

EXAMINING THE EFFECTS OF EMOTIONAL LABOR,
EMOTIONAL AND SPIRITUAL INTELLIGENCE IN
HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM EDUCATION

By

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Abstract: Emotional intelligence (EI) and spiritual intelligence (SI) have been found to positively impact performance in various fields including business, medicine, psychology, and psychiatry. This study aimed to look comprehensively at the influence of EL, EI and SI on TP in hospitality and tourism education. This study adopted a multiple correlational analysis research design with self-reported questionnaire surveys. Data were collected electronically in an on-line format from 120 hospitality management university instructors. In an effort to attract maximum response rate, purposive sampling, coupled with snowball techniques were used. The results suggest that the respondents perceived and experienced emotional labor when performing their immediate line of work. Emotional intelligence was found to be a significant predictor of teachers' performance, with a moderate, positive association. Emotional labor and spiritual intelligence were not statistically significant predictors of teachers' performance. Additionally, based on the findings related to emotional labor and spiritual intelligence, the obtained evidence suggested that a large proportion of unexplained variance pointed to other factors influencing teachers' performance. The result was congruent with previous studies that reported EI to influence performance. The statistically significant positive relationship is an indication that the more emotionally intelligent the teacher, the better his or her performance at work will be. All institutions that train students to be teachers are encouraged to incorporate self-awareness and other aspects of EI into their teaching program and assess prospective students specifically with respect to EI before they graduate as qualified teachers. Studies have shown that high emotional labor, if not managed well, can lead to psychological and physical challenges such as increased job stress, decreased job satisfaction, and increased distress. Therefore, this study recommends that teachers in training are taught how to manage EL and that chairs, deans, and supervisors carefully monitor the EL of their faculty to ensure the wellbeing of faculty members.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Significant sums of money are spent from both the private and public purses all over the world to fund education because of the significant role it plays (Breton, 2013). The importance of education has been further highlighted by globalization and technological innovation, which have increased the focus on the importance of education and training (Ashton & Green, 1996) to the benefit of various industries and in particular, the hospitality and tourism industry. Having examined the evolution of educational activity, Faure (1972) found that educational progress was usually accompanied by economic progress. Furthermore, production techniques usually improved as education progressed. In a later article, Ashton and Green (1996) asserted that economic growth across nations was positively correlated to skills development, greater labor productivity, and an increased average standard of living. Therefore, teachers contribute to nation building through the effective transfer of knowledge which ensures an educated workforce which results in economic growth.

Internationally, the hospitality and tourism industry has recorded significant growth, quickly becoming one of the fastest growing industries and being categorized as

an economic and social phenomenon. Additionally, the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 2014) stated that tourism often plays an integral role in the socio-economic progress of a nation. The UNWTO further indicated that the hospitality and tourism industry is among the most profitable industries internationally and especially in developing countries where it is a major income earner. Such is the earning potential of hospitality and tourism that revenues from the industry are, at times, greater than the earnings from oil exports and revenues from the automobile industry (UNWTO, 2014). However, even within the hospitality and tourism industry, teachers are necessary for its sustainability. For the hospitality and tourism industry to remain viable, it requires a continuous flow of qualified employees which is dependent on the education system and centered on effective teachers who are effective at unlocking the potential of their students (UNESCO, 2014). Therefore, teachers prove their effectiveness and their contribution to economic growth by producing educated students which are demanded by employers (Hanushek, 2010).

It is universally accepted that one determining factor of a school's impact on the academic outcome of its students is the quality of its teachers (Hanushek, 2010). Thus, teachers' performance (TP) is a critical component of quality education as it has a direct effect on how students assimilate and apply information transmitted in the classrooms. Therefore, teachers need to be well-prepared as many researchers have found that teacher preparation increases the likelihood of producing successful learners (Hanushek, 2010; Hanushek, Kain, O'Brien & Rivkin, 2005; Wenglinsky, 2000). The impact of teachers on student performance and eventually, the country's human resources makes it

necessary for schools to recruit and develop high quality teachers (Wenglinsky, 2000). However, how is an effective teacher defined and what is meant by effective performance? Wenglinsky (2000) asserted that one method of assessing TP is to evaluate the performance of various groups of students over time (several years or semesters) who have been taught by the same teacher. Another method of evaluation, and one that has become popular in universities and colleges over the course of the last century, is letting the students evaluate the professor at the end of the semester or training period (Chen and Hoshower, 2003). Two reasons for the adoption of student evaluations as a tool for assessing TP are quality assurance and accountability (Kwan, 1999). Nonetheless, the student evaluation method is not flawless and may not be the most desired method of evaluating TP as students may be biased in their evaluation of the teachers (Kwan, 1999).

Despite recognizing the importance of TP in hospitality and tourism education, there remains uncertainty about the methods which can be employed to improve the performance of teachers. Nonetheless, numerous studies have been conducted regarding methods for improving job performance (Abraham, 1999, 2000; Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 1999). One factor which has been linked to job performance is emotional intelligence (EI) (Abraham, 1999, 2000). Boyatzis, et al. (1999) reported that job related competencies are facilitated through EI; thus, EI is vital to successful job performance.

Researchers have listed numerous factors which impact TP. Such factors include: self-efficacy (Cousins & Walker, 1995), teaching within your field of study (industry furlough) (Marshall, 1995), staff development, and collegial interaction among teachers (Smylie, 1988). According to Cousins and Walker (1995), high self-efficacy in teachers is related to higher levels of classroom innovation. Similarly, Marshall (1995) found a

relationship between job performance and industry furlough. According to Marshall (1995), industry furlough results in greater knowledge about new trends and technological advances. With specific reference to teaching, industry furlough improves teacher confidence thereby facilitating more enriched class discussions. In addition to self-efficacy and industry furlough, staff development enhances TP. Staff development provides teachers with reference points which may be used to evaluate their performance (Buhr, Crocker, & Ashton, 1983; Smylie, 1988). Thus, Buhr, et al. (1983) and Smylie (1988) concluded that staff development improved TP as well as collegial relationships among teachers.

