of sub-questions arise. First of all, what cultural dimensions are the most important in determining the importance of emotional intelligence in the workplace and what EQ competences would ensure the effectiveness of managerial practices given the particular culture managers operate in? Hofstede’s Collectivism/Individualism culture dimension has already been scrutinized in earlier research, indicating the existing EI differences (Moon, 2011). Therefore, the objective of this paper is to fill in the gap by exploring the link between EI competences and one of Hofstede’s most controversial culture dimensions, namely the Masculinity/Femininity dimension (Hofstede, 2001).

According to Goleman (1998), EI is comprised of five main emotional competences: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skill. After a review of the previous research on the subject (Shipper et al), empathy turned out to be less looked at in the cross cultural settings as well as was said to be one of the most important factor in effective management and in adjusting to different cultures. While the positive connection between a feminine culture and a high level of empathy may be self-evident for effective management (a feminine culture being characterized by higher attendance to people's feelings and emotions), the connection between a masculine culture and the level of empathy among managers would be interesting to establish. Therefore, the question this study aims to answer is:

"How does managers’ level of empathy influence their managerial effectiveness in the presence of a strong masculine culture?".

On the basis of the above, the null hypothesis for this study is:

**Hypothesis 0:** “Managers’ level of empathy has the same effect on their managerial effectiveness in the presence of a strong masculine culture as in a strong feminine culture”.

The alternate hypothesis for this study is:
Hypothesis 1: “Managers' level of empathy does not have the same effect on their managerial effectiveness in a strong masculine culture as in a strong feminine culture”.

In this study, the participating managers’ effectiveness is limited to their direct influence on their respective subordinates measured in terms of the subordinates’ level of motivation at work, job satisfaction, loyalty/commitment to the company they work in and their motivation to provide a good service even if it requires an extra effort.

2 Methodology

2.1 Philosophy of Science

"A man's social relation with his fellows are permeated with his ideas about reality. Indeed, 'permeated' is hardly a strong enough word: social relations are expressions of ideas about reality".

By Peter Winch

Social reality is viewed as a concept that is created by humans according to how they talk, explain, conceptualize and think about it, thus making social reality a collective product of our cognition (Collin, 1997) This concept points out how the thought process itself creates facts that are known and accepted by the society. There are two positions on the social construction of reality that have received both support and criticism: the extreme one, taking its route from very general philosophical arguments; and the moderate one that distinguishes the characteristics of social facts (Collin, 1997). The extreme position uses the so-called broad philosophical assumptions and states that all the reality is created by the human mind, and that there is no reality that exists by itself. This rules out the social construction itself, since there must have been some original facts in existence before the human mind could form its thoughts and opinion on them in order to construct further facts from them (Collin, 1997).

The term “social construction of reality” was originally coined by Peter Berger and Thomas Luckmann, with "social" standing for the “collective” construction of the reality, and “reality” itself referring to the "facts". The reification of the social fact has been an ongoing issue in discussions on social constructivism. While the reality exists, some facts are purely created by people's beliefs and do not necessarily reflect the genuine reality. Reified facts can also easily change in order to serve certain interests. Karl Marx was one of the anti-constructivism

1 (Collin, 1997, p. 5)
theorists who introduced the notion of fetishism that lead to the further formation of the 'critical theory'. His theory stated that the "reified status of some feature of society is to owe its existence as a reification to a general belief that is an autonomous fact, hence not a reification" (Collin, 1997, p. 11). The social construction of reality cannot be studied through statistical analysis and has a more philosophical basis for looking at correlations between societal events. Most of the arguments about this matter are rather philosophical, even though they appear in the works of social scientists (Collin, 1997).

The philosophical assumptions social scientists use in order to study any social concept can be of two different natures: explicit and implicit. The first group of assumptions carry with them ontological considerations, such as the very core of the studied subject and its relation to the individual that can be either external—coming as a given or being more of a result of the individual's mind. The second group of the assumptions carry epistemological considerations, exploring issues such as the ways an individual can understand the surrounding world and how he can pass on this knowledge to other individuals. This entails distinguishing between truth and falsehood, the origins of the knowledge and its different forms. Another set of assumptions deals with relationships between the environment and the individuals it's surrounding (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). This brings us back to the two extreme assumptions—one of the assumptions leaning towards seeing humans and their experiences as a product of the environment, and the other assuming a controlling and creating role of the individual, making him the creator of his environment. These two contrasting assumptions are identified by the struggle between determinism and voluntarism. Most social scientists support their positions somewhere between the two. While the first and the second sets of assumptions have a direct link to ontological and epistemological considerations respectively, the third set of assumptions is conceptually separate from these. Depending on what position is taken by the social scientist in connection to the three sets of assumptions, the chosen methodological methods will vary, and the way of obtaining new knowledge will depend greatly on that. For example, if a social scientist chooses a strand of assumptions that are objective in nature, he will see the environment as something external, hard and real, and would most probably choose to study the different elements that external environment consists of. On the other hand, if the scientist prefers assumptions that are more subjective, he will most probably recognize the significant individual contribution to creating the environment. The main study subject for such scientists tends to be the ways individuals perceive, create and interpret the
surrounding environment, and whether there is an external reality that should be studied. **Table 2-1** with its explanatory text (see Appendix 1) show how the different approaches to social science can be depicted, depending on whether a subjective or objective point of view is taken (Burrell & Morgan, 1979).

The extreme, opposing positions in all of the four stances presented in **Table 2-1** can also be summarized in two major divisions of social research. The first one is 'sociological positivism' that adopts the natural science view of the social world and uses its methods extensively. When it comes to ontology, it supports the realist point of view, seeing social world as something external and existing outside human beings. As a consequence, it also goes along with the positivism approach in its epistemology, using deterministic views of humans and employing nomothetic theories. The second division is called 'German idealism' and it employs ideas that are opposite to those of the sociological positivism approach. For example, German idealism expresses a nominalist point of view on the social world, stating that it does not exist in the real hard form, but rather in the names and labels with the rejection of scientific approaches. Instead, it requires a more subjective approach to studying the social world. Moreover, it supports the anti-positivist approach in its epistemology, voluntarism approach in its view on the human nature and, finally, as opposed to sociological positivism, it uses ideographic theories. This automatically qualifies sociological positivism as a highly objective approach and German idealism as an highly subjective approach to studying the social world. For many years, social scientists relied heavily on sociological positivism in their work, without touching upon the point of view of German idealism. However, recently the latter division of thought gained more attention, and schools of thought have emerged that apply a bit of both, bringing up many tools and theories supporting their position. Apart from expanding the view on the social world, they also provoked quite a few debates in the two extreme schools of thought (Burrell & Morgan, 1979).

Even though German idealism has its valid points and views, this paper has predominantly followed the ideas of sociological positivism regarding the social world and the studying of it. It is understandable how individuals create social reality to some extent by forming opinions and labeling the surrounding environment. However, in order to take a totally subjective point of view, one would have to accept the fact that there is no social fact that exists or ever existed by itself and all the social reality is a result of a human thought process. This idea may be difficult to support wholeheartedly since, in order to start perceiving and forming opinions
on anything, there must exist some reality that would allow for a further thought process and formation of new facts by humans. Therefore, with its statement that the reality does exist outside the human thinking and that the social world exists in a more objective form and has some firm structures independent of individuals, realism appears to lend a more suitable theoretical basis for this study. Furthermore, this research implements a quantitative approach to data. One of the objectives of this study is to measure empathy and managerial effectiveness in quantitative terms, which is why this study leans towards the nomothetic approach in gathering and analyzing the data. Finally, as to epistemological considerations, being a quantitative study with only some qualitative elements, this research aims at proving the validity of the hypothesis, which means that this research takes the positivism stance on knowledge creation. Also, the paper attempts to add new knowledge by adding something new to what is already known. All in all, even though it is acknowledged that German idealism has its valid points, especially when it comes to the contribution of the human thought to the creation of social reality and the need to sometimes use a more subjective approach when studying the social world, this study was conducted relying predominantly on how sociological positivism views the social world.

2.2 Quantitative and Qualitative Research

2.2.1 Quantitative and Qualitative Research Comparison
The research can follow one of the two main paths: quantitative and qualitative, in some cases the combination of the two methods is also applicable. The main distinction between the qualitative and the quantitative research is that in the quantitative method researchers implements measurements and in the qualitative research they do not. Apart from that, the two methods have certain characteristics. The quantitative research is a research strategy that makes an effort to measure data in its analysis and employs the deductive approach when linking the theory and the research, the main purpose being testing of the theories. Moreover, quantitative research is leaning on the natural science research model, employing the practices that are predominant in positivism and views the reality in external, objective terms. On the contrary, qualitative research does not aim at including any measurements, but rather focuses on narrative data in its analysis, relies on the induction approach when linking research and theory, which inevitably leads to creation of new theories instead of testing of the existing ones. Apart from that qualitative research does not employ any practices taken from the
natural science and positivism in particular, focusing on individuals and their perception of the surrounding world instead. Finally, qualitative research opposes quantitative research by seeing reality as the product of people's creation that is ever changing. All these distinctions between qualitative and quantitative research are summarized in Table 2-1 below:

**Table 2-1 Qualitative versus Quantitative Research**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Quantitative</th>
<th>Qualitative</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Principal orientation to the role of theory in relation to research</strong></td>
<td>Deductive; testing of the theory</td>
<td>Inductive; generation of the theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Epistemological orientation</strong></td>
<td>Natural science model</td>
<td>Interpretivism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ontological orientation</strong></td>
<td>Objectivism</td>
<td>Constructionism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Even though there are many more distinguishing features between the quantitative and qualitative research strategies, the ones summarized in the table above are the fundamental ones. (Bryman, 2012)

2.2.2 **Quantitative Research.**

Quantitative research is characterized by "the collection of the numerical data, exhibiting the relationship between the theory and research in a deductive manner, and having a predilection for natural science approach and objectivist conception of social reality" (Bryman, 2012, p.160) The main purpose of the quantitative research is to introduce some measurement of the concepts, that are elements that build theories. After being measured, these concepts can become either dependent or independent variables. In the case of dependent variables, researchers can find some explanations of social aspects.(Bryman, 2012) According to Bryman (2012), there are three reasons why quantitative research implements measurement:

- To detect the smallest differences among people according to the characteristic that is being studies;
- To provide a proper tool to detect smallest differences. Being consistent in its nature the measurement does not vary due to the time or person who is conducting it, it stays consistent regardless of the two conditions;
- To provide the tool to establish the depth of a relationship between the concepts, e.g. through the **correlation analysis**.

According to Bryman (2012) There are several ways to measure a concept, through different indicators. The most common options are:
• Through a structured interview or a self-completion questionnaire; these usually require respondents opinion on a subject, their attitudes, their behaviour or the social situation;
• Through a structured observation which is conducting by observing the participants behaviour;
• Through the use of publicly available official statistical data;
• Through the analysis of the mass media content on the subject;

Often, more than one strategy is necessary in order to reach sufficient results. Relying only on one indicator may lead to biased results e.g. due to some misunderstanding of the questions, the indicator touching upon only a fraction of the concept instead of the wholeness of it and the inability of a single indicator to make fine distinctions. The main preoccupations of the quantitative research are measurement, causality, generalisation and replication. These preoccupations reflect some epistemological considerations about the research method. The measurement part is the very characteristic focus of the quantitative method and the factor that distinguishes it from the qualitative research. There are obvious advantages of the measurement, that have been mentioned before but it also contains some limitations in terms of validity and reliability, since those two are not easy to ensure in the quantification. The causality is another concern in the quantitative research, because exploring the causality the researches are not just describing the concept but rather explaining its causes, leading them to dealing with dependent and independent variables and their cause and effect relationships. The main concern in the causality is the internal validity problem. There is often the lack of confidence in the quantitative research about the causal inferences suggested by the researcher and without it the whole research may loose its value. The concern with the generalisation in the quantitative research is the struggle to insure that the results gained from studies of a certain group of people can also apply to other people, outside the sample used in the study. Finally, the concern with replication in quantitative research is due to the attempts to minimize the influence of the researcher's biases and personal values on the research results. In order to avoid and test that, natural science researchers tend to reproduce/replicate each other's experiments. If experiments cannot be reproduced an infinite number of times, the findings will be seen as doubtful. (Bryman, 2012)

According to Bryman (2012) quantitative research has recently received a lot of criticism, pointing out its main limitations:
1. Failing to distinguish between the 'world of nature' and the social world, thus posing doubts about the suitability of the natural science models in studies of the social world;

2. Artificial accuracy and precision used when measuring the concepts studied, which does not depict the reality of the relationship between the measures that social scientists use and the concepts they are supposed to measure.

3. Tools and procedures like structured interviews and self-completion surveys hindering the connection between everyday life and the research. When researchers rely on tools and procedures as heavily as they do in quantitative research, it is unlikely that the results will be unbiased.

4. Leaving out people's lives by providing a rather static analysis. This refers to previous criticism as well, pointing out the fact that it is impossible to study the social world without taking individuals’ contributions to its creation. (Bryman, 2012)

2.2.3 Qualitative Research
According to Silverman (2005): "Qualitative researchers stress the socially constructed nature of reality, the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied, and the situational constraints that shape inquiry. They seek answers to questions that stress how social experience is created and given meaning. In contrast, quantitative studies emphasize the measurement and analysis of causal relationships between variables, not processes. Proponents of such studies claim that their work is done from within a value-free framework". (Silverman, 2005, page 10)

There main controversy about defining qualitative research as a sufficient separate research methods has several reasons, one of the main reasons being the fact that research methods qualitative research can be comprised of have very little in common. See below:

- Ethnography/ participant observation. Bryman (2012) advises caution when treating these two methods as synonyms. However, they are identical in terms of data collection where a researcher is put in a social setting for a period of time in order to observe the social group and gain knowledge about it.

- Qualitative interviewing. This method is includes many types of interviews that can be employed in order to gather data by questioning the participants.

- Focus groups.

- Language based approach, such as discourse and conversation analysis.
• Collection and analysis of texts and documents.
  
  (Bryman, 2012, page 383)

Often, a combination of two and more methods is used in the qualitative research, such as when using an ethnography methods qualitative interviews are also widely used as a co-method. Another reason why defining qualitative research as an independent method has had some challenges in the past is because of the relations in between theory and research in qualitative research is much more unclear than that in the quantitative research. It does not follow the same processes from formulating the research question because the theory in the qualitative research is supposed to be an outcome of it. This theory is also referred to the 'grounded theory' and is defined as: "theory that was derived from data, systematically gathered and analysed through the research process. In this method, data collection, analysis, and eventual theory stand in close relationship to one another". (Bryman, 2012, page 387)

However, many researches have argued that the qualitative method also can and should be used in the testing of the theories (originally considered to be the job of the quantitative method). (Bryman, 2012)

2.2.4 Criticisms of the Qualitative Research

Below are the most common points of criticisms of qualitative research based on Bryman (2012):

1. Qualitative research is thought to lack some objectivity as a result of the close interaction between studied sample and researcher.

2. Difficulty of replication. Qualitative research is very difficult to replicate, due to its unstructured nature and the lack of the certain procedures to follow.

3. Difficulty with generalization. Due to a limited scope of the qualitative research it is difficult to ensure that the interviews (or any data collection) from a small sample of people can be descriptive of the whole population. In its defence though the qualitative research is said to be providing more of an "analytic generalization", which is generalizing findings to theory and not the populations.

4. Insufficient transparency. Qualitative research is often said to have a lack of the transparency, it is difficult to be sure of what actions the researcher took and how exactly he conducted hi/her research. (Bryman, 2012)
2.3 Comparison and Control in the Research

Issues of comparison and control in empirical research are very important since they determine how effectively the data is collected, which, in turn, either will or will not allow to make proper comparisons. All of social science is based on comparisons, which is the main factor in the cognitive process, and a big part of research work comprises codifying and formalizing this process. Together comparison and control aim at testing the well-formed ideas about the subject of the social study. Glaser and Strauss were the first social scientists who discussed the importance of the grounded theory for meaningful comparisons in social science. Their view on the grounded theory and the procedures suggested in their work 'The Discovery of Grounded Theory' have been vastly used and implemented by researchers. The main idea Strauss and Glaser tried to get across is the importance of developing theory through imaginative comparisons, the main aim of such comparisons being not to prove the rightness or wrongness of a theory but rather to develop and improve it (Bechhofer & Paterson, 2000).

Control in social research is more of the empirical sense, and high level of control is what ensures the validity of the findings the researcher drew from the data. This notion can also be expressed in the following definition of control: "Control is about manipulating the research design, or the analysis, or both, to raise as far as possible the probability that we really are sure about the conclusion to which we are coming" (Bechhofer & Paterson, 2000, p. 10).

It should be noted, however, that in certain situations it is difficult to manipulate the situation during an experiment. Therefore, all control is conducted in the analysis stage. An example of such a situation could be an analysis of the survey data and the researcher's inability to exclude the influence of different factors that make him come to false conclusions. The way to maintain control in such situation is by having a big enough sample of respondents, high response rates, good quality of the collected data and high quality questionnaires used in the surveys. Control is enhanced by jeopardizing the complexity of statistics, which is one of the compromises the researcher should be willing to accept. Most of student research works have a small scale of responses due to money and time constraints; therefore, one has to be careful when making any conclusions from such limited data. (Bechhofer & Paterson, 2000).

2.4 Representativeness

Representativeness is the ability to generalize the observed relationship by making valid comparisons between the sample and the population the sample was taken from and
controlling the differences between the two (Bechhofer & Paterson, 2000). In an ideal situation, researchers aim for representative samples. One way to reach a representative sample is by *random sampling*, taking random people from the population that will ensure a description of the population itself in rather accurate terms (Bechhofer & Paterson, 2000). Another strategy is to create representativeness, i.e. the procedure of stratification which ensures the randomness of the sample by using some small characteristics, e.g. sex (picking the right amount of female and male participants according to general statistics). In this case, the sample would be stratified by sex. The choice of stratification factors should always be adjusted to each particular study, according to their relevance to the study. Another method to pick a *representative* sample is by *quota sampling*, which involves interviewers picking participants non-randomly after the whole sample has been divided into several subgroups by the first few strata samples. This may make the sample somewhat less representative compared to random sampling as interviewers are free to choose any participants within their subgroups. Quota sampling is, however, widely used by researchers since it is usually more feasible in time- or otherwise constrained situations (Bechhofer & Paterson, 2000).