Despite the broad spectrum of factors impacting TP which have been highlighted by the aforementioned studies, Leithwood and Mascall (2008) indicated a need for further studies which investigate the factors impacting TP and that particular focus should be directed towards skill requirements and teachers' capacity. For hospitality and tourism education specifically, Wenglinsky (2000) suggested that the quality of the teaching professionals needed to be improved if the academic performance of students was to be enhanced. It can therefore be concluded that examining the factors that impact TP within hospitality and tourism education will produce solutions for the improvement of TP.

Emotional intelligence (EI) and spiritual intelligence (SI) have been found to positively impact performance in various fields including business, medicine, psychology, and psychiatry (Goleman, 1995; Mann & Kanoy, 2010; Tischler, Biberman, & McKeage, 2002). Goleman (1995) found that a relationship exists between EI and competency development (a critical factor in job performance). In examining SI,

Tischler, et al. (2002) postulated that the higher the employee's SI level, the happier, healthier and more productive the employee. Additionally, researchers have asserted that both EI and SI could be improved (Goleman, 1995; Hacıoglu, & Yarbay, 2014; King, 2013).

Contrastingly, emotional labor (EL) has been found to negatively impact performance (Grandey, 2000, 2003). However, Diefendorff and Richard (2003) asserted that successful job performance relies on how well the emotions required for EL are managed and displayed. Therefore, through EL management, teachers are expected to: reduce levels of on-the-job stress, improve TP, and experience better interactions with colleagues, students, and superiors. In examining the teachers' emotional labor strategies (TELS), Yin (2015) found that three strategies were used to improve job satisfaction: deep acting, surface acting, and expressing real emotions. Yin (2015) found that deep acting and expressing real emotions were the most effective strategies for improving job satisfaction among teachers. Grandey (2000) posited that it is important that academics discuss strategies for minimizing EL by regulating emotions. Yin (2012) purported that specific attention should be paid to the examination of automatic versus unconscious emotion regulation in EL jobs. As such, EL research would provide deeper insight for employers and employees. Furthermore, information gained from such research could provide better explanations about the experiences of teachers and the impact that EL has on TP. This current study differs from Yin's (2012) as it seeks to fully understand the impact of EL, EI and SI and how they impact TP in hospitality and tourism education.

Emotional Labor

Various definitions of EL have emerged in academic literature (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Wong & Law, 2002). Hochschild (1983), a pioneer in the field, defined EL as “the management of feelings to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display” (p.7). Another definition was posited by Ashforth and Humphrey (1993). According to Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), EL is “the act of expressing socially desired emotions” (p. 88) (i.e., conforming to a display rule). Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) further posited that defining EL requires that consideration not be given to EL as the management of feelings but instead that focus be placed on observed behavior. Alternatively, Morris and Feldman (1996) defined EL as “the effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions” (p. 987). More recently, Grandey (2000) defined EL as “the process of regulating both feelings and expressions for the organizational goals” (p. 97). Finally, Wong and Law (2002) defined EL as “the extent to which an employee is required to present an appropriate emotion in order to perform the job in an efficient and effective manner” (p. 249). Wong and Law’s (2002) definition unites the three previous definitions while critically connecting EL to job performance.

It is noteworthy that the definition of EL presented by Morris and Feldman (1996), while highlighting the positive and negative effects of EL, also highlights how stressful it is. Morris and Feldman asserted that ‘effort’ is required to produce a socially desired expression or behavior. Similarly, Zeithaml and Bitner (1996) highlighted the stress associated with EL and asserted that the EL process requires that quality service is

delivered through the utilization of extraordinary mental and physical skills. Despite the stress associated with EL, positive outcomes such as improved customer service (Grandey, 2000) and minimized embarrassing interpersonal problems (Morris & Feldman, 1996) have been realized. However, EL has been associated with emotional dissonance and burnout and has been described as both the consequence and the cause of job stress, dissatisfaction at work and distress (Pugliesi, 1999), all of which are negatively related to job performance.

Hochschild (1983) posited that the characteristics of EL related jobs (usually highly stressful) often mirror the characteristics of contact with the public (whether face-to-face or voice-to-voice). Teaching is one profession that contains both face-to-face and voice-to-voice characteristics as teachers have to utilize both these methods in communicating with their clients (students), their colleagues, their supervisors, other staff members, and the public. Bellas (1999) asserted that there is a significant amount of EL involved in teaching since teachers are tasked with the responsibility of eliciting emotions from students while maintaining control of their own emotions. “Feeling rules”, which are learnt by teachers throughout the course of their professional life by way of professional socialization and knowledge of occupational or organizational codes of conduct, also form a part of emotional labor. Bellas (1999) lamented that more attention was not paid to EL in the teaching professions. Specifically, Bellas asserted that the skills needed to manage EL were not taught to teachers and opined that they were not considered valuable, especially when compared to the technical, intellectual, or leadership characteristics of teachers. Nevertheless, EL skills do impact TP and undervaluing its usefulness does not change the negative impact that the lack of these

skills may have on TP. It is therefore logical to conclude that EL management is required to ensure positive interactions at work as well as improved performance of daily tasks.

Emotional Labor Strategy

Hochschild (1983) identified surface acting and deep acting as two strategies used for regulating emotions and feelings. The strategy of surface acting involves the “faking” of emotions so the user displays emotions that coincide with those that the organization require. On the other hand, deep acting describes situations where the employee attempts to modify his/her emotions to match those desired by the employer thereby resulting in suitable emotional expression (Grandey, 2000). Gross (1998) presented an emotion regulation model and argued that it is possible to regulate emotions through the alteration of the response to stimulus or by regulating the stimulus. However, other scholars suggested that expressing ones naturally occurring emotions would result in the minimization of emotional labor (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hargreaves, 1998; Yin, 2015). Hebson, Earnshaw, and Marchington (2007) asserted that teachers do not “fake” their emotions but act sincerely in face-to-face encounters. Thus, this current study examined two alternatives, EI and SI to ascertain the relationship with TP.

Emotional Intelligence

According to Salovey, Hsee, and Mayer (1993), emotional intelligence (EI) refers to the ability to recognize and use emotional information in social interactions. Numerous empirical studies have been conducted examining EI and its effects in work settings (Abraham, 1999, 2000; Boyatzis, et al., 1999; Planalp & Fitness, 1999). Furthermore, many researchers point to a link between EI and successful job performance (Abraham, 1999, 2000; Boyatzis, et al., 1999; Planalp & Fitness, 1999). Abraham (1999,

2000) reported that within academia and industry, there exists a connection between EI and job performance. EI not only affects how learning takes place, it also affects persons' motivation to learn. Planalp and Fitness (1999) stated that EI is tied not only to the way people learn, but also to their motivation to learn. Boyatzis, et al. (1999) suggested that EI is connected to successful job performance. Additionally, there exists a connection between EI and successful job performance (Boyatzis, et al., 1999).

In addition to the positive effect it has on job performance, EI is deserving of special focus because it is a skill which can be improved over time (Moshabaki, Norouzi, Hosseini, & Kordnaeij, 2011; Yılmaz, 2012). It is therefore important to examine the relationship between EI and TP within hospitality and tourism education because it is possible that developing EI may result in improved TP. Furthermore, EI may reduce the likelihood of teachers of hospitality and tourism becoming unemployed because of inadequate performance.

Spiritual Intelligence

King (2013) defined spiritual intelligence as “the adaptive application of spirituality in everyday life” (p. 6). According to King, spiritual intelligence “involves using our spirituality in order to solve problems, make plans, and adapt to life’s challenges” (p. 6). Many positive outcomes have been associated with SI. Furthermore, SI has gained popularity within a variety of disciplines. Because spirituality has been found to have potential health benefits, SI has been incorporated in medical school curriculum (Brawer, Handal, Fabricatore, Roberts & Wadja-Johnson, 2002). Similarly, SI has been found to positively impact students’ academic growth and as such has received increased attention in the fields of psychiatry and psychology (Brawer et al.,

2002). According to Vaughan (2002), there has been an increase in the number of research focused on SI which suggests that SI is one type of intelligence that can be developed relatively independently. Diverse ways of knowing and understanding coupled with a synergistic merger of the internal mental and spiritual composites with the external composite of worldly work are the key tenets of SI. According to Tischler, et al. (2002), the better performance of persons with higher levels of SI can be attributed to the greater health and happiness which they experience at work. Nonetheless, Vaughan (2002) purported that in the same way that persons are capable of utilizing their five senses and have the capacity for intuition, so too are they able to develop SI. Vaughan concluded that improved and more consistent TP can be aided if greater attention is paid to skills such as SI. Based on the knowledge that there exists a positive relationship between SI and job performance in other professions (Tischler et al., 2002), it is important to consider its usefulness and potentially positive impact on TP in hospitality education settings.

Purpose of the Study

This study aimed to look comprehensively at the influence of EL, EI and SI on TP in hospitality and tourism education. To ensure that the topic was adequately examined, this study investigated the connections among the variables in the United States of America. This nation was chosen because of the heavy investment made in hospitality and tourism for recreation, education, and training purposes.

The main focus of this study was the examination of the effects of EL, EI, and SI on TP. The research had as its secondary objective, to determine if the three constructs exhibit similar patterns of impact on TP in the sampled population. Based on the

aforementioned objectives, the research sought to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the relationships among teachers' SI, EI, EL and TP?
2. Would relationship patterns among the variables differ across the sampled population?

Significance of the Study

Theoretical Contribution

An analysis of the existing literature revealed that there is no existing study that comprehensively examines emotional labor (EL), emotional intelligence (EI), spiritual intelligence (SI), and teaching performance (TP); thus, this study is poised to contribute to the theoretical and empirical literature on these constructs. Furthermore, the current study is the first to test the relationships within a particular country. The study is also the first to look at all four variables; specifically, this study is the first to investigate the effects of EI, EL, and SI on TP. Rendon (2002) highlighted that the existing academic models, instead of focusing on emotions, practice, and application, support intellectual reasoning, rationality, competition, and objectivity resulting in the existing void in studies which examine such psychological constructs as SI and EI. Therefore, this study is theoretically significant as it addresses the aforementioned void. Furthermore, the comprehensive approach which this study takes in examining the constructs enhances the existing literature by examining direct, indirect, and moderating effects which EL, EI, and SI may have on TP in hospitality and tourism settings.

Practical Contribution

In addition to contributing to the theory, the current study has the potential for

affecting the practice of hospitality and tourism practitioners, instructors, administrators, and the public at large. Despite Christou's (2002) assertions that hospitality and tourism educators should aim to introduce competent, relevant and high caliber graduates into the industry, Scott-Halsell, Shumate and Blum, (2007) highlighted the possible negative impact of inefficient teacher performance on how prepared graduates are for transition into the hospitality and tourism industry. Scott-Halsell, et al. (2007) found that undergraduates lacked the necessary skills to perform as successful leaders or entry-level managers, possibly as a result of TP. Thus, a study which examines methods of improving TP is important as it has practical implications for improving the performance of students. Furthermore, EL changes easily and measures which correct EL have the potential for improving the teaching and learning process.