2.5 Case Study Research
2.5.1 Case Studies versus Other Research Methods

Case study research is defined as follows: "*The essence of a case study, the central tendency among all types of case study, is that it tries to illuminate a decision or set of decisions: why they were taken, how they were implemented, and with what result*." (Yin, 2009, p. 17)

Just like any research type the case study research has some advantages and disadvantages, but has maintained one of the prior positions in the social research. Apart from the social research it is also prevalently used in psychology, sociology, political science, anthropology, business, education, nursing and community planning. Case study research is also found in the economics in order to support the investigation of an economy of a certain industry or city. Case study research gives the researcher a holistic view of the real-life events, for instance, international relations, organisational and managerial processes, behaviour of the small groups etc. Case study research can be used both, singularly to study a research issue or as a complimentary methods to a mixed methods research. (Yin, 2009)

Many social scientists still share the opinion that case study research should only be used for the exploratory part of research, surveys and histories being useful for the descriptive phase
and experiments for the causal and explanatory inquiries, suggesting that case study research cannot serve as an apt research method to test propositions, but just to compliment another research method. This hierarchical view has, however, been questioned, since case studies have proved to be more than just exploratory, but also explanatory (Yin, 2009). When comparing different research methods as to their respective advantages and disadvantages, this hierarchical stereotype has to be left out as well, accepting that all the research methods can be used for exploratory, explanatory and descriptive purposes leaving the same options for case study research (Yin, 2009) As Yin (2009, p. 8) puts it, there are three main conditions that determine which method is the most suitable for a certain research:

1. The type of the research question that is going to be answered;
2. The amount of control the researcher has over the behavioral events;
3. The degree of focus on contemporary versus historical events;

The choice of the appropriate method according to these three conditions is summarized in Table 2-2 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>1. Form of Research Question</th>
<th>2. Requires Control of Behavioral Events?</th>
<th>3. Focuses on Contemporary Events?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>How, why?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Who, what, where, how many, how much?</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Archival Analysis</td>
<td>Who, what, where, how many, how much?</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes/no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>How, why?</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study</td>
<td>How, why?</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


As Table 2-2 shows, "How" and "Why" research questions are more of explanatory nature. Therefore, they tend to lead to the choice of case studies, histories and experiments as the main research method. This can be explained by the necessity of a proper time span in order to answer such research questions (Yin, 2009). The second and the third factors bring out further differences between case study, history and experiment research questions, provided that the research question of a certain research starts with "why" or "how". When no control or access to the events is possible, history is the preferred method as it deals purely with past events when even the witnesses of the events are not around any longer to provide any sort of
first-hand data, and researchers have to rely on historical documents and artifacts in their data collection. In case the history method is used to investigate contemporary events, the method looses its differences compared to the case study method, which mostly focuses on contemporary events with no control of the events or possibility of manipulating them. Even though in this case history and case study involve similar techniques, case study has two additional sources of data, based on observations of the events as well as interviewing the people that are involved in them. With its access to a fuller spectrum of information, case study research has an obvious advantage compared to the history method. In certain cases of observations of the participants, case study research can also cause a slight manipulation of the events. A higher extent of manipulation is assigned to the experiments method where the investigator has a direct, systematic control over people's behaviors, e.g. in a laboratory or in a field setting (Yin, 2009).

2.5.2 Limitations of the Case Study Research
According to Yin (2009), researchers have considerably undervalued case study research. Their preferred methods turn out to be experiments and surveys, and there are reasons for that. One of the biggest limitations of the case study method is the fact that it is sloppy and biased and lacks accuracy, when used as the only research method. This could be due to the lack of literature on how to properly conduct a case study research compared to other research methods that are much better covered by literature with precise procedures to be followed (Yin, 2009). Another reason could be the confusion between case study research and case study teaching, as in the latter information can be changed intentionally in order to make an emphasis on a particular aspect. When conducting a research, this is strictly prohibited, and facts must be presented objectively and fairly. (Yin, 2009).

The second limitation of case study research is that, just like a single experiment, a single case study lacks scientific generalization. It is impossible to generalize on the basis of a single experiment or a single case. When it comes to scientific facts, they are always based on a series of experiments that support the same phenomenon under different conditions. This is where multiple-case studies become helpful. In defense of a single experiment or a single-case study, it can be stated that they are generalizable in terms of the theoretical propositions providing the mentioned earlier analytical generalization. (Yin, 2009)

The third problem encountered in case study research is that they are way too time-consuming and result in a long, chaotic and unreadable data documents. (Yin, 2009).
The fourth problem is the inability to use case study research in the popular cause-and-effect studies where the causal relationship of one "treatment" producing a particular "effect" is investigated. Here, case study research has an obvious disadvantage because it's unable to investigate such issues (Yin, 2009).

Finally, even though most of the limitations of case study research can be defended in its favor, there is an obvious challenge in conducting a good case study research. This may have something to do with the general lack of relevant literature that explains what skills are required to conduct such a study. (Yin, 2009).

Going back to the definition of case studies mentioned above, formulated as cases of "decisions", it must be noted that there can also be cases of "institutions", "organizations", "individuals" and many others. However, these definitions only touch upon the subject of the case, hence not being enough for a proper method of the case study as a research method. (Yin, 2009)

2.6 Structured Questionnaires

2.6.1 Structured Questionnaires and Control

Structured questionnaires are the way to control the uncertainty interviews might have as a result of being the results of social interaction and thus are widely used in the large-scale social research. This method has gained a lot of popularity since saves a lot of time and does not require the interviewer to be present when the survey takes place. In order to be successful, structured questionnaires need to be very clear in their instructions, contain simple questions and have obvious and straightforward ways to respond to them. Apart from the time efficiency, structured questionnaires contain standardized questions that do not need any extra interpretation of the questions. Finally, structured questionnaires are a great method for statistical descriptions. Structured interviews have emerged as a result of the researchers' attempt to reduce the role of the researcher or the interviewer on the respondent, therefore minimizing the imposing of the opinions of the social science on them. This allows the more clarity in comparing the two groups leaving the influence of how the questions are asked out of the equation. Apart from several obvious advantages, structured questionnaires also have several challenges, the biggest one being the validity of this research method. Another problem is how the respondent reacts to the questionnaires. The following model of response is one of the many forms psychologists have suggested in order to describe the process
between the moment respondents receive the questionnaire to the point when he gives his answer. (Bechhofer & Paterson, 2000)

1. Understanding of the question (both the understanding of the actual words in the sentence as well as the meaning of the question)
2. Cognitive processing to form an appropriate response, including;
   • Assessments and decisions concerning the information necessary to answer accurately
   • Retrieval of cognitions comprised of attitudes, beliefs and facts;
   • Organisation of the cognitive process, according to which the response is formed
3. Evaluating how accurate the answer was.
4. Evaluating the answers concerning factors like desire or lack of it to please the interviewer;
5. The formation and entry of the answer, formed as a result of the previous steps;

(Bechhofer & Paterson, 2000, p. 76)

According to the model presented above, it's clear that there is only so much a researcher has an influence on. Some control can for instance be implemented to steps 1 and 4 by making the questions very clear and straightforward and trying to make the respondents feel free and open about their opinions even if they are not socially acceptable or desirable. However when it comes to steps 2, 3 and 5 there is little control a researcher can implement. (Bechhofer & Paterson, 2000)

2.6.2 Validity of the Structured Questionnaires

The problem of validity in the structured questionnaires can be of three different natures: error from the respondent, error from the questionnaire and the error from the interviewer. The error from the questionnaire has already been discussed in the previous section, however the other two errors also need to be given some attention. The error from the interviewer stands for the effect the interviewer (if the one is present during the questionnaire) has on the responses by his age, gender and ethnicity as well as the way he or she reads the questions and the sequence of the questions he/she chooses. Apart from that there is a risk that an interviewer makes an unnecessary emphasis on certain words that can create a bias in understanding of the meaning of the question by the respondents. Finally, in case of any difficulties experienced by the respondents, despite all the standardization and training interviewers are prone to address those in different ways, due to their human factor. The error coming from the respondent is also very common and has been explained by the cognitive
psychology. It stems from the ability of people to remember data and information, the way it's
done by reconstructing the past, which may bring different results. Even though some
psychological consideration while conducting the questionnaire can reduce this type of error,
it cannot eliminate it completely (Bechhofer & Paterson, 2000).

2.7 Unstructured Questionnaires: Interviews in the Qualitative Research
Interviewing is one of the most applied method for data collection when it comes to
gathering qualitative data. One of the most attractive features of the interviews, as opposed to
surveys (structured interviews) is that they are flexible, and allow for many open-ended
questions and elaboration. According to Bryman (2012) there are two main types of
interviews in the qualitative research:

- Unstructured interviews; characterized by no structure of the questions at all, meaning
  that sometimes even just a single question can be asked, leading to an interviewee to
talk freely about the topic.

- Semi-structured interviews; characterized by interviewer having a set of questions
  covering specific topics that he wants to ask, however an interviewee has multiple
  ways to respond to them as well as questions that were not included in the original list
  of questions may be asked along the way if there is a necessity for it. The wording of
  the questions is usually rather similar from one interviewee to another.

Despite the slight differences in the flexibility, both of these interview types are interested in
the point of views of the respondents, trying to encourage as full of the responses on the topic
as possible in order to gain a better insight. (Bryman, 2012)

The responses of the interviews are usually audio recorded or taken notes of and then
transcripts of them are reproduced in the document, reflecting word for word answers of the
interviewees. After the whole data is ready to be analyzed, several approaches can be used in
order to do so. The most applied approaches are known to be analytic induction and grounded
theory. In a few words, analytic induction is characterized by the process, when a rough
research question and the hypothetical explanation of that question are outlined. After going
through the interview data, in case it does not comply with the hypothesis, the researcher
either redefines the hypothesis in order to exclude the negative case of data or reformulates
the hypothesis and proceeds to collect some more data. This method is rather time consuming
since even a single case of incompliant data causes the further data collection or reformulation
of the hypothesis. (Bryman, 2012)
The grounded theory approach uses coding as one of the central means of analyzing qualitative data. Coding is the process when the researcher separates the data into smaller components or categories and gives them particular names. This process takes place right after the data collection. The perception of the data by the researcher is what forms the researcher’s grounded theory and codes for it. After the coding, the data has less volume and it’s easier to analyze and compare it. The grounded theory approach is more popular in the social research than the analytic induction, since it’s less time consuming.

2.8 Methodological Considerations for the Current Study

2.8.1 Choice of the Research Design and Methods

After the presentation of different possible research designs and methods that are popularly used in social research, quantitative research principles with some qualitative elements have been chosen to conduct this study. The reason the quantitative method was chosen as the basis for this study is that the research question and the objectives of this research are mostly interested in the measurements of the concepts, namely empathy levels and managerial effectiveness. The two concepts are measured in two different cultures and compared afterwards in order to test the posed hypotheses. The research also considers the causal effect of the variable, empathy being the independent variable and managerial effectiveness representing the dependable variable that is assumed to be affected by the level of empathy.

Here are the main steps that have been taken based on the basic steps of quantitative research:

Table 2-3 Research Process

Source: (Bryman, 2012, p. 161)
The deductive approach is used in this research accordingly as a prerequisite of quantitative research and comprises using theory to guide the research itself. This implies that, based on what is covered by the existing literature on the topic studied, two hypotheses have been formulated, the null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis. After the data collection and the analysis, the null hypotheses will be either confirmed or rejected according to the findings. Here is how the deductive approach can be depicted in a model:

Table 2-4 Deductive Approach

![Diagram showing the deductive approach]

Source: (Bryman, 2012, p. 24)

Additional qualitative data was necessary to collect by means of semi-structured interviews of Danish subordinates in order to shed some understanding on the results of the second survey. Semi-structured interviews were found more apt for this research than unstructured interviews for qualitative data collection since there was a set of questions/topics that needed to be investigated, namely the negative work attitudes among the respondents and the main reasons for these. The interview results were analyzed by means of the Grounded Theory approach through coding. According to Table 2-2, the most appropriate research methods for this study would be case study or surveys, since the research question starts with ‘How’, there is no need for control of the behavioral events, and the study focuses on contemporary events. All these criteria make both methods appropriate. However, case study would not be as practical for this research as a survey. As mentioned before, case studies lack a certain structure, have a lot of biases, are much more time-consuming and require the physical presence of the researcher. Moreover, it was necessary to choose more than one hotel in each country, which would make this a multi-case study and require a lot of time to conduct. Choosing just one hotel in each culture was not an option either, since this would not provide the research with sufficient generalizability. The study is conducted across countries, which makes implementation of case study as a research method even more challenging due to difficulty of ensuring the presence of the researcher. Finally, case studies are known for their inability to explore cause-and–effect relationships, which this study is interested in. Therefore, the main method for
collecting quantitative data was surveys. Case study research is only touched upon in this study, cases being the eight British and five Danish hotels participating in the study, indicating the multiple-case study. The two comparable cases in this research are the two cultures: masculine and feminine culture represented by the United Kingdom and Denmark accordingly. It should be noted that in the condition of more time, and lack of travelling constraints, case study as a complimentary method could greatly enhance this study by looking in the concept of empathy more deeply, collecting more information on its effects on the managerial effectiveness as well as helping to identify the other factors that might have given the certain results on the managerial effectiveness. Surveys/ structured questionnaires have been chosen as major sources of the quantitative data, due the ability to collect the information quickly, effectively and from a large amount of respondents at the same time, not requiring a lot of financial expenses. They also do not require the physical presence of the interviewer which fit perfectly the challenge of this study (collecting the data from two different countries). Moreover, interviewer not being present may have minimized the biases that are usually arising due to the human factor, thus insuring some control over the data collection. Despite the elimination of the error from the interviewer, however the error from the respondent and the error from the questionnaire may have occurred, which is always the risk for the structured questionnaires. The error from the questionnaire has been minimized by making questions and instructions as clear as possible.

Since the aim of this study is to compare two countries' data, the following research has an aim of using elements of a comparative study. Denmark and Great Britain have been chosen for representing the feminine and the masculine society consequently, having a big enough discrepancy in their MAS (masculinity index) scores suitable for comparison. (Geert Hofstede, 2013) Comparative design is characterized by "studying two contrasting cases using more or less identical methods" (Bryman, 2012, page 72) The two contrasting cases have been the two cultures, whereas the case companies the data has been collected from have been 8 hotels in United Kingdom and 5 in Denmark that have at least 4 stars according to the Forbes Travel Guide (Forbes Travel Guide, 2013), ensuring the similar quality standard and the service level in the studied hotels. The reason the hotel industry was chosen in this research is because it is one of the industries where the managers and their subordinates are working very closely together and need to cooperate a lot on a daily basis. The presence of the managers in the hotels is very high, therefore the influence of those managers' emotional intelligence
would have to be very high as well, allowing this research for a better study of the phenomena of Empathy of the managers and its influence on their effectiveness. Just like a characteristic aim of the comparative study, the aim of the research is, through comparison of the two cultures, to create some new empirical data as well as create higher awareness on the issue and a deeper understanding of social reality across different cultures. Apart from that, some of the theories described in the existing literature were compared with the results in order to prove or deny their validity. The data collection in comparative studies is usually conducted across two or more cases (in this research represented by two countries/cultures) with the help of cross-sectional design format. Cross-sectional design format implies "the collection of data on more than one case and at a single point in time in order to collect a body of quantitative or quantifiable data in connection with two or more variables, which are then examined to detect patterns of association". (Bryman, 2012, page 58) Moreover it implies the use of the questionnaires and structured interviewing for data collection. (Bryman, 2012) This has been done with the help of self-completion questionnaires in the following study. The two self-completion surveys have been sent out to the managers of the 4 and 5 star hotels operating in two comparison countries in order to measure their level of empathy. Consequently, the level of their management effectiveness has been measured by collecting primary data from their subordinates. Starting from October 6th, 2013, until February 6th, 2014, the emails were sent to 4 and 5 star hotels in United Kingdom and Denmark, inviting their managers and subordinates to answers one survey each. Managers were asked to answer the survey measuring their level of empathy, while their subordinates were asked to give feedback to their managers, which included questions on motivation, satisfaction with the workplace, and the commitment/sense of loyalty to the company. In those four months (from 10-06-13 to 02-06-14), around 300 hotels were contacted in the United Kingdom, located in the country’s biggest cities by population, including London, Nottingham, Birmingham, Leeds, Glasgow, Sheffield, Edinburgh, Manchester, Cardiff, Leicester, Brighton, Derby, Oxford, York and Plymouth. In Denmark, due to the smaller size of the country, the number of the 4 and 5 star hotels was considerably smaller too. Therefore only 58 hotels were contacted throughout Denmark, including the biggest cities and towns, namely, Copenhagen, Kolding, Odense, Esbjerg, Århus, Ålborg, Frederiksborg, Gentofte, Horsens, Lyngby-Taarbæk and Roskilde. Within a month after the first send out of the emails, the reminder emails were sent to the hotels that have not responded concerning their wish to participate in
the study or otherwise. As a result, by the time the surveys were closed for the new responses in the beginning of February, 8 hotels from United Kingdom had agreed and had filled out the surveys leading to 25 managers’ and 13 subordinates’ responses. In Denmark, due to the smaller number of the targeted hotels, only 5 hotels had participated, providing 11 managers’ and 21 subordinates’ responses.