Organization of the Study

This study is divided into five chapters. The first chapter introduced the topic by providing an overview of the topic, and the problem statement. Chapter one also outlined the purposes and significance of the study. In chapter two, a review of extant research on the major constructs of the study is presented. Additionally, literature examining the relationships between the constructs and performance is also reviewed. Chapter three provides a detailed description about the research methods employed. Specifically, the research design, instrument, sampling procedures, data collection processes, and data analysis methods are explored. In chapter four, the methods for extrapolating the results and analyzing these results are described. Chapter four also provides the results of data analysis. The final chapter, chapter five, discusses the findings. Included in the discussion are the implications of the findings, the limitations of the study, and

recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

In chapter two, previous and supporting literature relating to key variables of the study are reviewed. Theories of performance, intelligence, and emotions are examined in relation to their connection to the main variables: emotional labor (EL), emotional intelligence (EI), spiritual intelligence (SI), and teachers' performance (TP), with the aim of developing research hypotheses.

Performance at Work

Employee performance is instrumental to the success of any organization and teachers' performance is also critical, as people may not rise above a teacher's ability to transfer knowledge (Gathumbi, Mungai, & Hintze, 2013). Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, and Sager (1993) defined work performance as "what the organization hires one to do and do well" (p.40). Viswesvaran and Ones (2000) defined job performance as "scalable actions, behavior, and outcomes that employees engage in or bring about that are linked with and contribute to organizational goals" (p. 216). Therefore, as Motowildo, Borman, and Schmit (1997) asserted, performance is both judgmental and evaluative.

In the classroom, teachers' performance (TP) is scalable based on the interdependency relationship between students and teachers (Koopmans et al., 2014). Teachers are rewarded by incentives and assessment conducted in the classroom by students or by colleagues and supervisors (Koopmans et al., 2014). However, as teachers are assessed, individual performance is not stable but varies over time as it is influenced by the working environment, being new to the job, personal motivation, interests, changing values, or with time spent on-the-job (Sonnentag & Frese, 2002). Nonetheless, teachers must meet organizational goals and are evaluated on effectiveness at the end of the academic year. These evaluations may influence changes to performance through promotions, tenure, and ongoing job performance.

Koopmans et al. (2014) asserted that the need for improved work performance across the globe, stems from three main reasons including:

1. Economic recession – characterized by a greater supply than demand of goods and services, a decline in international commerce, bankruptcies, debts, and high unemployment rates;
2. Sustainable employability – which encompasses growth in the aging population known as 'grey wave' and a decline of the younger working population, resulting in less workers in the labor force to complete the same task load;
3. Globalization.

The above-mentioned global trends in the labor market, along with increasing economic integration and a rapid increase in cross-border movement of goods, services, technology, and capital, are responsible for the increase in demand for improved work performance (Koopmans et al., 2014). Individual work performance plays a key role in

company growth, productivity, and gaining competitive advantage. As international competition increases, the improvement of individual work performance becomes increasingly important (Koopmans et al., 2014) not only in manufacturing but also in academia, where teachers train students for service and are important role models. As in other businesses, the academic arena needs to make a profit and maintain cash flow; therefore, the academic arena may benefit from adopting business principles to improve TP in institutions (Riley, 2014). TP is vital to the success of training (Gathumbi et al., 2013). However, since organizations vary, the field of hospitality and tourism education will be the main focus to examine TP, to control for disparities across fields (Koopmans et al., 2014).

Theory of Performance

Elger (2007) described performance as the use of a complex sequence of actions which appropriately mix knowledge and skills to create value. Elger suggested that performing to achieve valuable results also occurs in academia with an inclination for increasing performance standards. The theory of performance (TOP) is a concept developed by Elger to explain the production of valued results for a specific purpose (or level of performance) by an individual or group. Elger likened performance to a journey and proposed six foundational notions which forms the framework explaining performance and performance improvements (see Table 1). The components are: context, level of knowledge, levels of skills, level of identity, personal factors, and fixed factors. To improve performance effectively, Elger posed three axioms: having a performer's mindset, immersion into an enriching environment, and engaging in reflective practices.

A theory of performance is useful in many learning environments. Motivating a department, college, or university to achieve academic results by key stakeholders that inspire students to achieve their goals, by positively connecting with students can help to improve performance (Elger, 2007). Learning in the classroom, including non-traditional areas such as academic advising, personal development activities, academic committees, and professional research groups, may benefit from application of TOP (Elger, 2007). As TP improves in academic settings, there may be a subsequent positive impact on research, the educational culture, and student learning (Elger, 2007). Likewise, improving TP could lead to deeper levels of learning surfacing in the teacher. The teacher could develop a greater connection with the area of study resulting from familiarity with the subject matter, and subsequently leading to less preparation time for task completion. Finally, student learning in the classroom could improve as a result of increased TP.

Performance is of importance for organizations and employees (Koopmans et al., 2014). Teachers, whether new or seasoned, should have values or standards they wish to preserve (Elger, 2007). Performing at a high-level, carrying out tasks, and meeting organizational goals, can be a source of satisfaction for workers resulting in feelings of mastery and pride. Low performance and lack of achievement of set goals might seem dissatisfying or even a personal failure for employees (Sonnentag & Frese, 2002). Figure 1 shows the effect of individual performance and attributes of higher-level performance. According to VanScotter, Motowidlo, and Cross (2000), high performers gain promotion more easily and have better career opportunities than low performers. Therefore, having

an internal drive or motivation, combined with cognitive abilities and experience on-the-job can be critical to TP.

Table 1

Component that Holistically Interact to Establish Level of Performance

| Component | Description | Examples | Classification Rules |
|--------------------|---|--|--|
| Level of Identity | As individuals mature in a discipline, they take on the shared identity of the professional community while elevating their own uniqueness. As an organization matures, it develops its mission, its way of doing business, and its uniqueness. | <p>A student uses disciplinary slang to describe engineering design activities.</p> <p>A teacher examines his/her performance through the lens of student learning.</p> <p>A college dean holds him/herself accountable for his/her leadership.</p> <p>A research team evolves its identity as a performance organization.</p> | <p>Associated with maturation in a discipline or culture</p> <p>Associated with maturation in life</p> <p>Internalized by person or organization – the individual or organization takes on the shared identity</p> |
| Levels of Skills | Skills describe specific actions that are used by individuals, groups, or organizations in multiple types of performances. | Making assumptions, persisting being humble, setting goals, observing | <p>Describe an action</p> <p>Action is relevant in a broad range of performance contexts</p> |
| Level of Knowledge | Knowledge involves facts, information, concepts, theories, or principles acquired by a person or group through experience or education. | <p>Facts/information – names of states, conversion factor between feet and inches</p> <p>Concepts democracy, chair, force, Principles/theories relationships between the tilt of</p> | <p>Derives from human experiences</p> <p>Can be communicated or recognized</p> |

| Component | Description | Examples | Classification Rules |
|------------------------|--|--|--|
| | | the earth and the seasons; law of conservation of energy | |
| Context of Performance | This component includes variables associated with the situation that the individual or organization performs in. | The performance of an academic department is coupled with the organizational effectiveness of the host college. | Relates to circumstances associated with the performance Applies to multiple performance within the context not a personal factor |
| Personal Factors | This component includes variables associated with the personal situation of an individual. | Learning of a student is coupled with the organization of a class. Performance of a teacher is impacted when he or she is ill Performance of a dean is impacted when his or her spouse dies A student's performance is impacted by the quality of his or her home environment | Involves life situation of an individual |

Adapted from "Theory of Performance," by D. Elger, 2007, Pacific Crest, p. 11-14. Copyright 2007 by University of Idaho. Adapted with permission.

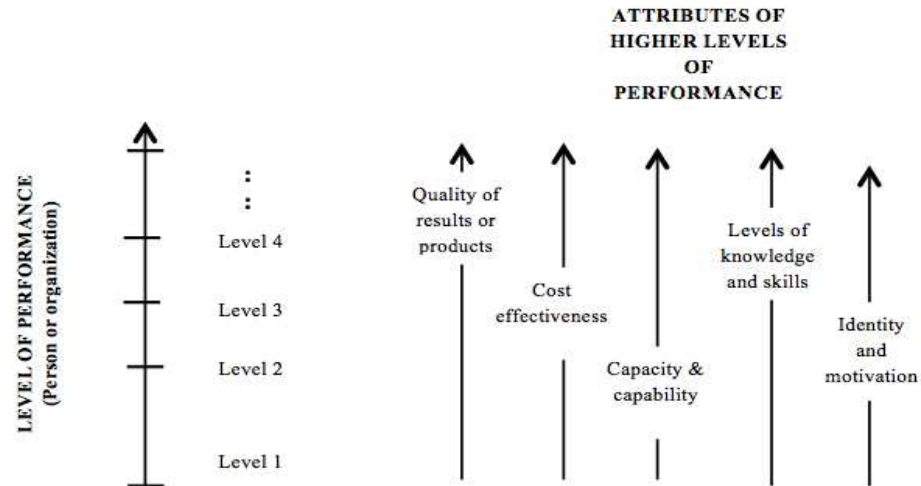


Figure 1. Attributes of high-level performance. Adapted from “Theory of Performance,” by D. Elger, 2007, *Pacific Crest*, p. 11-14. Copyright 2007 by University of Idaho.

Frese and Zapf’s (1994) Action Theory approach examines performance from a process or action viewpoint. The process method linked to specific performance improvement interventions considers goal development, information search, planning, executing, overseeing, and processing feedback. Performance depends on challenging or high goals, a good intellectual model, thorough planning, and having good feedback mechanisms (Sonntag & Frese, 2002). The Action Theory approach can be used to understand the process a teacher should apply to improve TP by actively taking steps to achieve a desired goal. Mentally or physically making note of personal goals, evaluating potential outcomes, and valuing feedback from peers and supervisors as they strive to achieve the goals can lead to successful goal achievement.

Success in achieving work related goals may improve the teachers’ confidence and TP. Accordingly, Locke and Latham’s (1990) goal setting theory used as a performance intervention improvement tool, assumes that goals affect performance

through four mediating mechanisms: effort, persistence, direction, and task strategies.

The performance regulation perspective, assumes that an improvement in the tasks/actions will eventually improve performance. Therefore, TP can be improved with persistence and hard work towards a desired goal.

Luthans and Kreitner's (1975) Reinforcement Theory reinforces the need for positive feedback from an external source, which aides in improving performance. According to Luthans and Kreitner, positive feedback is a good motivator for improving work performance. Reinforcement could be monetary or non-monetary – for example, on the job recognition and performance appraisal feedback, an accepted tendency to recognize individuals for a job well done used in both academia (outstanding adviser/teacher awards) and the corporate environment (employee of the month or quarter) as positive reinforcement to motivate employees improves work performance and subsequently TP. Nonetheless, the need for continued improved work performance still exists to improve overall institutional ranking and performance in this competitive age. To improve performance, several scholars (Gardner, 1993; King, 2010; Wolman, 2001; Zohar & Marshall, 2000) suggested that various intelligences, including emotional and spiritual intelligence, can be used.