2.8.2 Measurement Uncertainties
The sample that participated in the following study has not been very big (36 managers and 33 subordinates). Even though the initial plan was to use statistical analysis in the SPSS program in order to confirm or reject the posed hypotheses, due to the small sample, it has not been possible to do so. It would be necessary to have at least a sample of 100 for each survey in order to make statistical regression analysis and to reflect the findings to the whole population. (McGraw-Hill, 2010). It should be noted as well that the samples are not equal in United Kingdom and Denmark, UK providing a bigger sample of managers and Denmark, on the other hand, providing bigger subordinate sample. This may have affected the results of the survey and percentages, as well as the final findings. Even though the compared groups were not equal, they were treated in the main analysis as if they were comparable. The random sampling of the case companies however might have compensated for the small sample insuring some representativeness.

2.8.3 Representativeness and Replicability
The replicability is mostly present in the following research, since just as in any cross-sectional study researcher had to describe the processes of respondent selection, choosing the instruments of research, design of the measure for concepts and data analysis, which should allow for the replication of methods in the following studies (Bryman, 2012).

Representativeness has been diminished for this study due to the unexpected lack of interest in the study and hence a small sample size. This has been slightly compensated for with the help of random sampling. The hotels, and the respondents have been randomly picked according to the primal characteristics that they had to comply with. The 4 and 5 star hotels in Denmark and England were chosen from different cities and of different characteristics, apart from the service level controlled by the star ratings. The same went for the respondents, they were picked randomly across different departments and regardless the personal characteristics as long as the employees for the first survey were in management positions and the employees for the second survey were their subordinates. Despite the effort to make the sample more
representable it was still not able to collect enough data to represent the populations, but rather present some of the analytical generalizability - generalizing the findings to theories rather than to populations.

2.8.4 Framework
The following framework has been used in the process of this research:

As we can see the framework for the following research starts with the level of empathy among hotel managers in UK and Denmark, which was measured with the first survey. UK and Denmark are being representatives of the two opposing cultures in terms of Masculinity/Femininity dimension, thus making them good cases for comparison. Later, the feedback on the managers’ effectiveness has been gathered from their subordinates through the second survey with some additional qualitative data from the interviews. Finally, the results of the two surveys have been compared between British and Danish respondents with the consideration of the interview qualitative data and the conclusions have been drawn from that.
2.8.5 Methodological Limitations

The following study has been faced with some problems along the way that are typical for the cross-cultural studies, namely: lack of funding in case of the travelling expenses abroad for data collection; the comparability of the data in terms of its categories, methods of data-collection; making sure that there is an equivalency among the samples of respondents being used in the data collection; time constraints etc. All of these have been encountered therefore creating several limitations for this study. The sample size was not sufficient enough for some proper statistical analysis and the representation of the population. Moreover the comparable groups varied in the number of respondents that may have created some measurement uncertainties. Due to time and financial constraints, the interviews to collect the qualitative data were only conducted in Denmark with the Danish respondents, leaving out the different factors that might have affected the responses of the British sample. Since the data collection in cross-sectional format is taking place at the same time, the manipulation of the variables was almost impossible, which causes a problem in drawing the causal relationship between the variables, the only conclusion in the absence of the experimental features could be made that the variables are related. This problem is called "ambiguity about the direction of causal influence" and makes the cross-sectional format lack some validity when it comes to the causal relationships between the variables (Bryman, 2012, page 59). Apart from the limitations mentioned above, this research has the very characteristic limitations of the chosen design and methods. Choosing the quantitative method restricts the research to using the natural science principles and has been criticized for being too rigid when it comes to studying the social world. Using self-completion questionnaires also posed the number of limitations for this study, since they are characteristic of limiting the amount and the types of questions in order to avoid tiring the respondents. Moreover, there is no opportunity for people to elaborate on their answers as well as in case something is not clear, there is no help provided to the respondents which may cause the misunderstandings and affect the quality of responses. Another limitations of this study is that the hotel industry being a very international work environment in many countries these days, it was impossible to eliminate the cultural characteristics of the managers, meaning if the managers, say, in UK are foreigners with the cultural background of the feminine culture their practices might have been influenced by their cultural background even though they are operating in country with a strong masculine culture. This factor was difficult to eliminate just as the factor of the work cultures where the companies themselves can be either very people oriented (feminine
orientation) or very result oriented (masculine orientation). These will have to be accepted as the limitations of this research.

Finally it should be mentioned that the whole bibliography of the document has been organized according to the rules of the American Psychological Association Style -APA style(American Psychological Association, 2014).

2.9 Surveys

2.9.1 Survey No. 1: Measuring Managers’ Levels of Empathy

Even though empathy has been admitted to be a very important human quality, the opinions on its definition have gone astray. Freud (1949), for instance, has described empathy as the ability "to take up any attitude at all toward another mental life". Mead (1934) defined empathy as "role-taking and as constituting the essence of social intelligence". Hogan (1969) gave a definition of "an act of constructing for oneself another's mental state". Finally, more recent scientists like Mehrabian and Epstein (1972) have described empathy as "an involuntary vicarious experience of another's emotional state" (Chlopan et al, 1985, page 1). Despite the many different definitions given to empathy, all of them have a common feature-the sensitivity towards other people's experiences and in some instance the ability to live through the emotional experience of those. According to different definitions of empathy, different scientists have proposed several measures of it over the years. They all mostly follow two different routes; first one, where empathy is viewed as just the ability to understand other's emotional state and the second one describing empathy as the actual experiencing of another person's feelings and emotions. The example of the empathy measure following the first route is Hogan Empathy scale, and the example to the second is The Questionnaire Measure of Emotional Empathy (QMME) created by Mehrabian and Epstein (1972). Both measures mentioned above are considered to have the most validity in comparison to other measures proposed, however they measure slightly different aspects of empathy.(Chlopan et al, 1985)

After the numerous measures such as George Washington Social Intelligence Test, Chapin Social Test, Dymond Rating Test of Insight and Empathy, Empathy Test and Hogan Empathy Scale have been introduced in the literature, Mehrabian and Epstein (1972) have noted the lack in all of them, since they were only measuring empathy as cognitive role-taking of the
others' emotions, which led them to creating a new measure, QMEE, that focused on measuring empathy as a more holistic, vicarious emotional response. (Chlopan et al, 1985)

Therefore, in order to measure the level of empathy among the managers, a ready made and one of the most valid questionnaires by Mehrabian and Epstein (1972) (See Appendix 2) on emotional empathy has been used. The questionnaire is comprised of 33 questions, requiring the ranking answers on a scale from -4 (standing for a strong disagreement) to +4 (standing for strong agreement), as well as the signs "+" and "-" in the questions indicating the direction of the results. (Mehrabian & Epstein, 1972) Apart from the original question in the empathy test, some demographical questions have been added in the survey on respondents’ gender, age and the leadership style, since those parameters are described in the literature as to having a link to the level of empathy (See Appendix 3). Consequently, the questionnaire has been inserted in the online survey template (https://www.surveymonkey.net) and sent out to the company's managerial workers for self-completion. The results of the empathy test were calculated, according to the guidelines from Mehrabian and Epstein (1972) by changing the sign of the numbers in the answers for the negative items of the test, and the total algebraic sum of the answers was further calculated. For the analysis of the results, the samples of the earlier results have been used for comparison, which stated that in the case of an equal amount of males and females responding to the test the mean =score was equal to M=33 and the standard deviation SD=24. As well as, another example taking the gender differences into account has also been used in the analysis. The latter stated that the separate statistics for males were equal to M=23 and SD=22, and for females M=44 and SD=22. (Mehrabian&Estein, 1972).

*Validity of the Measure*

In order to prove the test’s validity, it's been tested in two different settings; first one relating empathy and the aggressive behaviour; the second one relating it to the helping behaviour through a series of experiments that have proved its reliability and validity. (Chlopan et al, 1985)

**2.9.2 Survey No.2 Feedback on Managers' Effectiveness**

As opposed to the first survey, Survey no. 2 (see Appendix 4) was of personal fabrication and was conducted in a way so that the job attitudes of the non-management employees would be reflected. In particular, questions 3, 4 and 10 partially dealing with the sense of loyalty/commitment and job satisfaction, the longer stay in the company, future career plans
and positive recommendations are assumed to indicate better general job satisfaction and feelings of loyalty. Questions 5 and 8 are aimed at measuring employees’ motivation, both when it comes to work and the drive to do a better job. Finally, questions 6, 7 and 9 are indicators of how respected and appreciated the employees feel at work. Here the respondents are asked about the frequency of appraisals and the ease and feeling comfortable when being around their colleagues and managers, i.e. factors that are tightly linked to job satisfaction and motivation levels.

2.10 Semi-Structured Interviews

After obtaining the survey results, the necessity aroused to collect additional qualitative data. This was conducted through 8 semi-structures interviews (see Appendix 5 for interview transcripts) with the respondents to the second survey (Feedback on managerial effectiveness) in Denmark. English subordinates were not included in the interviews due to time and accessibility constraints. Interviews were conducted in person after the respondents had answered the survey on the managerial effectiveness, where they were asked to elaborate on their answers and were asked some additional questions along the way in an attempt to gain more knowledge on the reasons for their work attitudes. The semi-structured interviews have been used because online questionnaires used to collect the quantitative data were by their nature restricted in the amount of the open-ended questions and semi-structured interviews provided an opportunity for that. The reason semi-structured interviews were more appropriate than unstructured interviews is because there were a set of questions/topics that needed to be explored and elaborated on, namely the reasons for the work negative attitudes revealed as a result of the second survey as well as whether there is a direct link between the management approach to the employees and the negative attitudes. Since the answers to the interviews were rather short and reflected very similar patterns, the most appropriate method to analyze qualitative data was coding. The coding of the data was mostly conducted through listing the biggest mentioned reasons for the negative job attitudes and putting them in larger categories. The positive job attitudes when detected have not bee taken into consideration, since the main preoccupations were the reasons for the negative attitudes, which Danish respondents presented the majority of.
3 Theory

3.1 Models of Emotional Intelligence

“What factors are at play when people of high IQ flounder and those of modest IQ do surprisingly well? I would argue that the difference quite often lies in the abilities called emotional intelligence”. — Daniel Goleman

3.1.1 Emotions Defined

Before going into describing the three main emotional intelligence models, it is necessary to become clear with the general terminology that has a direct connection to the EQ, such as emotions, intelligence and the combination of the two. Emotions are considered to be one of the four classes of mental activity that apart of it comprise cognition, motivation and consciousness. In the combination of the cognition, motivation and emotion, basic motivations are considered to arise as a result of the inner states of the body such as thirst, hunger and sexual desires, these basic motivations consequently push the body in the actions that would satisfy those basic needs following the certain time course and the manner of satisfying those needs (for example thirst is satisfied by drinking and arises before quenched). The second component of the triad, emotions are arising in the attempt to signal and respond to the change in the relationships between the individual and the surrounding environment. An example could be fear, caused by the danger and the following one of the possible reactions, that in this case could be fighting or fleeing. This makes a distinction between the motivation and emotion, making the emotion more flexible component. Lastly, cognition is the component that gives an opportunity to the individual to acquire new knowledge from the environment and solve the problems when faced with the unfamiliar situations. It's a crucial component of the triad and serves to satisfy motives and maintain the positive emotional level. The constant interaction between the three components plays a major part in the general personality functioning in its environment and blend tightly together. Emotional intelligence is believed to be mostly the result of the interactions between the emotion and cognition. (Stenberg, 2000)

\(^2\) (Goleman, 1995, p.12)
3.1.2 Intelligence defined
There are different types of intelligence known about such as human intelligence, artificial intelligence, military intelligence, but they all have a direct relation to the cognitive operations when it comes to gathering information, processing it and reasoning with it. The definition refined in 1921 by Terman, stated that: "An individual is intelligent in proportion as he is able to carry on abstract thinking" (Stenberg, 2000, pp.3-4) Thus, connected to the abstract thinking, intelligence has for years been considered to be the predictor of the success, particularly academic one. Wechsler was one of the first who stated that two people with the same level of IQ could vary differently in their success when dealing with life and the surrounding environment. This statement has left a lot of space for new research that could go in one of the few directions. First, was to accept that this fact is due to the complexity of life in general and the chance of life events one is experiencing that might influence the success level. Second, approach was to dealing with the intelligence in a different way by changing how it's being assessed. Third direction the research went into was to give some credit in the success prediction to other non-intellectual characteristics of the personality. And final approach was to redefine intelligence altogether, making the non-intellectual traits of personality a part of intelligence. Wechsler went into the last direction of the research and was the first to speak about the non-intellectual capabilities as part of the general human intelligence and while most of the researchers agreed upon the importance of those non-intellectual features they were still reluctant to define them as part of the intelligence. The models of emotional intelligence that have gained most popularity have both, models that traditionally consider the emotional intelligence as the interaction between intelligence and emotion, as well as, models, that comprise different traits and features of personality into the general concept of intelligence (Stenberg, 2000).

3.1.3 Ability Models of Emotional Intelligence
On the contrary to nowadays' view on emotions and reasoning in psychology, in the earlier days they were considered to be in the opposition to each other. These days the concepts are seen as working hand in hand. Emotional intelligence deals with several emotional abilities that are divided in the four subgroups. The basis of those skills are the perception and an appraisal of emotions, that are acquired in the early infancy when the child watches the expression on the face of his parent as he cries etc. The second subgroup deals with
assimilating the emotions into the one's mental activity, for instance comparing different emotions to one another as well as to other feelings and thoughts. The third subgroup is the understanding of the emotions and reasoning process connected to them. An example could be when the emotion of anger is later replaced with an emotion of shame or embarrassment because of the inappropriately expressed anger or overreaction. This ability helps understanding how emotions unfold and the ground reasoning behind them. The most advanced emotional intelligence ability that goes in the fourth subgroup has to do with the controlling and regulations of the emotions in oneself and other's, knowing how to handle the distress or anger and calming it down before the emotional hijacking takes place (Stenberg, 2000).

The mental ability model of EQ predicts the structure of the intelligence and its influences on the person's life. It states that EQ is an intelligence that has to meet three typical criteria which are: a) mental problems have right and wrong answers depending on the alternative scoring methods; b) mental abilities correlate, therefore EQ skills will correlate with other mental abilities; c) The ability level is increasing with the age of the person. The model later on makes predictions on the person's characteristics and life, stating that the more emotionally intelligent the person is the more likely he/she has been raised in an emotionally intelligent environment (for example have had emotionally sensitive treatment from the parents), be less non-defensive, more optimistic with the higher level of gratitude and appreciation, choose positive emotional role models for oneself, be able to talk effectively about feelings and gain a good expertise in one of the emotional areas such as aesthetics, leadership, spirituality etc. (Stenberg, 2000)

3.1.4 Mixed Models of Emotional Intelligence
The mixed models of EQ, apart from describing emotional intelligence as the mental ability, also mentioned the features of the personality that come along with such intelligence. Some of the personality traits of the emotionally intelligent person described in these models included positive attitude towards life, higher level of accomplishments, persistence and making the most of the available opportunities. In 1997 the popular Bar-On model was introduced to the literature in an attempt to answer the question of why some people are more competent in life than others and identified five different factors that are supposed to be the predictors of success in one's life:

- Intrapersonal skills;
Inna Timofejeva, MSc International Business

- Interpersonal skills;
- Adaptability;
- Stress management;
- General mood;

The above groups were divided in even smaller groups later on for more detailed description. Thus the Bar-On model combined factors that belong to mental abilities and other factors that are separate from mental activity of the person, such as mood, becoming a mixed EQ model (Stenberg, 2000).

Goleman, the forefather of the emotional intelligence, created another popular EQ model. Just like the Bar-On it's a mixed model and comprises five different areas, that are the following:

- Knowledge of one's own emotions;
- Motivation of oneself;
- Recognition of the emotions in other people;
- Maintenance of the relationships with others.

(Stenberg, 2000)

In his model Goleman has described something broader that emotional intelligence as well as referred to character as an old-fashioned term for those abilities and skills that are characteristic for emotionally intelligent person. Goleman also claimed that his model is very effective at predicting success of the person in different areas of his/her life, such as school, family and career, giving many advantages to those individuals who rank higher on those abilities mentioned before. An interesting claim by Goleman included the statistical proportion of the EQ contribution to life success, which by Goleman's estimate is 20%, leaving 80% to other factors (Stenberg, 2000).

To sum up, there are ability models of emotional intelligence that consider emotions and their interactions with thought processes and there are mixed models of emotional intelligence that, apart from mental abilities comprise many more personality characteristics broadening the concept of emotional intelligence. Both types of models have a place to be in the literature and contributed knowledge into better understanding of the emotional intelligence. Some of the research that is backing up the mental ability approach to EQ has come up with a few findings:

1. There is a convergence in finding the answers to some questions about EQ;
2. There is a general factor of EQ, that has three subgroups relating to perception, understanding and management;
3. EQ is correlating to general intelligence, empathy and the mental abilities that are involved with it, increase with the age of the person.

When it comes to the research that's been backing up the mixed approach to EQ, the findings are a bit more blurred. Emotional intelligence has been claimed to be a good college grades predictor when measured by Schutte scale. The Bar-On scale has been failed to prove being useful when predicting academic success and Goleman's model has not been used by research and was claimed to be unreliable. Among the questions still to be answered are whether emotional intelligence is a better predictor of success than the IQ and whether this can be proved as well as the main challenges of the EQ posed for the future (Stenberg, 2000).

### 3.2 Measurements of Emotional Intelligence

Since the concept of the EQ has been introduced by Mayer and Salovey, several ways of its measurement have been explored, however none of them had enough of the psychometric properties to bring valid results. The measurements of the EQ consisted of task-completion exercises that take route in the measurement of the general IQ and different behavioural assessments of self and others as well as 360-degree feedback. All of the methods have received criticism, claimed to have lack of reliability and using factors and behaviours that were not directly relevant to EQ. Self-reports with the pencil-and-paper have been widely used to assess EQ, however those were claimed to give flawed results because of the existing biases. People may have self-perception biases they are not even aware of, and the scale of those biases has not been measured yet. In order to avoid these biases self-other reports have been introduced where the self-awareness report was compared with the others' perception on the same individual in search of the similarities of the two. However, this method also has it's own complications, for instance, people, who give assessments of the other person need to know him rather well to give the correct reports.