Intelligence Theories

Theories of intelligence have served as cornerstones of psychological science since the nineteenth century (Wolman, 2001). Intelligence quotient (IQ) became popular in the twentieth century with Alfred Binet, the father of the modern IQ test (Wigglesworth, 2012). According to Zohar and Marshall (2000), IQ is what we use to solve logical or strategic problems. However, Gardner (1993) completed an empirical

study with normal, gifted, and brain-damaged patients and found that not only was there IQ but rather, there were at least seven types of intelligence (linguistic, logical-mathematical, musical-intelligence, bodily-kinesthetic, interpersonal, naturalist, and existential intelligence).

Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences has been criticized as being a mere theory of multiple abilities or talents (Wolman, 2001). Gardner, in fact, agreed that individuals are distinguished by the 'profiles of intelligences' they possess and further elaborated that not only do individual 'profiles of intelligences' exist, but they also operate to varying degrees in combination while the nine proposed theoretical constructs remain unique. Therefore, an individual could be high in either linguistic or musical intelligence or exhibit characteristics of any combination of the nine previously identified intelligences to some degree. Stronger or weaker intelligences may be used by individuals to solve problems or fashion products (Wolman, 2001). Subsequent to Gardner's (1993) multiple intelligence theory, Sternberg (1988, 1997) identified three components of intelligence:

1. Practical intelligence – the aptitude for success in formal and informal educational settings; adjusting to and influencing the environment in which one exists (street smarts).
2. Experiential intelligence – the aptitude for managing new situations; ones capacity to precisely prepare for future/new situations so that they are handled reflexively when they do occur (an aptitude for thinking outside of the box).
3. Componential intelligence – one's capacity for effective information processing. Componential intelligence includes various components which assist in guiding

the cognitive processes. Some of these skills are metacognitive, executive, performance and knowledge-acquisition.

Sternberg stated, similarly to Gardner's approach, that an individual can be strong in one area and weak in another. However, Sternberg believed in helping individuals towards developing components of intelligence that will help them to perform well in assigned tasks at work. According to Sternberg, improvement of the three intelligences is attainable through study and practice. Therefore, it can be concluded that the teacher's natural ability with emotional and spiritual intelligence may improve TP. Gardner and Sternberg's theories support such notion. While aspects of intelligence are innate, some are not. Those non-innate intelligences can be improved with practice and dedicated focus can improve performance. As early scholars (Bitner, 1995; Roehl & Swerdlow, 1999) suggested, a positive relationship exists between individual performance and training. Thus, TP may be improved through improving dimensions of the theorized intelligences (EI and SI) by training. However, intellectual abilities are not the only intelligences explored by academics. In fact, as Zohar and Marshall (2000) proposed, Gardners' list of intelligences is merely an extension of IQ, emotional intelligence (EI), spiritual intelligence and their associated neural arrangements. Pulling from Gardner's (1993) views that intelligences operate in combination, Tisdell (2003) asserted that humans are emotional and spiritual beings possessing two main intelligences. Zohar and Marshall's views of Gardners' intelligences as an extension of IQ, EI, and SI, led to the current study which aims to explore the two main intelligences (EI & SI) as identified by Tisdell to find out their relationship to TP, thus contributing to the knowledge of intelligence theories and performance.

Emotion Theories

Over the years, several theories of human emotions have emerged: the James-Lange Theory (1884; 1887), Cannon-Bard Theory (1927), Schachter-Singer Two-Factor Theory (1962), Opponent-Process Theory (1974), and the Cognitive Appraisal (1991). The James-Lange Theory articulates, when external events are experienced by individuals, emotions occur. The authors suggested that when someone cries, they are not necessarily sad but rather are sad because they cry based on their physiological responses to external events. Cannon (1927) disagreed with the James-Lange Theory considering it flawed. The Cannon-Bard Theory surmised that the experience of emotions happens simultaneously with physiological arousal and are independent of each other.

Schachter and Singer (1962) posed an alternative theory and purported that experiencing an emotion is based on both physiological (body response) and cognitive interpretation of arousal felt at the moment. An environmental explanation is sought and the label given to the emotion depends on what is occurring at the time and the feelings that are experienced (Taru, 2010). The Opponent-Process Theory by Solomon and Corbit (1974) focused on emotions being felt in relation to their opposites. Solomon and Corbit believed that when humans experience an emotion, they suppress the other (happy versus sad) and once the initial emotion subsides humans naturally experience the opposing emotions to create balance.

Cognitive Appraisal Theory (Lazarus, 1991) asserts that emotions arise from patterns of personal judgment pertaining to the relationship between events and an individual's belief, desire, and intentions (referred to as the person-environment relationship). The individual judgments according to Lazarus are cognitive in nature, not

necessarily conscious or controlled, but are associated with personal events related to the individual's goals. Additionally, Lazarus (1991, p. 127) argued that the appraisal theory triggers cognitive responses, often referred to as coping strategies, such as procrastination, planning or resignation which feeds into a cyclical pattern of appraisal and reappraisal. The individual is therefore constantly evaluating situations as they occur. Such behavior is synonymous with teaching and teacher interaction with students and colleagues. Teachers are faced daily with face-to-face encounters having to appraise and furnish appropriate responses as needed. Teaching, as Yin and Lee (2012) asserted, requires great interpersonal interactions, strong emotional commitment, and deliberate emotion management. Thus, of the five theories, Cognitive Appraisal Theory seems most suitable in academic settings specifically when pairing and evaluating SI and EI's impact on TP.

People's experience of emotion depends on how they appraise and evaluate events around them, albeit negative or positive (Taru, 2010). Additionally, Fisher and Ashkanasy (2000) and Lewis (2000) postulated that work related emotional experiences affected job performance, attention to task, and leader effectiveness. Therefore, having an understanding of how a person's evaluation influences personal meaning leading to the arousal of appropriate emotions should be of importance to managers. A challenge which could lead the worker to pull on dimensions such as EI to cope with the situation. Therefore, when an individual is highly emotionally intelligent, they have the ability to recognize and use emotional information in social interactions (Salovey et al., 1993). Since teachers are humans and arguably emotional beings (Tisdell, 2003), it holds true that EI may influence TP. EI entails reflection on the present situation and others

involved before responding. The ability to think clearly as one performs assigned tasks is important for effective execution and can prove beneficial in face-to-face encounters generally associated with emotional labor (EL) related jobs (Hochschild, 1983).

Emotional Labor

Hochschild (1983) guided the theory of EL by examining the feelings of service workers. EL refers to the extent to which effective and efficient job performance is reliant upon the employees' presentation of a fitting mood (an appropriate frame of mind) (Wong & Law, 2002). Several scholars (Barger & Grandey, 2006; Grandey, 2003; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Pugh, 2001; Tsai, 2001; Tsai & Huang, 2002) found that EL negatively impacted reaching organizational goals. Other studies have reported such outcomes of EL as poor employee health, anxiety attacks, hypertension, and lower reported psychological well-being including unhappiness, quality of life, poor customer service, and reduced customer satisfaction ratings.

An employee adversely affected by EL showing signs of unhappiness, ill-health, or dissatisfaction with the job cannot perform optimally at work; thus lessening customer satisfaction and meeting financial or other organizational goals. Nonetheless, in attempting to build competitive advantage, organizations place more and more emphasis on customer relations (Wong & Wang, 2008) thus, employees are still required to perform optimally irrespective of current psychological or emotional state. As organizations morph to remain competitive and profitable, fewer employees are being used to produce similar output, therefore, a need arises for better and efficient performance (Koopmans et al., 2014). Thus, learning and aptitude becomes more important in achieving current and future tasks. The academic arena is no different in

wanting to maintain a competitive position; though their core business is training, being profitable is also important. Hanushek (2010) suggested training institutions can obtain a competitive advantage through improved TP. Teachers also provide quality service for their student clients, which may be important to maintain competitiveness with other academic entities.

Hargreaves (1998) claimed that to advance educational goals, teachers have to manage EL. Listening to students' concerns, giving advice, or guidance, and showing empathy are all examples of emotional work in teaching (Hargreaves, 1998). Thus, EL is intricately related to TP as the instructor has to manage personal emotions effectively and respond to students' or other demands as they arise. EL occurs when a person exaggerates, neutralizes, or modifies emotions in accordance with specific guidelines (Zembylas, 2002b). Isenbarger and Zembylas (2006) considered EL to be emotional work and associated it with caring teaching. They also put EL as a leading cause of the inability to display care in the classroom. Yin (2015) asserted that, similar to stress, emotions can disturb concentration and human relationships. Thus, stress resilience is viewed as an important quality to possess, limiting emotional disturbance as it affects both social judgment capabilities and cognitive performance needed for work (Yin, 2015). Additionally, Isenbarger and Zembylas suggested that attempts to shape and reshape the professional and intellectual stance of a caring teacher will create necessary boundaries and guidelines that will aid teachers in reducing the negative effects of emotional work or EL such as stress. As stated by Zembylas (2002a), a "genealogy" of caring teaching must address the practices impacting teachers by the EL demanded and the beliefs and emotions that buttress these practices represented within them.

Contrary to views of EL being negative in nature, scholars (Cheung, Tang, & Tang, 2011; Yin, 2012; Zhang & Zhu, 2008) suggested that the three EL strategies (surface acting, deep acting, and expression of naturally felt emotions) are appropriate for teaching. Hebson, et al. (2007) suggested that teachers are not merely acting but are genuinely engaged in sincere emotions. However, though studies have explored the positive nature of EL to employees (Hochschild, 1983; Yin, 2012, 2015), it does not negate the negative effects of emotional work associated with EL. Erickson and Ritter (2001), in a study focusing on emotional labor and burnout, found that higher levels of burnout were associated with having to hide naturally felt feelings of agitation at work. Similarly, Glomb and Tews (2004) found workers' emotional exhaustion to be positively associated with suppression of emotions, irrespective if the naturally felt emotions were positive or negative. Thus, requiring other factors (EI & SI), as proposed by the current study, to cope and effectively handle EL encounters. Particularly since it has been shown that people can regulate their emotions at work (Grandey, 2000; Gross, 1998; Yin 2015).

Within the service industry, there is the assumption that both managers and customers expect front-line staff to be friendly, caring, and at times enthusiastic (Hochschild, 1983). So, expressing organizationally wished emotions is a part of the current work role (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Workers are therefore, expected to engage in not only physical and intellectual labor, but also EL (Chu & Murrmann, 2006; Sharpe, 2005; Zapf, 2002). However, Lovelock and Wirtz (2007) postulated that employees do not always have positive feelings; thus, it takes effort for them to express organizationally needed emotions. It creates conflict as expectations of positivity increase job strain, resulting in EL (Hochschild, 1983).

Isenbarger and Zembylas (2006) indicated that EL involves many emotional costs. They further suggested that EL is often invisible, unacknowledged, or devalued. Therefore, EL, as a form of work, challenges the assumptions of care as effortless (Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006). Employees' EL entails exhibiting display rules (smiling, empathy) regardless of how they feel (Diefendorff, Croyle, & Gosserand, 2005), creating an imbalance of emotions about felt versus the work performance needed.