(Shipper et al, 2003)

### 3.3 Emotional Intelligence Comparison in Three Different Cultures

Despite the fact that emotional intelligence has been noticed to have a major effect on the success in the work settings, researchers that focus on the leadership have not been very eager
to accept this concept whole-heartedly, since there are obvious disagreements on how EQ has to be measured and its validity. However, all of the relevant research papers seem to agree on the positive effect EQ has in the career success and effective leadership. One of the least explored issues of EQ is how culturally relevant it is and whether it's effect in the work settings would be the same across countries. The research paper has been published comparing the three different cultural settings in US, UK and Malaysia in order to find out how relative the EQ, conceptualized as the managerial self-awareness, is when it comes to the effective management. The earlier research used the 360-degree feedback reports from managers and subordinates on a set of management skills, trying to find out whether there are any discrepancies between the two reports. The higher the agreement between the two sets of data, the higher the presence of the self-awareness in the managerial worker, hence the higher emotional intelligence level. The two sets of managerial skills that were measured were the interpersonal and the controlling skills. When it comes to the influence of culture, the measurements of EQ used in US are known to be not as relevant outside the country. Some cultures simply do not have the tendency to read and discuss other people's emotions and are more discrete about feelings in general. Since the culture can be described as a set of values and believes that influence people's behavior, it's obvious that culture has a direct effect on the handling of the emotions, that initially depend on one's believes and attitudes. It is also safe to assume that emotional intelligence takes different meaning across different cultures considering the fact that culture itself defers by the set of values, believes and assumptions. Taking Hofstede's cultural dimensions into consideration, the collectivist culture may not have a whole lot of relevancy to the self-awareness concept, since in the collectivist cultures a person never thinks of himself as an individual but rather a part of the group such as family or a tribe. Other Hofstede's cultural dimension relevant for EQ comparison is the uncertainty avoidance and the power distance. The higher certainty avoidance is characteristic for a certain culture, the lower emotional stability and self-awareness is prevalent in it. When it comes to power distance, the measurement of the results of the research has had problems in applying the self-other reports in the cultures with high power distance, since the higher respect for the authority and the fear of criticizing employees in higher ranks would be an obstacle in those cultures and prevent the employees from giving the correct information about their managers. Thus, the above mentioned factors might be influencing not just the concept and measurement of EQ, but also the relation between the level of EQ in managerial
workers and effectiveness of their leadership styles across different cultures. Moreover, the previous research suggests that the leadership styles taken up by the managers vary across cultures too. For example, the participative management style is more associated with the cultures with low power distance and the predominant collective features in the culture suggest more participation management style, with group discussions and search for the consensus. On the other hand, managers tend to show more of the controlling skills in their leadership styles in more masculine cultures and the cultures with the high uncertainty avoidance (Shipper et al, 2003).

When EQ was compared among three different cultures, namely US, UK and Malaysia, the results showed a positive relations between the self-other agreement on the managerial effectiveness, meaning that the less discrepancy there was between the self report and the report of the subordinates on the managerial work, the more effective the managerial worker tended to be and the higher level of EQ skills was applied at work, as reported by the superior personnel. When the managers' interactive skills were taken into consideration, the effectiveness in those skills was higher the more self-other agreement was reached. Moreover, the effectiveness was higher in cases when self-other reports agreed on the low level of the interactive skills than when the disagreement in self-other reports took place, proving the importance of the self-awareness. Presumably when the managers are aware of lacking in some area they are more motivated to compensate the lack in some other way, creating higher effectiveness. The similar pattern was noticed when evaluating the controlling skills of the managers in UK and Malaysia, however an unexpected result was found for the US, where the higher effectiveness was observed in cases of the highest disagreements. This could be explained by the fact that using controlling skills and reporting them is not approved of in the US culture. The cultural implications that resulted from the comparison between the three cultures was that in low power distance cultures the effectiveness is more predicted by the self awareness of the interactive skills whereas in the cultures with the high power distance, the self awareness of the controlling skills would be the greater predictor of the effectiveness. That proves Hofstede's statement that different cultures prefer and approve of different managerial skills and behaviors (Shipper et al, 2003).

3.4 Emotional Intelligence and Change Management
In order to look at the emotional intelligence and its influence on change management the three levels of culture need to be explored, namely national, organizational and professional.
The national culture can be defined by the Hofstede's cultural dimensions with the long-term orientation factor introduced to the literature by Bond. An example could be that any certain emotion can be caused by different factors and expressed differently across the continents. The organizational culture can vary, for instance, when dealing with for-profit and non-profit organisations and professional culture could be different due to different EQ factors, such as processing, handling and defining the stress in professions such as fire fighters and traders can be done in different ways (Herkenhoff, 2004).

Even though the six universal emotions of happiness, anger, disgust, dismay, fear and surprise have been known as the main expressions across the countries, since the research made by Darwin in 1899, further research has proven that the way people perceive emotion-arousing events and how they express those emotions is greatly influenced by the culture. That's when the culturally tuned emotional intelligence comes in handy. One of the practical examples of the emotional tuning in the national culture can be taken from the case study of Electronic Data Systems (EDS). With a Spanish Vice Presidents, that leaded a group of German sales people and the responsibility to report to the American headquarters, the conflict in this company was bound to arise sooner or later. Eventually, as little of an issue as the Spanish Vice President's lack of punctuality has become a big problem, since the German sales people perceived the President being late as a personal assault and disrespectful attitude. This further caused them to experience the emotions of anger and frustration. In the meantime, the Vice President, due to his set of cultural values, didn't think of it as a reason enough for others to be angry and frustrated and continued exercising his tardiness but complained about the negative attitudes to CEO in the American Headquarters. Putting the whole process in the model represented earlier, the three national culture's perspectives on the same event were demonstrated, proving that the same event has totally different emotions triggered among the groups and the differences between the ways people dealt with those emotions. The use of the model helped each group to see the event from the other cultural groups' perspectives and smoothed out the conflict between the employees (Herkenhoff, 2004).

3.5 Emotional Intelligence during the Times of Corporate Changes
A very interesting set of findings has been presented when looking at international Mergers and Acquisitions (M&A). M&As are themselves proven to be very radical events that create a high emotional response in the organizations. However, with little emotional attendance these events in companies can lead to cynical attitudes, high stress levels, higher cultural frictions
Empathy and Managerial Effectiveness across Cultures

3.6 Empathy

3.6.1 Empathy in Leadership

“Leadership is not about titles and positions. There are people with no titles who lead every day. ... Leadership is about making a positive difference and you cannot do that without empathy.”–Carly Fiorina, CEO of Carly Fiorina Enterprises and former CEO of HP

Empathy defined as the ability to understand other people's feelings and emotions from our own experience, is one of the most important skills an emotionally intelligent manager can possess. In the interpersonal communication only 40% happens verbally, but the remaining 60% is communicated through gestures, body language, mimics, tone of voice etc. Empathy is

3 (Tanase-Coles, 2013)
the very key to understanding all those non-verbal cues and getting an insight into the people's feelings. For the leader this skill is very important since it gives a better understanding of the subordinates, creates better communication and predicts some of the behaviors. Goleman, the forefather of the emotional intelligence pays an extra attention to the empathy and the effective management of people. Being highly empathetic gives a manager an "interpersonal power", a high self control to deal with stressful situation and managing the behaviors of others by understanding their inner emotional states and feelings. Due to the concept of the emotional contagion (people are likely to take up other's emotions, especially the positive one), emotionally intelligent leaders have an obvious advantage, since they can positively impact the emotional environment in the company and thus raise the efficiency of the subordinates. The opposite situation can also occur, when the leaders do not have a control over their own and other's emotions and thus negatively affect the emotions of others, reducing the general efficiency. Hence starting with the self-awareness and self-control is crucial in leaders, who will most often set the emotional tone at the workplace. Subordinates always look for some encouragement and empathy from the leaders' side. When a leader is able to understand intentions, feelings and direct the emotions into the positivity, he will get the most out of his team. This newly discovered power and influence the leaders have on their employees makes the responsibility of the leader and their role so much bigger and important.

Under a supervision of the self-aware, empathetic leader, people tend to have more trust in the group, bond more effectively, share ideas and accomplish task together. Here is a summarized list of the characteristics and benefits that the high level of empathy in leaders leads to:

1. Leaders are capable of building strong interpersonal relationships;
2. Have higher level of self-motivation;
3. Able to motivate their employees;
4. Have a better performance rate as leaders;
5. Easily adapt to the changes;
6. Create the spirit of cooperation in the company;
7. Have a good relations to themselves, high self-acceptance;
8. Gain trust from their employees;
9. Contribute to better emotional relations in between the members of the work team;
10. Create emotional resonance.

(Badea & Pana, 2010)
Leadership has become a more popular term in the recent past pushing out the more usual term "manager". There is an opinion that the distinction between leaders and managers is the following: “…inspiring leaders influence people to change direction, while inspiring managers motivate them to work harder" (Holt&Marques, 2010, p.1). Some of the other opinions support the view that leadership and management should be complementary to each other. Even though the different opinions on the subject will probably continue for years, both practices are considered to be important for the achievement of the corporate goals. The concept of 'leadership' has been known to the literature for about a century, earlier studies of the topic touching upon the leader himself as opposed to his performance circumstances. The features of the leader were believed to be unchangeable qualities people are born with. Only in the first half of the twentieth century, this opinion has changed. In the 21st century the leadership idea has become even more essential, not just in theory but as a necessity to address the life and work complexities. Many school have been consistently failing to develop the necessary characteristics in the future leaders as well as companies failed to implement proper leadership tools to address the rapidly changing world. This has forged even more intense study of the subject. One of the theories that gained attention was Allio's five concepts that was said to be necessary for a successful leadership:

- The leaders need to possess qualities such as competence and high moral principles;
- There's more than one best way of leadership depending on the circumstances and their constant change;
- Collaboration and inclusion of the stakeholders in the decision making process is important;
- High adaptability to changes is crucial and will ensure longevity;
- Leaders are best learning through their own experiences rather than from the books;

(Holt&Marques, 2010)

The theories on the leadership requirements kept emerging and complementing to the list mentioned above, however the skill of empathy has been consistently left out and not accepted as an important leadership prerequisite. Two consecutive studies have been conducted that gave interesting results on the role of empathy in the effective leadership. The first study was conducted in the form of survey in an undergraduate university where the students presented a sample with high diversity in terms of age, work experience and culture. The survey asked the students about the qualities that were most essential for a successful
leadership measuring each of the common qualities on a scale from 1 to 10. The results of the survey are summarized in the following Table 3-1:

Table 3-1 Importance of empathy in the successful leadership

![Graph](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality</th>
<th>Fall 2010</th>
<th>Summer 2010</th>
<th>Spring 2010</th>
<th>Spring 2009</th>
<th>Spring 2008</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intelligence</td>
<td>8.23</td>
<td>8.22</td>
<td>8.36</td>
<td>8.76</td>
<td>7.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charisma</td>
<td>7.54</td>
<td>8.56</td>
<td>8.68</td>
<td>9.29</td>
<td>8.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision</td>
<td>8.08</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>8.76</td>
<td>9.29</td>
<td>8.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authenticity/integrity</td>
<td>7.62</td>
<td>9.22</td>
<td>8.80</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>9.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drive/passion</td>
<td>8.69</td>
<td>9.22</td>
<td>9.52</td>
<td>9.12</td>
<td>8.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courage</td>
<td>7.38</td>
<td>8.44</td>
<td>9.04</td>
<td>8.88</td>
<td>8.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>6.15</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>8.12</td>
<td>8.18</td>
<td>6.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence/experience</td>
<td>7.46</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>8.44</td>
<td>8.29</td>
<td>9.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service</td>
<td>7.54</td>
<td>9.44</td>
<td>8.56</td>
<td>8.53</td>
<td>7.70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Holt&Marques (2010, page 4)

As it is noted from Table 3-1 the results is a consistency in empathy skills rated as the least important quality in the leadership, as well as some other qualities consistently measured at the highest level in importance. The results were put together for 5 different classes participating in the survey, and are represented in Table 3-2:
The second study was based on the results of the first one and included representation of the previous results and asking two MBA course students about their opinion on why they think the empathy has consistently been rated as the least important quality for effective leadership. A total of 35 MBA students participated in the study, listing the reasons they thought could have given such results. After a thorough analysis and coding of the information and comments provided by the students the following summarized list of reasons was identified:

1. Empathy hinders the rational and ethical decision-making processes;
2. Empathy can come across a sign of weakness;
3. There is too little work and life experience among respondents in order to recognize the importance of empathy;
4. Disassociation of business from the human component;
5. Confusion between empathy and pity, which is dehumanizing;
6. Empathy lacks stability in the face of other qualities;
7. Lack of mentioning and discussion of empathy in the literature;
8. Lack of the empathy skills in the respondents themselves;

Table 3-2 Importance of Empathy in the Successful Leadership, Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source: Holt&amp;Marques (2010, page 5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>1. Empathy hinders the rational and ethical decision-making processes;</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Lack of mentioning and discussion of empathy in the literature;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Lack of the empathy skills in the respondents themselves;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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(Holt&Marques, 2010)

All these codes were further summarized in the two big topics: respondents think that empathy is inappropriate in the business environment and lack knowledge about empathy themselves (Holt&Marques, 2010, p. 6).

The recent literature touching upon the topic of empathy has presented the fact that in general business student and business leaders have a fairly low level of empathy. Students in the business departments were found to be much more self-centered than the students of the other majors. Moreover, the students majoring in finance were found to be most narcissistic and least empathetic of all business students. Further research linked that narcissistic behavior of those students can lead to an unethical, immoral behavior in their future career as business leaders. There are many companies who present such behavior, because of the leaders who obviously lack some inter-human skills. The little amount of narcissism can be a positive quality in the business leaders however there is a very thin line between wonderful leaders like Bill Gates and Steve Jobs who also have a good set of inter-human qualities and psychopaths like Bernie Ebbers, utilizing their talent in a negative way. The latter characters are usually superficially charming, irresponsible, don't control their impulses and lack the social skills. Having entered the business environment, such executives make connections with all the people that have some sort of influence and power and start using them to manipulate the whole company. Despite their unethical behavior the ability to manipulate and get what they want these psychopath types prove to become quite successful, especially in the departments like law, stock exchange, medicine, advertising and universities. The danger of having such leaders at the steering wheel is that they set a very bad tone in the company, make employees less committed and unappreciated and lead to business acting in an unethical way ruining its reputation. Without empathic leaders the future of the business would look very grim that's why it is extremely relevant and the subject should be taken seriously (Holt & Marques, 2010).

Lastly, empathy gaining its importance in the business world can also take some time to develop; this has been proven by the research findings stating that teenagers are less empathetic than older mature people. Even though the empathy level develops automatically with years, there are also ways of speeding up the process by for instance, asking questions that enhance the connection and understanding of other people. There are many tools and courses available for development of this skill, and even though the behaviors mastered are
considered to be "soft", they have been proven to give very firm results in the companies (Holt & Marques, 2010).

3.6.2 Empathy in a Cultural Context

“At its very heart, a business is the beauty of bringing together people and things to make the community better off—these are the businesses we admire. Empathy is the one tool that makes it all happen.” - Angel Cabrera – President of George Mason University

Even though the emotional appeals are quite similar across cultures, there are some differences that can be observed. If we take individualist and collectivist cultures, which are consequently characterized by independent and interdependent view of the self, the concerns of the people from these two cultures varies. The members of the individualist societies are tending to separate themselves from others and prove their individuality. On the contrary, in the collectivist societies people are dependent on others and are trying to stay connected with them merging the emotional self-other boundary. When exploring the effect of this distinction in the consumer emotional persuasion, researchers identified "ego-focused" and "other-focused" emotions. The ego-focused emotions, such as pride, anger, happiness and frustration are the ones that are directly linked to the inner state of the person and serve his needs of individual awareness and expression. On the other hand, other-focused emotions, such as empathy, peacefulness and shame are directed to others in the social context or family and serve to satisfy the need for connectedness, harmony and considering others in one's actions and behavior. With the help of a set of experiments, the persuasive effect of the emotional appeal was tested in the individualistic and collectivist societies, trying to find out what type of emotional appeal would be more effective in different cultures and why. The results supported the notion that in the individualist cultures appeals connected to other-focused emotions versus ego-focused emotions had a more success in the individual societies. In the meantime collectivist cultures more positively responded to the ego-focused versus the other-focused emotional appeals (Aaker & Williams, 1998).

3.7 Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions

The first author shedding the light on the national culture issues was Geert Hofstede in his book "Culture's Consequences". According to Hofstede, the national culture can be defined as "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (Hofstede, 2001, p.9). He also presents the model depicting

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4 (Tanase-Coles, 2013)
the different levels of depth of culture, which consists of the visible practices and invisible values, called the "onion diagram" *(see Appendix 6).*

In his work, Hofstede describes five cultural dimensions that matter, when comparing the national culture across countries:

1. *Power distance (PD)* - the extent to which the level of power is distributed between the hierarchical level in the organizations and the acceptance of such distribution by the less powerful members;
2. *Uncertainty avoidance (UA)* - the extent to which the members of the culture tolerate change and unexpected situations;
3. *Individualism versus Collectivism* - the extent to which the members of the culture feel as independent individuals or on the contrary part of the community they live in;
4. *Masculinity versus Femininity* - the extent of the 'tough' masculine approaches in the society versus the more 'nurturing' approach characterized by the feminine approach;
5. *Long-term orientation (LTO)* - the extent to which the societies are focused on the long-term horizon in awaiting the gratification of their needs.

(Hofstede, 2001)

In the following research the Masculinity versus Femininity dimension will be looked at in depth when comparing the national culture.

### 3.7.1 Masculinity versus Femininity

The Femininity/Masculinity dimension has originally been identified by Geert Hofstede, when the value questionnaires were conducted among employees of different IBM departments on the importance of 14 work goals, such as benefits, freedom, security, challenge etc. The examples of the masculine culture countries are Japan, Germany, USA, Great Britain, Philippines and Mexico and of the feminine culture countries: Thailand, France, Scandinavian countries and Netherlands (Hofstede, 1998).

The Masculinity index (MAS) scores have been calculated in a similar manner as the individualism index scores, setting the range from 0 for the most feminine societies to 100 for the most masculine societies, and the score representing relative positions of the countries. It is important to note that as opposed to the individualism index, masculinity index in not related to the economic development of the countries, as there are both rich and poor countries that represent masculine and feminine societies (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).
The table ‘Masculinity Index (MAS) for Countries and Regions’ presents how different countries and regions score on the Masculinity/Femininity dimension (see Appendix 7). Masculinity is defined by the extent to which the country embraces the masculine cultural characteristics, such as earnings and achievement. Countries rated highly on the masculinity scale tend to emphasize the importance of their jobs and see various professions as characteristics of the gender. On the contrary, in more feminine cultures people tend to value life outside work more greatly and emphasize the importance of quality of life. The Anglo countries such as the US and Great Britain are very masculine in their culture. These societies are characterized by longer working hours and have work as the main priority in life. On the contrary, Scandinavian countries are seen as having very low scores on the masculinity, meaning that these societies tend to value the quality of life more, are less dedicated to work, have less working hours per week and take longer vacations. The less masculine the society is, the less inequality exists in terms of gender. More feminine societies are supposed to be better for female employees, since the positions are equally attainable by both genders and the occupations are not reserved for males (Cullen & Parboteeah, 2010).

The Masculinity/Femininity dimension has been the most problematic of the five cultural dimensions due to the labeling issues as well as the recognition of the fact that national cultures have huge discrepancies when it comes to Masculinity/Femininity(MAS) dimension. The reason the MAS dimension is still not fully recognized is due to its irrelevance to the country's economic situation, whereas when it comes to the other dimensions, such as power distance, uncertainty avoidance and individualism, their index scores can somewhat be predicted by the wealth of the countries. There is approximately equal amount of poor and rich countries that represent both high and low MAS scores. However, other cultural studies like Søndergaard's review and Schwartz's value study confirmed the influence of the MAS dimension and had strong correlations to MAS aspects. (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005)

3.7.2 Hofstede versus Other Cultural Theories
Since the publishing of the Hofstede's cultural dimensions framework, it has received a lot of criticism, some of it claiming that the model is too simplistic when describing a complex cultural aspect, other doubting the validity of the results taken from surveying only IBM managers, that may not be representative of the average person as well as claiming that the model is outdated and is not able to take the cultural changes into consideration. As a result,
an alternative cultural dimension theory was developed, called the GLOBE studies, which stands for Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour. The GLOBE studies were conducted by 17,000 managers across 62 countries, and found nine cultural dimensions to be relevant to differences in the national culture, some of which are the same or similar to the one's presented by Hofstede: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, societal and institutional collectivism, assertiveness (equivalent of the masculinity) and gender egalitarianism (equivalent of femininity). The other three dimensions discovered were future orientation, that is the extent to which people are concerned by the impact of their behavior on the future, performance orientation, that is the extent of the striving to the excellence and improved performance in the society and humane orientation. The feminine orientation is considered to be close to humane orientation discovered by the Globe studies and is defined by the extent to which the society is expected to be caring, generous and friendly toward one another. These societies are known to value qualities such as generosity, kindness, and love and treat others with respect and importance. Asian countries have been found to score highly on the humane orientation dimension (Cullen & Parboteeah, 2010).

Apart from coming up with additional dimensions, the GLOBE studies agreed that it is easier to analyze cultural dimensions of the country clusters rather that each individual countries. Therefore, ten clusters were identified to have similar cultural features: Anglo cluster, Eastern European cluster, Latin American cluster, Latin Europe cluster, the Confucian Asia cluster, Germanic Europe cluster, the Middle East cluster, the Nordic Europe cluster, the sub-Saharan cluster and the Southern Asia cluster. The Tables ‘GLOBE’s Cultural Clusters’ and ‘GLOBE’s Cultural Clusters and Nine Cultural Dimensions’ (see Appendix 8) show the examples of the countries that go in the cluster and the relations of the cluster to the nine cultural dimensions (Cullen & Parboteeah, 2010).

Aside from the GLOBE studies, other cultural studies have been conducted since the appearance of the Hofstede's "Culture's Consequences" in 1980, that used the same newly developed paradigm that was presented in the book. One of the best studies on national culture were conducted by Israeli psychologist Shalom Schwartz, who has developed a theory of fifty six values or the life principles which he has consequently tested on college students and elementary school teachers in more than fifty countries. Apart from looking at individuals' differences he also made a cross-country analysis that lead him to defining seven cultural dimensions, namely: affective autonomy, harmony, egalitarian commitment,
hierarchy, conservatism, mastery, and intellectual autonomy. The results of Schwartz's findings had many correlations to the ones of IBM, published by Hofstede, backing up the validity of the original cultural dimension theory (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

Yet another theory widely used in the business environment is the one of Fons Trompenaars', the Dutch business consultant, who has published his work on dimensions stemming from sociology theories of 1950s and 1960s, after he applied them to different countries. In his work Trompenaars has looked at: universalism versus particularism, affectivity versus neutrality, achievement versus ascription, individualism versus collectivism, specificity versus diffuseness, time orientation and relation to the nature, by conducting a survey consisting of seventy nine questions and sending it out to different organizational employees across thirty nine countries. Unfortunately the validity of the seven earlier mentioned dimensions wasn't proved by the results and just the two independent dimensions were found that had a direct correlation to individualism-collectivism, and the power distance (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

Finally, the World Value Survey (WVS) study, which was based on the testing values through the public opinion surveys, was conducted in 1980-90s. Even though it wasn't originally based on the Hofstede's paradigm, it had the result of classifying the national cultures, supported by the results from sixty thousand respondents from around forty-three countries. The survey comprised of 360 questions and touched upon various areas of life, including economy, education, family, morality, society, friends, gender, sexuality and a few more. The result of the study led to formulation of two major cultural dimensions: well-being versus survival and secular-rational versus traditional authority, both of which were found to have strong correlations to Hofstede's dimensions yet again. Well-being versus survival was found to be correlated with Hofstede's individualism and masculinity and secular-rational versus traditional authority were found to be negatively correlated with Hofstede's power distance.

All in all, WVS has had two rounds of survey conducted and the third round has been started, which is expected to bring up some more dimensions and correlations to the Hofstede's cultural paradigm (Hofstede & Hofstede 2005).

Just like any new paradigm, Hofstede's national culture study opened many doors to studying the culture further and creating some valid theory about the cultural dimensions. Just like any new approach it has experienced a lot of controversy and discussions among the scientists, however, after reviewing all the consequent studies that were and weren't directly based on
Hofstede's cultural paradigm, the findings have so far lead to proving the existence of the dimensions, and, even though given different names across the studies, have been found to have strong correlations to the original cultural dimensions. Even though a lot more work and studies should be done on the national culture, Hofstede's dimensions have proven to have a valid point in the literature and the correlated studies have only managed to find different ways of "cutting the same pie". (Hofstede&Hofstede, 2005, page 32)

3.7.3 Organizational culture
Organizational culture or corporate culture represents the way things are done and how people interact in a particular company that makes them different from the people working for any other company. This concept has become rather popular in 1970s and even though it lacks a proper definition, several attributes of the organisational culture have been identified:

- Organizational culture is holistic, meaning it refers to its wholeness rather to the parts of it;
- Determined by the company's history;
- Has a relation to anthropological subjects like rituals and symbols;
- Created and sustained by the employees of the company;
- Is a soft culture
- Is reluctant to change;

Apart from the 'programming effect' the organizational culture has on the employees of the company, it also affects other stakeholders, whoever interact with the company. Strong organizational cultures have known to have both positive and negative attitudes of people towards the company. While it can be a good way of creating commitment and cooperation among employees it can also lead a company to become very inflexible and rigid in the way it's doing things, which is not an advantage in an ever-changing business environment. Organisational culture is also known to be influenced by the national culture of the country it's operating in. For example, in the Nordic countries such as Denmark, Sweden and Finland, organizational culture has had quite positive effects, since the society does not rely on the hierarchy and rules in the same extent as, for instance, United States. On the contrary, organizational culture in those countries is seen as the emphasis on the irrational and paradoxical factors of the society and caused only positive attitudes towards the companies. The writers who have studied the organizational culture can be divided into two groups, with
two approaches that either sees the organizational culture as an attribute the company has or something that a company actually is (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

3.7.4 National versus Organizational Culture
Just because both national and organizational culture are called "cultures" does not reflect the similarity of their nature, on the contrary the two cultures are different in their cores and have different values and practices. Whereas the national culture is something people acquire during the first ten years of their lives and that forms the set of values of people, the organizational culture is a set of practices people are taking up in at an adult age when they start working at a particular organization that does not affect their core values. This distinction makes the organizational culture more superficial in comparison to the national culture. There are several levels of the culture, such as gender level, social class level, occupational level and so on. The more basic the level of the culture is, the more influence it has on the person's value sets, the less basic the level is the more it is about taking up some practices that do not affect person's values. This distinction is summarized in the following table:

Table 3-3 Balance of values and practices for various levels of culture

![Image](image.png)

Source: Hofstede & Hofstede (2005, p. 285)

A good example of the differences in national and organizational cultures can be an IBM study that found huge differences in the values of otherwise similar people, even though they were all subjected to performing similar practices in IBM. There is a lot of discussion going on about the globalization and how it makes national cultures look similar, however this conclusion is usually based on the similar practices rather than the set of values. For example, we have all noticed that people in different countries start wearing similar clothes, eat the
same food and engage in similar activities in their leisure time. This is however the superficial way of looking at culture since it only reflects similar practices. When it comes to deeper investigations of the inner values of people from different national cultures, they proof to maintain a lot of differences, such as feelings of good and bad and so on. Studies like IBM and World Value Survey have provided evidence for that theory (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

3.7.5 The Six Dimensions of the Organisational Culture

As a result of the IRIC cross-organizational study, the following six dimensions of the organizational culture have been identified:

- Process oriented versus results oriented;
- Employee oriented versus job oriented;
- Parochial versus professional;
- Open systems versus closed system;
- Loose control versus tight control;
- Normative versus pragmatic;

(Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005, p.292)

All of the above dimensions have equal importance and the order of those is just to the order in which they appeared in the study's questionnaire. Similarly to the national culture measurements there are indexes calculated for the organizational culture dimensions (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). The first dimension addresses the opposition between the focus on the means and the results. In the process-oriented cultures the employees can be described as risk-averse, and not putting enough effort in their tasks, however in the result-oriented culture employees can be described as putting the biggest effort in their jobs and being adaptable to the new unfamiliar situations and challenges (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

The second dimension is distinguishing between people oriented culture and the one that prioritizes the completion of work. In the people-oriented cultures employees felt more taken into consideration, with much more involvement in the decision-making and taken care of by their workplace. On the contrary, in the job-oriented cultures employees felt that the company was only interested in the job being done, did not take the responsibility of their well-being and let individuals take up serious decisions without involving anyone else (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).
The third dimension compares the approaches employees use to derive their identity, which can be either from the organization itself (parochial) or the type of job they’re doing (professional). Employees in the parochial cultures have been identified to feel the compliance of the code of conduct at work to the one at home, thought that the organization looks at the social background of the employees as much as their career before hiring them and didn't have a long-horizon vision of their career, leaving this task to their workplace. The latter group of employees, leaning towards the professional orientation did not seem to consider their personal life having influence on their employment and only considered their competences to matter at work. Moreover, they did look far into the future as opposed to the first group (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

The fourth dimension distinguishes between the closed and open systems, where in the open systems employees felt like their workplace is an open and welcoming place for everyone, and new employees did not need a lot of time to feel part of the organisation. The closed systems were characterised by employees feeling the opposite way, only certain people were able to fit in the organization, the companies practices kept secretive not just for the outside people but also for the insiders and new employees took more than a year to feel like home in the organisations. This is the only organisational culture dimension that had some influence of the national culture (Denmark scored quite highly on this dimension), as well as the dimension's purpose is to address the openness in the communication level in the companies. (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005)

The fifth dimension measures the internal structuring in the companies, with the loose control companies providing the sense of informality to the employees, approximate meeting times, less cost-conscious approach and the freedom to some job related jokes and remarks. On the other side, the tight control units made their employees feel that there were many unwritten rules in the company (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

Lastly, the sixth dimension addresses the customer orientation in opposing the pragmatic and the normative approaches. The pragmatic approach can be characterized by the focus on the customers' needs and the business results, with little regards to the ethics and procedures. On the contrary, normative approach stressed on the importance of correct business procedures leaving the customers and the business results for the second priority, as well as the high ethics standards prevailed in such units (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).
### 3.8 Cultural Dimensions Scores Denmark versus the UK

The following graph shows the two countries’ scores in the Hofstede's cultural dimensions:

**Table 3-4 Denmark versus United Kingdom in Cultural Dimensions**

As depicted in Table 3-4, Denmark scores 16 on the Masculinity/Femininity dimension (MAS), and hence is considered to be a feminine society. Just like in any feminine society it is important in Denmark to maintain a work-life balance, managers include their subordinates in the decision-making process and are supportive. Successful management in Denmark is achieved by striving for consensus, equality among people, ensuring a good quality of life and solidarity. As to conflict situations, these are usually resolved by compromise and Danes are known for their long negotiations and discussions in an attempt to reach such compromises. Work incentives include a flexible place of work, flexible working hours and more free time (Geert Hofstede, 2013).

The UK shows to be a rather masculine society, scoring 66 on the Masculine/Feminine dimension. This society is highly driven and oriented on success that goes out of congruence with the British polite, modest culture, which confuses some foreigners. A prerequisite for understanding the British culture is the ability to "read between the lines”, meaning that what is said is not necessarily what is meant. Contrary to Denmark and other feminine societies, like the rest of Scandinavia, the British see work as their first priority and set themselves clear performance ambitions (Geert Hofstede, 2013).

The stark differences between the MAS scores in Denmark vs the UK provide a good basis for comparing managers’ levels of empathy in the two countries.
3.9 Case companies for the research: 4- and 5-star Hotels in the UK and Denmark
The reason why the case companies were hotels with 4 stars and above (according to Forbes travel guide) is that the level of service was aimed to be on a high level, in order to ensure the higher interest and awareness of the emotional intelligence among the hotel teams, due to the high focus on the quality of their service. It might have been risky to contact hotels with lower ratings, since the focus on the good service and the awareness of the emotional intelligence could be too low for the employees to participate in the study as well as to bring better results. According to Forbes Travel Guide:

4 Star Hotels

“These hotels provide a distinctive setting, and you will find many interesting and inviting elements to enjoy. Attention to detail is prominent throughout the property, from design concept to quality of products provided. Staff is accommodating and takes pride in catering to your specific needs throughout your stay.” (Forbes Travel Guide, 2014 B)

5 Star Hotels

“These exceptional hotels provide a memorable experience through virtually flawless service and the finest of amenities. Staff is intuitive, engaging and passionate, and eagerly goes beyond expectations. The hotel was designed with your comfort in mind, with particular attention paid to craftsmanship and quality of product. A Forbes Travel Guide Five Star property is a destination unto itself”. (Forbes Travel Guide, 2014 B).

As we can see from the definitions of the 4- and 5-star hotels, they have a high standard and focus on the quality of service and attention to the detail. That makes those hotels more likely to have resources and willingness to think of the better practices in their management in order to motivate their employees and hence keep the service standard on the necessary level.

4 Presentation of Survey Results and Analysis

4.1 Highlights of Survey No. 1: Managers’ Levels of Empathy
As shown in Table 4-1, a total of 36 hotel managers have participated in the first survey, 25 of which operate in the UK (69%) and 11 in Denmark (39%). The smaller Danish sample is partly due to the considerably smaller size of the country and, thus, considerably fewer 4- and
5-star hotels that can be targeted than in the UK. It should be noted that even in the UK where significantly more hotels were contacted (300 hotels), only 11 hotels agreed to participate in the study. This may lead to the conclusion that there still is a lack of awareness about the importance of EI in managerial practices, and empathy in particular. This confirms a previous study on empathy conducted among MBA students that found that most respondents lack knowledge about empathy and even find it inappropriate in a business setting (Holt&Marques, 2010). The encountered lack of interest in this study can only encourage similar studies so that the relevant literature can be enhanced with more knowledge and companies’ awareness of the subject can be raised.

Table 4-1 Survey 1; Country percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Which of the two countries do you work in?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Great Britain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25=69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11=31%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


As to the respondents’ gender, 56% were female and 44% were male, with a more equal distribution of gender in the UK sample (see Table 4-2).
Empathy and Managerial Effectiveness across Cultures

Table 4-2 Survey 1 Gender distribution; Survey No.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is your gender?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Great Britain

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Denmark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Great Britain

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Great Britain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extracted from Survey Monkey (2014): [https://www.surveymonkey.net/MySurveys.aspx](https://www.surveymonkey.net/MySurveys.aspx)

Table ‘Level of Empathy Among Managers’ (see Appendix 9) and Table 4-3 show all the participating managers’ empathy scores. The numbers are managers’ empathy indexes.

Table 4-3 Managers' empathy indexes; UK vs Denmark

As Table 4-3 shows, empathy indexes vary considerably from -35 up to 88. To give an idea of how these figures compare to the average level, they can be compared to the results mentioned in the literature. When not gender specified, the mean score is equal to M=33, therefore making it even more obvious how big the deviation is in the survey results.
Inna Timofejeva, MSc International Business

according to the M=33. The means of the two countries are presented in the Table 4-4, without taking gender differences into consideration.

Table 4-4 Empathy means; UK vs Denmark

As shown in Table 4-4, the mean score on empathy in the UK sample was M=14, and in Denmark the mean score was M=33. Thus, the Danish sample complies with the above-mentioned average one to one, whereas the UK sample’s score is only half the average score, indicating a much lower empathy level than the known average.

4.1.1 Empathy Level versus Gender

Since empathy levels are known to be gender sensitive, it was also necessary to compare the scores and the means among males and females separately. For comparison and evaluation of the means, the average means from earlier studies have been used, namely for males Mean M=23, and for females, Mean M=44 (Mehrabian & Epstein, 1972). The tables in Appendix 10 and Appendix 11 show separate scores for males and females in the UK and Denmark in order to give a bigger picture. The table for the UK sample in Appendix 10 is particularly good for comparing empathy levels in females and males as the two genders are represented almost equally in the UK sample. However, based on the scores, the deviations from the gender-related scores seem to be quite high both ways in both gender groups.

The table for the Danish sample in Appendix 11 indicates that data is a bit more challenging as only four male and seven female managers participated, and also the groups are not equal for proper comparison. Females in the DK sample have more positive scores than males. However, this may just be due to the low number of male respondents.
Table 4.5 Empathy index means versus gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>UK+DK EMP means</th>
<th>UK EMP means</th>
<th>DK EMP means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4-5 depicts a bit clearer picture for comparison as it is comparing gender-specific means for the whole sample (both UK and DK), just for the UK and just for the DK separately. Despite the original assumption made from the review of the literature, when we look at the combined means for both countries, the mean for male, M=21 is higher than the mean for the females, M=19. Even though the difference is not major, only 2 points, it comes as a slight surprise, since the previous studies suggest average mean for females is higher than the one for males. Apart from that, another interesting observation is that both means for combined sample are much lower than the average means suggested by previous studies (M=44 for females and M=23 for males). The second set of data specific for the UK sample indicated an even more unexpected observation, with female mean score being even lower than the combined one and much lower than the male score, with female mean for UK being only M=9 and male score for UK M=19, this also does not confirm the previously suggested theory about female population being more empathetic than male, as well as indicating that UK sample empathy levels are lower than average in both genders, with especially big discrepancy in females. Only looking at the third set of data, for the Danish sample, the theory suggested earlier is confirmed, by female mean score being higher than male. Despite confirming the previous fact, the table also indicates the tendency that goes slightly against it with male scores M=30 being higher than the mean M=23 for males calculated in previous studies and female mean score M=35, on the contrary being lower than the calculated mean for females M=44, from previous studies.
4.1.2 Empathy Level versus Leadership Style

The next set of tables is going to evaluate empathy levels according to the dominant leadership style, being used by the managers. It was mentioned earlier in the literature that higher rates of the empathy levels are related to the transformational leadership style and vice versa. The assumption therefore would be that respondents using Transformational style would have higher levels of empathy. The Table in Appendix 12 indicates the scores of empathy levels, according to the leadership style in the UK sample. According to the table, it is obvious that the transformational leadership was predominant in the UK sample of managers with 73% of respondents choosing the transformational leadership as their predominant style. Apart from that, a very obvious tendency can be seen that associated higher score of empathy with the transformational leadership style.

The Table in Appendix 13 presents the scores for the Danish sample, and reveals a similar pattern as the table for UK, with transformational leadership being predominant in more than 64% of the respondents, and the higher empathy rates being associated with it.

Table 4-6 Empathy means versus leadership style

To get an even clearer picture Table 4-6 compares the means of empathy scores according to the leadership style for three groups of respondents; the combined group for UK and DK, the group of UK respondents and the group of DK respondents. As it was expected, the means of empathy indexes are much lower among respondents with transactional leadership style and higher among the respondents with transformational leadership style in all three groups. This
confirms the earlier proposed theory about the positive relation between the high level of empathy and the transformational leadership style.

4.1.3 Empathy Level versus Age
The earlier studies also suggested that the level of empathy not only can be trained but also increases naturally with age. In order to see how the survey results relate to this preposition, the empathy levels have been compared according to the age groups of the managers.

Appendix 14 shows the empathy scores according to different age groups for the UK sample. As the Table indicates there is the tendency in the youngest age group for the low and only negative empathy level scores. The biggest age groups represented were 25-34 and 35-44, and had higher results in empathy level than the 18-24 group. The link between the 25-34 and 35-44 group with the ascendant group of 45-54 is hard to define since there were only two respondents in the latter age group making it not very representative for comparison.

Appendix 15 had something in common with the UK sample, with the 25-34 and 35-44 age groups being in the majority and both groups having rather high empathy level scores. Unfortunately Danish sample did not have any respondents in the 18-24 group to compare with the English sample, yet it has a respondent representing 55-64 age group that is not represented in the UK sample. Unfortunately one respondent in 45-54 and 55-64 groups is not sufficient enough to find a strong link between the levels of empathy with the previous age groups.
Finally, the means of the empathy scores relative to the age groups are compared in Table 4-7, presenting three sets of data: combined UK and DK samples, UK sample separately and DK sample separately. According to the combined sample results, it seems to partially confirm the theory about the increase of empathy level with age, especially when looking at the most represented age groups such as 18-24, 25-34, 35-44, as the means are increasing in these age groups accordingly. Danish sample also shows a growing tendency of empathy with the increase of the age group except for the last group, however neither 45-54 nor 55-64 age groups can indicate a strong link or tendency due to being represented only by one respondent each. The same applies to UK sample when it comes to the last represented age group of 45-54, which is unlikely to indicate a strong tendency being comprised of only two respondents. However, the surprising tendency is observed in transition from 25-34 age group to 35-44 age group, where the empathy score mean drops from 22 to 15 in the UK sample. Since the two age groups are represented by the majority of the respondents and have approximately the same number of respondents they may be showing a valid tendency for UK sample and going against the earlier studies that suggest the level of empathy increases with age.

4.2 Highlights of Survey No.2 Feedback on Managerial Effectiveness

4.2.1 Question 1
According to Appendix 16 and Table 4-8 below, a total of 33 subordinates participated in the second survey giving their feedback on managerial effectiveness. Out of these 33 respondents,
13 were from the UK (39%) and 20 from Denmark (61%). Similar to Survey no. 1, even though the UK and DK samples are not equally large, they are treated as comparable, and some measurement uncertainties that may have been caused by that are accepted.

Table 4-8 Question 1b

### Which of the two countries do you work in?

- Denmark 61%
- Great Britain 39%

4.2.2 Question 2

According to Appendix 17 and Table 4-9, the age groups varied among groups from 18-24 to 45-54, the biggest represented age groups being 25-34, accounting to the 64% of respondents and 18-24 accounting for 24% of respondents, leaving 35-44 and 45-54 groups last two places accounting for 9% and 3% accordingly.

Table 4-9 Question 2b

### What is your age?

- 18 to 24 (3%)
- 25 to 34 (24%)
- 35 to 44 (9%)
- 45 to 54 (64%)
- 55 to 64
- 65 to 74
- 75 or older
4.2.3 Question 3
According to Table 4-10 there is a tendency for the Danish respondents to have a longer work period in their current companies. This may be linked to the better work attitudes, namely better job satisfaction and loyalty to the company, however in order to test that we will have a look at how the respondents answered the next question of the survey about their plans to stay in the company in the long term.

Table 4-10 Question 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>UK</th>
<th>DK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
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<td>0.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.4 Question 4
Appendix 18 and Table 4-11 show the willingness and plans of the respondents to stay in the current company and build their career there. Table 4-11 indicates a big discrepancy between the two extreme answer options, namely ‘Yes, definitely’ and ‘No’. As Table 4-11 suggests there were no respondents among the Danish sample answering ‘Yes, definitely’ to the question 4. Moreover, the majority of the Danish respondents chose an extreme opposite of it ‘No’ answer, which may indicate the lack of job satisfaction and commitment to the company among the Danish respondents. This also gives an answer to the results in question 3, even though the Danish respondents had a longer work period for their companies, for the majority of them, their choice to stay longer may have been due to some factors other than those of job satisfaction and high sense of loyalty to the company. On the other hand, for the British sample ‘Yes, definitely’ was the second most prevalent answer with 38% choosing this option, and none of the respondents chose the ‘No’ answer option, which may show the tendency of higher job satisfaction and loyalty among the British sample. Quite a big
discrepancy was also in the answer option ‘maybe’, with 54% of British and only 21% of Danish respondents choosing that answer option. Finally, ‘Not sure’ option received approximately the same amount of respondents (8% UK, and 11% DK respondents), therefore not indicating a big discrepancy.

**Table 4-11 Question 4b**

![Bar chart showing the frequency of responses to the question 'Do you plan to stay in the current company in the long term and build your career there?' for UK and DK respondents.]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>UK</th>
<th>DK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, definitely</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maybe</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4.2.5 Question 5**

Appendix 19 and Table 4-12 show the frequency with which respondents are motivated to go to work. The biggest discrepancy is observed in the first two answer options (‘Yes, always’ and ‘Sometimes’) and the last one (‘No’). As Table 4-12 suggests, the bigger percentage and the majority (54%) of the British respondents as opposed to only 35% of Danish respondents have the highest frequency of feeling motivated about going to work, choosing the ‘Yes, always’ option. Around a half and the majority of Danish respondents are motivated to go to work only ‘Sometimes’. Finally, the last option ‘Almost never’ was chosen by 5% of the Danish respondents as opposed to 0% on the British side. This may either indicate the lack of motivation for a particular job in the Danish sample or just be an outcome of the feminine culture that does not see work as the priority one in life as opposed to the masculine cultures.
Appendix 20 and Table 4-13 show the extent to which respondents feel appreciated and respected at work. As Table 4-13 indicates, the majority in both groups (54% in UK and 45% in DK) took the second option claiming they feel respected and appreciated ‘Sometimes’. The second favorite option was ‘Yes, always’, with 38% of respondents in UK and 30 % of respondents in Denmark. The discrepancy in the first two prevalent options wasn’t too big, less than 10% between the two groups, leaning towards slightly more positive work attitudes in UK. Going along with the first tendency, the bigger percentage in DK choose the ‘Rarely’ option as opposed to only 8% in UK, and 0% respondents taking the ‘No’ option as opposed to 5% in DK. The sum of tendencies indicated slightly more positive attitudes among UK respondents.
Do you feel appreciated and respected at your workplace?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>UK</th>
<th>DK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, always</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost never</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.2.7 Question 7

Appendix 21 and Table 4-14 show how willing the respondents were to socialize with their co-workers outside working hours, supposedly having a positive relation between the willingness to socialize and the job satisfaction. The percentages between the two country respondents didn’t show any strong discrepancies, except for the majority of DK respondents choosing the ‘Yes, definitely’ as opposed to the majority of UK respondents going for only a ‘Maybe option’. As Table 4-14 shows, both groups tend to be willing to socialize with their colleagues, with the Danish respondents being slightly more sociable. While this may indicate the positive job attitudes in Danish sample, it should be noted that other factors may have influenced the results, such as the informal work culture in Denmark that may make people be more comfortable to socialize with their coworkers and share private time with them, as opposed to the more formal work culture in United Kingdom.
Table 4-14 Question 7b

Are you willing to spend time with your co-workers outside your working hours?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>UK</th>
<th>DK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, definitely</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maybe</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.8 Question 8

Appendix 22 and Table 4-15 show a very important set of results when it comes to the influence of the managers, since it is a direct job of the manager to motivate/inspire employee to do the best job they can. According to Table 4-15, there is a very strong tendency for the majority of UK employees (83%) to always feel motivated to do a better job even when it implies an extra effort. This is opposed to only 10% of Danish employees that chose the first option. Moreover, the majority of the Danish employees had the motivation to go an extra mile only ‘Sometimes’, with 75% of respondents choosing that option (as opposed to only 17% of UK respondents). Finally, none of the UK respondents went for the last two options of ‘rarely’ and ‘almost never’, which would indicate a very low level of work motivation. However 15% of Danish respondents chose the last two options, indicating a higher work motivation in the UK sample.
4.2.9 Question 9
Another set of data in Appendix 23 and Table 4-16 on the frequency of appraisals from the management shows a rather negative attitude among the Danish respondents in comparison to the UK respondents, with the majority of them (30%) claiming they ‘almost never’ get an appraisal for a good job they have done. None of the UK respondents went for that option. On the contrary, the majority of the UK respondents (50%) said they were getting appraisals ‘Sometimes’ and the second biggest group answered ‘Always’.

Table 4-16 Question 9b

How often do you get an appraisal for a job well done?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>UK</th>
<th>DK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost never</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.10 Question 10

Appendix 24 and Table 4-17 reflect how willing the employees are to recommend their workplace to someone close to them, assuming the positive relationship between the positive job attitudes and the willingness to recommend their workplace to others. The big discrepancies are again visible in the two extreme positions; the first (‘yes, definitely’) option and the last (‘Probably not’) option. As Table 4-17 indicates, the considerably bigger percentage of 38% in the UK sample was definitely willing to recommend their workplace with only 15% in the Danish sample were willing to do so. The last option (‘Probably not’) was chosen by 15% of the Danish respondents, as opposed to 0% among the UK respondents. Despite these discrepancies in the two extreme answer options it should be noted that the majority of both groups and approximately equal amount of respondents said they would ‘maybe’ recommend their work place to someone they cared about, leading to the attitude of the majorities to be rather positive.

Table 4-17 Question 10b

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>UK</th>
<th>DK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, definitely</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maybe</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probably not</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All in all, the work attitudes among the UK respondents had a tendency to be more positive than those of the Danish respondents, sometimes indicating a slight contrast and sometimes a high contrast in the attitudes of the two groups.
4.3 Interviews; Danish Subordinates Elaborating on Their Answers to Survey no. 2 and Reasons for Their Job Attitudes.

According to the transcripts of the interviews (See Appendix 5), the Table in Appendix 25 summarized categories of reasons that have been mentioned to have caused the negative job attitudes among the Danish employees. The reasons for the negative attitudes have been summarized into following several categories(See descriptive text in Appendix 25): Job, Growth, Career, Pay, Perks, Personal and Management. For the final question the codes include High or Low with an indication of the presence and the importance of other factors (independent of the managers’ practices), indicating whether there is a direct strong link between managers’ approach to employees and the negative job attitudes.

As Appendix 25 suggests, out of 40 cases of negative work attitudes, the ‘management’ category was mentioned as the reason for them in 24 cases, which is more than 60% of the cases. The other categories of the reasons were mentioned with the following percentage frequencies:

- JOB 12=30%;
- Growth 6=15%;
- Perks 4=10%;
- Personal 3=8%;
- Career 2=5%;
- Pay 1=3%.

Moreover, the last question, as the Appendix 25 suggests, reflects that all the respondents mentioned the strong correlation between their job attitudes and the managers’ approach, only 3 out of the 8 respondents claiming the other factors are as important in their attitudes, but not denying that management has a big influence on their work attitudes.

To conclude, as the results of the interviews with the Danish subordinates suggest there is a tendency of the direct link between the management and the negative work attitudes among Danish employees that were revealed as a result of the second survey, suggesting that in 60% of the cases the management approach to the employees are the main reason for lack of motivation, work satisfaction and the sense of loyalty to the company among Danish subordinate respondents.

4.4 Final Discussion

On the basis of my findings and highlights from the second survey, the questions that provided the biggest discrepancies between the UK sample and the Danish sample were question 4, question 8 and question 9, leaning towards more negative work attitudes in the Danish sample. Question 5 showed only a slight discrepancy leaning towards such tendency. The set of questions that presented the biggest discrepancies are measuring slightly different aspects of work attitudes together including all the categories mentioned in the methodology,
Inna Timofejeva, MSc International Business

namely job satisfaction (Q4,Q9), motivation (Q5,Q8, Q9) and the loyalty to the company (Q4). Therefore it may be concluded that the negative attitudes are prevalent in the Danish sample in all of the categories: loyalty, job satisfaction and motivation. The question 4 in the survey is related to question 2 in the interview, and according to the Table in Appendix 25 the major reasons for the lack of loyalty, is not the management, but rather job itself, lack of growth and lack of career opportunities. Only one respondent out of 8 mentioned management as a reason for not willing to stay in the company in the long run, thus indicating that the lack of loyalty may not have a direct link to the management approach or managerial level of empathy. However questions 8 and 9, relating to the interview questions 6 and 7 accordingly, indicate that for the majority of interviewees ‘management’ is the major reason for the bad attitudes in the aspects of lack of motivation and job satisfaction. In survey question 8, on motivation to go an extra mile to provide a good service 6 interviewees had a negative attitude and 4 of them mentioned management as the main reason for that. Another reason that was mentioned was ‘personal’, with 3 out of 6 respondents explaining their lack of motivation with that. The negative attitudes in job satisfaction in terms of the frequency of appraisals(survey question 9) was explained by the ‘management’, with 5 out of 6 respondents, and only 1 out of 6 explaining the lack of appraisals by the ‘job’. Finally survey question 5 directly linked to interview question 3, measuring the motivation to go to work, even though having just slightly more negative tendency in the DK sample, was still explained by the management with 2 out of 5 respondents mentioning it as a reason for their lack of motivation.

When it comes to linking the manager’s level of empathy and more negative job attitudes in the Danish sample, there might be some other factors that this study was not able to uncover. Working in a feminine culture, where there is a strong attendance to the people’s feeling and needs, Danish respondents may have much higher expectations from their managers. Even though the empathy level in DK sample was exactly the average mean from the previous studies M=33, it is just an average, not indicating any exceptionally high empathy levels in the Danish managers that would comply with assumingly heightened expectations among Danish employees. Other factors such as the general job market situation might have also affected the results, due to the lower unemployment in Denmark than the one in UK, Danish employees may feel they are more secure and have more options to switching to other jobs. Even in the face of unemployment, Danish employees have very good unemployment
benefits, and they may feel very secure even in the case of being without the job, which may allow for more negative attitudes about the jobs in general. As mentioned before Scandinavian countries are seen to be having very low scores on the masculinity, meaning that these societies tend to value the quality of life more, are less dedicated to work, have less working hours per week and take longer vacations. This may have also affected the level of motivation, commitment among the Danish respondents. On the other hand, in UK due to much higher unemployment and less financial security in the case of unemployment, British employees might appreciate their job more and feel more motivated and loyal to the company they work in. Moreover, working in a masculine culture may have ‘trained’ them not to expect a lot of empathic behavior from their managers, including attendance to their feelings and needs, therefore the assumption may be that the low level of empathy does not have a big influence on job attitudes of the British employees. Finally people working in strong masculine cultures are more dedicated to their work and achievements in general, that may strive British employees to higher motivation and commitment to their jobs. These are just assumptions to the slightly unexpected results revealed in this study, which may only encourage further similar studies taking different factors into consideration.

On the basis of my analysis of the data acquired by means of my questionnaires and interviews, it may be concluded that the Danish sample has a tendency to have more negative job attitudes, especially when it comes to motivation and job satisfaction, despite the higher empathy levels among their managers. Moreover, these negative attitudes seem to have a direct link to the management approach in majority of the cases. On the other hand, the British sample has a tendency for more positive job attitudes, in all three aspects of motivation, job satisfaction and loyalty to the company, despite the twice as low level of empathy among the British managers. All in all, the data that has been gathered indicates that in the light of the considerably lower empathy levels in the managers in the United Kingdom, the work attitudes have a tendency to be more positive than in Denmark. In order to accept the null hypothesis and conclude that the level of empathy has the same effect on the work attitudes in the masculine culture as it does in the feminine, the work attitudes in the UK sample would have to be at least twice as more negative as the work attitudes in the Danish sample. The results pointed to the contrary, thus the answer to the research question posed in the beginning of this study may be concluded to be that the level of empathy does not have the same effect in the strong masculine culture as in the strong feminine culture, leading to
rejecting the Null Hypothesis and accepting the Alternate Hypothesis: H1: “Managers’ level of empathy does not have the same effect on their managerial effectiveness in a strong masculine culture as in a strong feminine culture”. This may accordingly lead to the conclusion that when operating in the strong masculine culture, the training of empathy skills among the managers may not bring more effectiveness in their practices. On the contrary, when operating in the strong feminine culture, managers may need to have higher than average levels of empathy in order to meet the heightened employee expectations, since, as the results indicated, just an average empathy level may not be sufficient to meet the needs for attendance to employees’ feelings on a level that would create high job satisfaction, motivation and sense of commitment in the subordinates.

5 Conclusion
This study attempted to explore the topic of emotional intelligence (EI) and its importance for managerial effectiveness in a highly masculine culture (the UK) versus a highly feminine culture (Denmark). Empathy, one of the most important EI skills in business settings, turned out to be less explored in the existing literature on this topic. Moreover, there is a lack of awareness on this topic among business students who even find it inappropriate in a business setting. Empathy is known to be crucially important for effective management of people, since there is a direct link between an empathic leader who is able to attend to people’s needs and feelings and positive job attitudes among employees. In order to expand knowledge on successful leadership practices when managing across cultures, this study aimed to explore whether empathy skills are equally important in a strong masculine (the UK) and in a strong feminine culture (Denmark). According to the results of the study, the lack of awareness and interest in the topic was detected in both countries, which is in line with previous studies. Apart from that, the theory about the positive relationship between the transformational leadership style and high empathy levels among managers was confirmed. The theory about empathy levels increasing with the individual’s age was hard to determine, since only the combined results for the two countries and the Danish sample reflected the increase in the ascending age groups. The UK sample represented an opposite relation in the two most represented age groups. Finally, the relation between gender and empathy levels was also only partly confirmed by the results of the study, as only the Danish sample confirmed the
theory of higher empathy levels among women than men. The UK sample and the combined sample for both countries presented an opposite relationship.

All in all, the levels of empathy in the UK sample turned out to be almost twice as low as those in the DK sample, the mean of the DK sample being equal to the mean from previous studies, i.e. M=33, and the mean of the UK sample reaching only 14, which is considerably lower than the known average. In the light of the large discrepancies in empathy means among managers in the two samples, the work attitudes in the British sample of subordinates unexpectedly turned out to be more positive than the job attitudes in the Danish sample of subordinates in all three main aspects - job satisfaction, motivation and commitment to the company. Moreover, as a result of additional qualitative data, the negative work attitudes in the DK sample were directly connected to the applied management practices in 60% of the cases, all Danish interviewees claiming that their managers’ approach had a significant influence on their negative job attitudes. Despite the lack of information on the additional factors that caused more positive work attitudes in the British sample of subordinates, all the collected data in this study shows tendencies that managers’ levels of empathy do not have the same effect on their respective managerial effectiveness in a strong masculine culture (the UK) as they do in a strong feminine culture (Denmark), thus providing the answer to the research question posed earlier. This, in turn, leads to accepting the alternate hypothesis and rejecting the null hypothesis posed in the beginning of this paper. This may imply that, when it comes to managing across cultures, other factors than managerial levels of empathy may bring more positive results in a strong masculine culture, and that investing in the emotional intelligence training programs for managers may not necessarily pay off in terms of higher effectiveness. On the contrary, in a strong feminine culture, empathy training for managers may be of greater importance, as even an average level of empathy among managers may not necessarily be enough to effectively manage people in such a culture.
6 Recommendations and Further Research

This study was conducted in order to expand the scarce literature on the importance of Emotional Intelligence in managerial practices across cultures. While the main methods used have turned out to be appropriate and partially were a replication of previous studies relying mostly on structured interviews for collecting quantitative data, the study may be said to lack more qualitative data, which is primarily due to time and resources constraints. The lack of qualitative data has hindered a deeper exploration of emotional empathy and its influence on managerial effectiveness as well as limited the study of the UK sample to only quantitative data. Furthermore, the size of the sample in this study and unequal comparison samples prevent generalization of the findings to the population. As to further research, it may be recommended to conduct a similar study with the same method of collecting quantitative data, but with a larger sample of at least 100 respondents for each survey, and run regression statistical tests that would show what hypothesis would be true for the population. Moreover, additional methods for collecting qualitative data, e.g. case studies and interviews in both samples, can be recommended, as they would help explore what other factors are at stake when determining job attitudes among employees. This would allow the study to identify a more realistic relationship between the level of empathy and job attitudes. Apart from its limitations, this study can be useful as a starting point for further research with enhanced methods. Also, the study has provided some generalizability to the theories presented in previous research. Apart from social researchers and students conducting similar studies, this research could be useful for managers and business owners who operate across cultures as it may have shed some light on what strategy of management is the most effective and what qualities/skills are important for managers to possess in certain cultural contexts.
### Appendices

#### Appendix 1

**Subjectivism versus Objectivism**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjectivist view</th>
<th>Objectivist view</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominalism</td>
<td>Ontology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anti-positivism</td>
<td>Epistemology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voluntarism</td>
<td>Human nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideographic</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: (Burrell & Morgan, 1979, p. 3)*

**Nominalism versus realism**

The ontological discussions between the nominalism and realism strands have been ongoing in the literature. The nominalist point of view on the social world is such that it is comprised of names and labels and that there is no ‘real’ structure in the social world that are described by those labels. The environment is seen as external in relation to the individuals. On the contrary, realism supports the position of the external world having a firm structure, and they are existent regardless of them being labeled or not. In this stance the social world can be compared to the natural world, with its properties of existence and not being the product of the human creation (Burrell & Morgan, 1979).

**Anti-positivism versus positivism**

This is an epistemological discussion between the two contradicting views. The positivistic approaches deal with explanations and predictions of the social world occurrences by discovering the regularities and the cause and effect relations in the social world. The methods of study with this approach heavily rely on the natural science methods, the hypothesis testing being the predominant. Even though positivists vary in their approach to either to confirm the truth of hypothesis or determine its false, they both are sharing the point of view of the cumulative process that the knowledge is obtained in, by adding new facts and disposing of the false hypotheses. The anti-positivism, on the other hand, does not believe in the observational methods in their epistemology. They promote the idea of the social world being more subjective to the individuals and acknowledge the importance of the participation in the activities by the individual in order to acquire any proper knowledge. Consequently the anti-positivists also reject the scientific methods of obtaining knowledge (Burrell & Morgan, 1979).
Voluntarism versus determinism

The debate between voluntarism and determinism is evaluating the free-willed view of the individual who is independent in his actions regardless the surrounding environment on the one hand, and the dependent view of the individual on the other, in which case the individual is dependent on the surrounding environment and his actions are determined by it. Very often the scientists have to take the position somewhere in the middle of the two extreme positions instead of sticking to the one extreme (Burrell & Morgan, 1979).

Ideographic versus nomothetic theory

The ideographic approach to acquiring knowledge states that this can be done only through the personal investigation, where the scientist gains a first-hand knowledge. It requires the personal immersion in the situation leaving less credibility to historical sources of information. The nomothetic approach is mostly preoccupied with using systematic protocol and techniques, thus relying largely on the natural science approaches and quantitative methods gathering and analysing the data (Burrell & Morgan, 1979).
Appendix 2
The Questionnaire for Measuring The Empathic Tendency

(+ ) 1. It makes me sad to see a lonely stranger in a group.

(-) 2. People make too much of the feelings and sensitivity of animals.

(-) 3. I often find public displays of affection annoying.

(-) 4. I am annoyed by unhappy people who are just sorry for themselves.

(+ ) 5. I become nervous if others around me seem to be nervous.

(-) 6. I find it silly for people to cry out of happiness.

(+ ) 7. I tend to get emotionally involved with a friend's problems.

(+ ) 8. Sometimes the words of a love song can move me deeply.

(+ ) 9. I tend to lose control when I am bringing bad news to people.

(+ ) 10. The people around me have a great influence on my moods.

(-) 11. Most foreigners I have met seemed cool and unemotional.

(+ ) 12. I would rather be a social worker than work in a job training center.

(-) 13. I don't get upset just because a friend is acting upset.

(+ ) 14. I like to watch people open presents.

(-) 15. Lonely people are probably unfriendly.

(+ ) 16. Seeing people cry upsets me.

(+ ) 17. Some songs make me happy.

(+ ) 18. I really get involved with the feelings of the characters in a novel.
Inna Timofejeva, MSc International Business

(+) 19. I get very angry when I see someone being ill-treated.

(-) 20. I am able to remain calm even though those around me worry.

(-) 21. When a friend starts to talk about his problems, I try to steer the conversation to something else.

(-) 22. Another's laughter is not catching for me.

(-) 23. Sometimes at the movies I am amused by the amount of crying and sniffling around me.

(-) 24. I am able to make decisions without being influenced by people's feelings.

(+ )25. I cannot continue to feel OK if people around me are depressed.

(-) 26. It is hard for me to see how some things upset people so much.

(+ )27. I am very upset when I see an animal in pain.

(-) 28. Becoming involved in books or movies is a little silly.

(+ )29. It upsets me to see helpless old people.

(-) 30. I become more irritated than sympathetic when I see someone's tears.

(+ )31. I become very involved when I watch a movie.

(-) 32. I often find that I can remain cool in spite of the excitement around me.

(-) 33. Little children sometimes cry for no apparent reason.

Source: Mehrabian & Epstein, (1972, p. 4)
Appendix 3

Survey No.1: Levels of Empathy among Managers, Including Demographic Questions.
The Level of Empathy Among Managers

Dear manager, thank you for your cooperation. All your answers are going to be kept strictly confidential.

* 1. Which of the two countries do you work in?
   - Great Britain
   - Denmark

* 2. What is your gender?
   - Female
   - Male

* 3. What is your age?
   - 18 to 24
   - 25 to 34
   - 35 to 44
   - 45 to 54
   - 55 to 64
   - 65 to 74
   - 75 or older

4. What is your position in the company?

5. What is your predominant leadership style?
   - Transformational
   - Transactional
   - Other (please specify)
### The Level of Empathy Among Managers

Now prepare for a set of question statements that will measure your level of emotional empathy. Please rate each statement on the scale from -4 to +4, depending on the extent of your agreement to the statement. (-4 standing for a very strong disagreement and +4 standing for a very strong agreement)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Rating Scale</th>
<th>Responses</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6. It makes me sad to see a lonely stranger in a group.</td>
<td>-4 to +4</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. People make too much of the feelings and sensitivity of animals.</td>
<td>-4 to +4</td>
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<td>8. I often find public displays of affection annoying.</td>
<td>-4 to +4</td>
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<td>9. I am annoyed by unhappy people who are just sorry for themselves.</td>
<td>-4 to +4</td>
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<td>10. I become nervous if others around me seem to be nervous.</td>
<td>-4 to +4</td>
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</table>
## The Level of Empathy Among Managers

### 11. I find it silly for people to cry out of happiness.

-4 (Very strongly disagree) | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 (Very strongly agree)

### 12. I tend to get emotionally involved with a friend’s problems.

-4 (Very strongly disagree) | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 (Very strongly agree)

### 13. Sometimes the words of a love song can move me deeply.

-4 (Very strongly disagree) | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 (Very strongly agree)

### 14. I tend to lose control when I’m bringing bad news to people.

-4 (Very strongly disagree) | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 (Very strongly agree)

### 15. The people around me have a great influence on my moods.

-4 (Very strongly disagree) | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 (Very strongly agree)

### 16. Most foreigners I have met seemed cool and unemotional.

-4 (Very strongly disagree) | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 (Very strongly agree)
### The Level of Empathy Among Managers

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<th>4 (Very strongly agree)</th>
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<td>17.</td>
<td>I would rather be a social worker than work in a job training centre.</td>
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<td>20.</td>
<td>Lonely people are probably unfriendly.</td>
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<td>21.</td>
<td>Seeing people cry upsets me.</td>
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<td>22.</td>
<td>Some songs make me happy.</td>
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## The Level of Empathy Among Managers

### 23. I really got involved with the feelings of the characters in a novel.
-4 (Very strongly disagree) -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 (very strongly agree)

### 24. I get very angry when I see someone being ill-treated.
-4 (Very strongly disagree) -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 (very strongly agree)

### 25. I am able to remain calm even though those around me worry.
-4 (Very strongly disagree) -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 (very strongly agree)

### 26. When a friend starts to talk about his problems I try to steer the conversation to something else.
-4 (Very strongly disagree) -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 (very strongly agree)

### 27. Another’s laughter is not catching for me.
-4 (Very strongly disagree) -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 (very strongly agree)
### The Level of Empathy Among Managers

#### 28. Sometimes at the movies I am amused by the amount of crying and sniffling around me.

-4 (Very strongly disagree) -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 (Very strongly agree)

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#### 29. I am able to make decisions without being influenced by people’s feelings.

-4 (Very strongly disagree) -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 (Very strongly agree)

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#### 30. I cannot continue to feel OK if people around me are depressed.

-4 (Very strongly disagree) -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 (Very strongly agree)

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#### 31. It is hard for me to see how some things upset people so much.

-4 (Very strongly disagree) -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 (Very strongly agree)

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#### 32. I am very upset when I see an animal in pain.

-4 (Very strongly disagree) -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 (Very strongly agree)

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#### 33. Becoming involved in books or movies is a little silly.

-4 (Very strongly disagree) -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 (Very strongly agree)

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Page 6
### The Level of Empathy Among Managers

#### 34. It upsets me to see helpless old people.

- 4 (Very strongly disagree) 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4 (Very strongly agree)

#### 35. I become more irritated than sympathetic when I see someone's tears.

- 4 (Very strongly disagree) 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4 (Very strongly agree)

#### 36. I become very involved when I watch a movie.

- 4 (Very strongly disagree) 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4 (Very strongly agree)

#### 37. I often find that I can remain cool in spite of the excitement around me.

- 4 (Very strongly disagree) 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4 (Very strongly agree)

#### 38. Little children sometimes cry for no apparent reason.

- 4 (Very strongly disagree) 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4 (Very strongly agree)

The survey is complete. Thank you for your participation!

Source: [https://www.surveymonkey.net/MySurveys.aspx](https://www.surveymonkey.net/MySurveys.aspx)
Appendix 4  Survey 2: The Feedback on Managerial Effectiveness

Feedback on managerial effectiveness

Hello, thank you for your cooperation. All your answers will be kept strictly confidential.

1. Which of the two countries do you work in?
   - Great Britain
   - Germany

2. What is your age?
   - 18 to 24
   - 25 to 34
   - 35 to 44
   - 45 to 54
   - 55 to 64
   - 65 to 74
   - 75 or older

3. How long have you worked for the current company for?

Now prepare to choose one of the multiple choice answers, that suits you best.
### Feedback on managerial effectiveness

#### 4. Do you plan to stay in the current company in the long term and build your career there?
- Yes, definitely
- Maybe
- Not sure
- No

#### 5. Are you motivated to go to work?
- Yes, always
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Almost never

#### 6. Do you feel respected and appreciated at your workplace?
- Yes, always
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Almost never

#### 7. Are you willing to spend time with your co-workers outside your working hours?
- Yes, definitely
- Maybe
- Not sure
- No
### Feedback on managerial effectiveness

8. How often are you motivated to go an extra mile in order to provide a good service?
- Always
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Almost never

9. How often do you get an appraisal for a job well done?
- Always
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Almost never

10. Would you recommend your workplace to a family member or a close friend?
- Yes, definitely
- Maybe
- Not sure
- Probably not

The survey is complete. Thank you for your time and have a lovely day! :)
Appendix 5

Interview transcripts.
Danish Subordinates Elaborating on Their Answers to Survey No. 2 and Reasons for Their Job Attitudes.

Respondent 1
1. How long have you worked for the current company for?
   “3 years”.

2. Do you plan to stay in the current company in the long term and build your career there? And why?
   “No, due to no growth opportunities in the company, monotonous job and lack of challenging tasks”.

3. Are you motivated to go to work? What are the main factors for that?
   “Yes, always”. I like particular part of the job, such as working with people, meeting different cultures, like being in a service industry and have friendly colleagues”.

4. Do you feel respected and appreciated at your workplace?
   “Sometimes”.
   What’s the reason you don’t feel respected and appreciated all the time?
   “I don’t feel that way always because of the lack of appraisals, lack of perks and personal feedback on my work from the management staff”.

5. Are you willing to spend time with your co-workers outside your working hours?
   “Yes, definitely. I feel very comfortable and open around my colleagues, some of them are my friends.”
   What about the managers? Do you feel the same way around them?
   “Yes, managers included. I can see myself socializing with them outside working hours too.”

6. How often are you motivated to go an extra mile in order to provide a good service?
   “Sometimes”.
   Why not all the time?
   “It depends on the day really. Depends on how I feel, and what type of customers I am providing service to. I keep the high service standard almost at all times however will go an extra mile only in certain situations. I also know and extra effort won’t be acknowledged by the managers.”

7. How often do you get an appraisal for a job well done?
   “Rarely”.


If you did get it more often would that raise your motivation to do a better job?
“Yes, definitely. Just knowing that my effort is noticed would get me more motivated”.

8. Would you recommend your workplace to a family member or a close friend? Why?
“Yes, definitely. I would because of the good general work environment, easy work duties, however not because of the good management.”

9. How big of an effect would a better management have on your general work attitudes?
“Definitely would have a big influence on me”.

Respondent 2

1. How long have you worked for the current company for?
“1.5 years”.

2. Do you plan to stay in the current company in the long term and build your career there? And why?
“No, because the job is physically hard, there are no career possibilities in my department”.

3. Are you motivated to go to work? What are the main factors for that?
“Rarely, due to the lack of care about things from the management side makes the work even harder and more stressful”.

4. Do you feel respected and appreciated at your workplace?
“Rarely.”

What would make you feel more appreciated?
“Frequent appraisals, rewards, simply hearing ‘thank you’ more often, if my needs and struggles were taken into consideration”.

5. Are you willing to spend time with your co-workers outside your working hours?
“Yes, definitely. The colleagues are lovely friendly people, however my boss not included”.

6. How often are you motivated to go an extra mile in order to provide a good service? And why?
“Sometimes, despite the lack of motivating from management my own high standards and desire to be good at my job motivate me to go an extra mile sometimes”.

7. How often do you get an appraisal for a job well done? Why do you think that is?
“Almost never. Even though I think I do a good job very often and take up more responsibilities than I should”.

8. Would you recommend your workplace to a family member or a close friend? Why?
“Probably not, because the job in itself is quite exhausting. If the management was better I could recommend it as a temp job to someone”.

9. Do you think managers’ approach to you and your work has a big influence on your work attitude?
“Yes, it has a big effect, it’s the biggest reason for my negative work attitude”.

Respondent 3

1. How long have you worked for the current company for?
“3.5 years”.

2. Do you plan to stay in the current company in the long term and build your career there? And why?
“No. I would but there is not much growth available from my position.

3. Are you motivated to go to work?
“Yes, always”.

4. Do you feel respected and appreciated at your workplace?
“Yes, always”.

What makes you feel this way?
“It’s all coming from a good care the management takes of us and the positive attitude from the manager.”

5. Are you willing to spend time with your co-workers outside your working hours? If yes are managers included too?
“Yes, definitely. All the colleagues and the manager are great people I have friendship relationships with”.

6. How often are you motivated to go an extra mile in order to provide a good service?
“Always.”

Why is that?
“I see my boss doing the same, and she sets a good example for us”.

7. How often do you get an appraisal for a job well done?
“Always. Our manager makes sure to tell us how well we did each day.”

8. Would you recommend your workplace to a family member or a close friend? Why?
“Yes, definitely, because of a very good friendly work environment”.

9. Do you think managers’ approach to you and your work has a big influence on your work attitude?
“Yes, it does have a huge effect”.

Respondent 4
1. How long have you worked for the current company for?
   “3 years”.
2. Do you plan to stay in the current company in the long term and build your career there? And why?
   “No. The job is hard for the long term.”
3. Are you motivated to go to work?
   “Yes, always”.
4. Do you feel respected and appreciated at your workplace?
   “Sometimes”

What makes you feel this way?
   “Attitudes of my colleagues towards me and my boss, the way he interacts with me”
5. Are you willing to spend time with your co-workers outside your working hours? If yes are managers included too?
   “Yes, definitely. The managers are included, I feel very comfortable around all of my colleagues”.
6. How often are you motivated to go an extra mile in order to provide a good service? Why?
   “Sometimes, if I am not busy with other regular tasks. The manager and other hotel stuff are very service oriented which makes me feel the same way”
7. How often do you get an appraisal for a job well done? And why do you think that is?
   “Sometimes. The manager isn’t always present, but when he’s there he approaches us with positive energy, and makes sure to give us appraisals”.
8. Would you recommend your workplace to a family member or a close friend?
   “Maybe.”
9. Do you think managers’ approach to you and your work has a big influence on your work attitude? Or are other factors as important?
   “Yes, definitely, but other factors like colleagues and how busy the day at work is matter too”.

Respondent 5
1. How long have you worked for the current company for?
“4 years”.

2. Do you plan to stay in the current company in the long term and build your career there? And why?
   “No. Due to no growth opportunities, the job isn’t matching my ambitions for a future career. The management is not appreciative enough”.

3. Are you motivated to go to work?
   “Rarely”.
   Why?
   “Colleagues are the only motivator for me to go to work, the job tasks are not challenging enough for me”.

4. Do you feel respected and appreciated at your workplace?
   “Almost never”
   What would make you feel more respected and appreciated?
   “More positive appraisals, and individual feedback on the work done. More structured management and better established communication between managers and employees as well as among managers themselves”.

5. Are you willing to spend time with your co-workers outside your working hours? If yes are managers included too?
   “Not sure. Only certain colleagues make me feel comfortable enough to spend my free time with them. The managers are not part of that group, due to the lack of established communication between them and me”.

6. How often are you motivated to go an extra mile in order to provide a good service?
   “Rarely”.
   What would make you feel more motivated to do so?
   “It’s a direct influence of the management. Whenever I feel like going an extra mile it’s for my own initiative’s sake, not because management has motivated or encouraged me to do so. Some more appreciation of my efforts and a clearer communication and picture of what they want from me would make me more motivated to go an extra mile more often”.

7. How often do you get an appraisal for a job well done? And why?
   “Almost never. Managers do not notice my work and effort”.

8. Would you recommend your workplace to a family member or a close friend?
   “Probably not”.

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What are the main reasons?
“Due to lack of benefits and rewards, in the same time managers are expecting and demanding a lot from us”.

9. Do you think managers attendance to your needs, feelings your work has a big influence on your work attitude?
“Yes, definitely, my work attitude being the way it is, is a result of the managers’ approach”.

Respondent 6

1. How long have you worked for the current company for?
“6 years”.

2. Do you plan to stay in the current company in the long term and build your career there? And why?
“No. I don’t see myself in this position in the future, because there is nothing new I can learn in the company”.

3. Are you motivated to go to work?
“Almost never.”

Why is that?
“Because of the same routine job every day, nothing new happening at work”.

4. Do you feel respected and appreciated at your workplace?
“Rarely”.

What would make you feel more respected and appreciated?
“Appraisals and appreciation from our bosses, hearing more ‘thank you’ for a good job, or an extra effort, especially during the high season, when we work very hard. If my needs were taken in consideration more, things such as wishes for the holidays, days off, sick days”.

5. Are you willing to spend time with your co-workers outside your working hours?
“Yes, definitely”.

Are managers included?
“Yes, I feel comfortable enough to spend time with managers too, although they never join any work organized social events”.

6. How often are you motivated to go an extra mile in order to provide a good service?
“Rarely”

Why?
“It mostly depends on the customers, if they are polite and friendly I am more willing to go an extra mile for them, but not for all the customers.

7. How often do you get an appraisal for a job well done?
“Almost never”.

Do you think you do not deserve them or is it a managers’ fault for not giving them?
“I think I do a good job quite often and deserve more appraisals, so it’s the managers fault”.

8. Would you recommend your workplace to a family member or a close friend?
“Probably not”.

What are the main reasons?
“In general I do not think it is a good place to work in, however it depends on who you work with some people from work make shifts rather enjoyable but, if say, I have to work together with the managers than I do not like it that much”.

9. Do you think managers attendance to your needs, feelings and your work has a big influence on your work attitude?
“Yes, definitely. Had the managers been able to approach different situation in a better way and have more concerns about people that work there, it would greatly improve my work attitudes”.

Respondent 7

1. How long have you worked for the current company for?
“5 years”.

2. Do you plan to stay in the current company in the long term and build your career there? And why?
“No. I would like to find a better job, something that complies with my educational background and build my career there”.

3. Are you motivated to go to work?
“Rarely”.

What factors would make you more motivated to go to work?
“A better pay and perks would be the biggest factor”.

4. Do you feel respected and appreciated at your workplace?
“Sometimes”.

Why not always?
“Because the job is seasonal, hence I do not get enough work hours during the winter and do not feel needed by my employers”.

5. Are you willing to spend time with your co-workers outside your working hours? If yes are managers included too?

“Yes definitely”.

Are managers included in that group of colleagues?

“No, because I feel the hierarchical distance between the managers and the rest of employees, I do not feel like they are some of us”.

6. How often are you motivated to go an extra mile in order to provide a good service?

“Always”.

Does management encourage you to go an extra mile or are there other reasons you always go an extra mile?

“Management has nothing to do with my motivation to go an extra mile. It is always my own initiative because I like to be nice to people in general, my customers included, that’s why I make an extra effort to help them”.

7. How often do you get an appraisal for a job well done?

“Almost never”.

Why do you think that is?

“Because of the job description. We always work as a team with other people, it is hard to do something outstanding and noticeable in my job, something that can be noticed and appraised”.

8. Would you recommend your workplace to a family member or a close friend?

“Maybe”

What does it depend on?

“It depends on the season. Moreover, I would only recommend it as a temp job, since there isn’t space for much growth in the company”.

9. Do you think managers’ attendance to your needs, feelings and your work has a big influence on your work attitude or other factors are just as important?

“Managers approach to my needs and feelings definitely matter, however it is not one of the biggest factors in creating my job attitudes”.

Respondent 8

1. How long have you worked for the current company for?
“1.5 years”.

2. Do you plan to stay in the current company in the long term and build your career there? And why?
   “No, because of the job routine and no career opportunities”.

3. Are you motivated to go to work?
   “Rarely”.

   What would make you more motivated to go to work?
   “Feeling more valued by my boss, being given more responsibilities at my work”.

4. Do you feel respected and appreciated at your workplace?
   “Sometimes”.

   Why not always?
   “Sometimes I lack being appreciated when I make an extra work and do not get any response or feedback by my boss, as if it goes unnoticed”.

5. Are you willing to spend time with your co-workers outside your working hours?
   “Yes, definitely”.

   Are managers and your boss included in that group of people? And why?
   “No they are not included, because I believe there should be some distance between employees and the managers, it’s inappropriate to be friends and hang out with your managers”.

6. How often are you motivated to go an extra mile in order to provide a good service?
   “Almost never”.

   What would make you more motivated to go an extra mile?
   “Probably some more personal meetings with the boss, discussing the job and ways to improve the service in order to get an idea of what the boss wants from employees and have a more open communication about work challenges”.

7. How often do you get an appraisal for a job well done?
   “Sometimes”.

   Why not always?
   “Sometimes the manager just isn’t there to see the work I am doing therefore he can’t give an appraisal for it”.

8. Would you recommend your workplace to a family member or a close friend? Why?
   “Maybe, but only as a temporary or a student job, since there are no growth opportunities”.
9. How big of an effect would a better management have on your general work attitudes? Do other factors matter in the same extent?

“Definitely would have a big influence on me, but other factors also matter.”
Appendix 6

Hofstede’s Onion Diagram

Source: (Hofstede, 2001, p.11)

Appendix 7
Masculinity Index (MAS) for Countries and Regions

Source: Based on Hofstede G. & Hofstede G.J, (2005), p.120
**Appendix 8**

**GLOBE’s Cultural Clusters**

<table>
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<th>Cluster</th>
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<th>Humane Orientat</th>
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<th>In-group Collectivism</th>
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Source: (Cullen & Parboteah, 2010, p.194)
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Source: (Cullen & Parboteeah, 2010, p.195)
Appendix 9

Level Of Empathy among Hotel Managers

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Appendix 10

Empathy Indexes versus Gender; UK

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Appendix 11

Empathy Index versus Gender; Denmark

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Empathy and Managerial Effectiveness across Cultures 113
Appendix 12

Empathy Index versus Leadership Style; UK

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Appendix 13

Empathy Index versus Leadership Style; Denmark

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## Appendix 14

### Empathy Index versus Age; UK

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### Appendix 15

#### Empathy Index versus Age; Denmark

![Empathy Index versus age; Denmark](image)

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Empathy Index versus age; Denmark.
Appendix 16

Question 1a

Which of the two countries do you work in?

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Extracted from Survey Monkey (2014): [https://www.surveymonkey.net/MySurveys.aspx](https://www.surveymonkey.net/MySurveys.aspx)
Appendix 17

Question 2a

What is your age?

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answered question 33
skipped question 0

Appendix 18

Question 4a

Do you plan to stay in the current company in the long term and build your career there?

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answered question 32
skipped question 1

Extracted from Survey Monkey (2014): [https://www.surveymonkey.net/MySurveys.aspx](https://www.surveymonkey.net/MySurveys.aspx)
### Question 5a

**Are you motivated to go to work?**

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, always</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>42.4%</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>42.4%</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost never</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Answered question:** 33  
**Skipped question:** 0

Extracted from Survey Monkey (2014): [https://www.surveymonkey.net/MySurveys.aspx](https://www.surveymonkey.net/MySurveys.aspx)
Appendix 20

Question 6a

Do you feel respected and appreciated at your workplace?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer Options</th>
<th>Great Britain</th>
<th>Denmark</th>
<th>Response Percent</th>
<th>Response Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, always</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>48.5%</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost never</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

answered question 33

skipped question 0

Extracted from Survey Monkey (2014): [https://www.surveymonkey.net/MySurveys.aspx](https://www.surveymonkey.net/MySurveys.aspx)
Appendix 21

Question 7a

Are you willing to spend time with your co-workers outside your working hours?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer Options</th>
<th>Great Britain</th>
<th>Denmark</th>
<th>Response Percent</th>
<th>Response Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, definitely</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>51.6%</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maybe</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>41.9%</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Answered question 31
Skipped question 2

Extracted from Survey Monkey (2014): [https://www.surveymonkey.net/MySurveys.aspx](https://www.surveymonkey.net/MySurveys.aspx)
Appendix 22
Question 8a
How often are you motivated to go an extra mile in order to provide a good service?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer Options</th>
<th>Great Britain</th>
<th>Denmark</th>
<th>Response Percent</th>
<th>Response Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>53.1%</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost never</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

32 answered question
1 skipped question

## Appendix 23

### Question 9a

**How often do you get an appraisal for a job well done?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer Options</th>
<th>Great Britain</th>
<th>Denmark</th>
<th>Response Percent</th>
<th>Response Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>28.1%</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>34.4%</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18.8%</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost never</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18.8%</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extracted from Survey Monkey (2014): [https://www.surveymonkey.net/MySurveys.aspx](https://www.surveymonkey.net/MySurveys.aspx)
Appendix 24

Question 10a

Would you recommend your workplace to a family member or a close friend?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer Options</th>
<th>Great Britain</th>
<th>Denmark</th>
<th>Response Percent</th>
<th>Response Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, definitely</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>24.2%</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maybe</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>51.5%</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probably not</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extracted from Survey Monkey (2014): [https://www.surveymonkey.net/MySurveys.aspx](https://www.surveymonkey.net/MySurveys.aspx)
### Appendix 25

**Summary of Reason Categories for the Negative Job Attitudes among Danish Subordinates**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>3Y</td>
<td>1,5Y</td>
<td>3.5Y</td>
<td>3Y</td>
<td>4Y</td>
<td>6Y</td>
<td>5Y</td>
<td>1.5Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>Job, growth</td>
<td>Job, career</td>
<td>growth</td>
<td>job</td>
<td>Growth, job, management</td>
<td>growth</td>
<td>job</td>
<td>Job, career</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>job</td>
<td>job</td>
<td>Pay, perks</td>
<td>management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4</td>
<td>Perks, management</td>
<td>Management, perks,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>management</td>
<td>management</td>
<td>management</td>
<td>job</td>
<td>management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>management</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>management</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q6</td>
<td>Management, personal</td>
<td>management</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>personal</td>
<td>management</td>
<td>personal</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q7</td>
<td>management</td>
<td>management</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>management</td>
<td>management</td>
<td>job</td>
<td>management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Job, management</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Perks, management</td>
<td>management</td>
<td>growth, job</td>
<td>growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q9</td>
<td>high</td>
<td>high</td>
<td>high</td>
<td>high+ other factors</td>
<td>high</td>
<td>high</td>
<td>high+ other factors</td>
<td>high+ other factors</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Categories of reasons:**

**Job.** Included general dissatisfaction with the job description, monotonous tasks, lack of challenge and job not complying with respondents’ ambitions, as well as physically challenging tasks.

**Growth.** Included complaint about the lack of growth and learning something new on the job.
Inna Timofejeva, MSc International Business

**Career.** Lack of career opportunities; no opportunity to move up the company’s hierarchy and obtaining a better position in the future

**Pay.** Low salary

**Perks.** Lack of perks and benefits on the job, such as health insurance, bonuses etc.

**Personal.** Personal reasons included situational reasons, like facing a rude customer, having a bad/busy day, mood of the employee and his/her physical wellbeing that might affect the work attitude or work ethic to the worse in a particular situation

**Management.** The category included lack of appreciation, appraisal, and personal feedback from the managers, lack of attendance to the employees’ needs, personal struggles and challenges, lack of open communication of what is required from the employees and the high expectation of the performance without any contribution to motivating employees from the management side.
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