Hochschild (1983) classified the difference of the feelings as surface acting (SA) and deep acting (DA), which are compensatory strategies that individuals use when they are unable to display fitting emotions. However, later studies incorporated expression of naturally felt emotions (Cheung et al., 2011; Diefendorff, et al., 2005; Yin, 2015; Zhang & Zhu, 2008) as part of emotional labor strategies. Employing the premise of the Cognitive Appraisal Theory mentioned earlier, the use of intellectual abilities to apply meaning to experiences as they occur should aid the teacher in EL situations to display suitable emotions, exerting necessary coping efforts (surface acting, deep acting and expression of naturally felt emotions), to manage the face-to-face exchange.

From the underpinnings of the Cognitive Appraisal Theory, the teacher evaluates whether the encounter is relevant to his or her well-being and if so, in what ways. The teacher, in that instance, assesses what is at stake in the encounter then responds accordingly based on whether or not the decision made will harm commitments, personal values or goals, or the response and how it is interpreted. Sisley and Smollan (2012) inferred that EL depends on individual differences such as personality and emotional intelligence. The authors further stated that a heightened sense of conscientiousness and agreeableness, with insight into others' emotions, could influence an employees'

observance of organizationally mandated display rules.

Mahoney, Buboltz, Buckner, and Doverspike (2011) suggested that it is reasonable for an academician to engage in natural emotional expression for intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. An intrinsically motivated teacher who, by the challenge of the job, may, on occasion, view student behavior as taxing, needs some form of surface acting to moderate an inappropriate emotional response. Nevertheless, whatever the cause for disparity between current feelings and needed feelings, the employees' state is not always suitable with needed positive state; thus creating dissonance resulting in EL and possible negatively affecting TP.

Jenkins and Conley (2005) stated that emotional management is an essential yet unrecognized part of an effective teacher. Consequently, Schutz and Lee (2014) inferred that classrooms are emotional places which have the potential for various emotional episodes, ranging from the overwhelming enjoyment of seeing students grasp a difficult concept to the intense frustration of trying to manage the constraints faced by a student who is experiencing challenges at home. Also, student learning, school climate, and the quality received may be impacted by unpleasant classroom emotions (Schutz & Lee, 2014). Researchers indicated that different teacher behaviors impact students in various ways. Pössel et al. (2013) posited that the overall well-being of students is impacted by the support received from teachers. Van Ryzin, Gravely, and Roseth (2009) found that students reported better adjustment when they believed their teachers were encouraging. Also, students who sensed that their teachers were supportive, experienced more positive affect and life satisfaction (Suldo, Shaffer, & Riley, 2008) as well as reduced levels of self-consciousness during their time at school (Roeser, Midgley & Urda, 1996). On the

other hand, Ryan et al. (1994) postulated that students had lower self-esteem and a reduced sense of self-identity when they believed that there was a lack of support from teachers.

Having explored the emotional context within which social interactions occurred, specifically looking at interpersonal episodes in social situations, Goffman (1959) viewed people as actors, suggesting that people actively managed their “outer” expressions during their interactions. In organizational settings, Pugh (2001) reported that there exists a positive relationship between the employees’ display of positive emotions and the customers’ perception of the quality of service received during after-service transactions. In education, the student is considered a customer and faculty and staff, the service providers; therefore, a similar result can occur in teacher-student interactions.

Hochschild (1983) argued that service providers’ EL was likely to increase as a result of certain job characteristics (e.g. customer interaction) such as interactions with customers were likely to increase service providers’ EL. Hochschild’s view agrees with Morris and Feldman (1996), who stated that the demand for emotional regulation increases with the job’s demand for the exhibition of socially appropriate emotions, thereby increasing the employees’ EL. The same notion can be applied to teachers.

Emotions change often in teaching. For example, an absentee student querying a low grade at the end of the semester, knowing he/she did not meet all the requirements, yet insisting the given grade is incorrect and requires changing. The instructor, though frustrated, has to maintain civility in the encounter, irrespective of inner feelings. More planning and anticipation may be required on the part of teachers to prevent the surfacing of possible negative effects of EL when adjusting for each face-to-face encounter with

students of colleagues. Additionally, Morris and Feldman (1996) stated that emotional displays of long duration require more effort than short duration, leading to greater effects of EL. Morris and Feldman's claim is relevant to teachers, as they have to handle emotional displays for extended periods of time and experience high levels of EL.

Studies related to EL point to the need for emotion regulation to achieve good job performance (Grandey, 2014). EL extends emotion regulation by linking surface and deep acting to "real-world" outcomes (Grandey, 2000). These emotional regulation techniques have negatively impacted employee stress, health, job dissatisfaction, and overall job performance (Grandey, 2014). According to Lunenburg (2011), personal goals can positively impact job performance. However, Pugliesi (1999), in a study examining the consequences of EL, purported performing EL have both a positive and negative effect for employees. Additionally, Pugliesi found that EL increased the perception of job stress, decreased satisfaction, and increased distress. Therefore, having the ability to manage on-the-job related face-to-face encounters seems connected to an increase or decrease in the occurrence of EL, subsequently impacting TP. Schutz and Lee (2014) pointed to the importance of more research on EL related to teaching since teachers are quitting the classroom. Emotional episodes and the EL associated with them have the potential to influence how teachers see themselves and perform (Schutz & Lee, 2014). If the teacher cannot compartmentalize and suppress inner feelings using surface or deep acting, then organizational goals may not be achieved since the teacher cannot regulate his or her emotions to perform. Therefore, negative features of EL, such as anxiety and stress, could surface and subsequently negatively impact TP (Grandey, 2000). Consequently, the present study draws and tests the hypothesis H₁: there will be a

significant relationship between emotional labor and teachers' performance.

Emotional Intelligence

In the mid-1990's Daniel Goleman brought EI into the realm of academic discussions. Goleman claimed that EI is equally important to intelligence quotient (IQ) as it gives us the awareness of our own feelings as well as those of others. EI allows for empathy, compassion, motivation, and the ability to respond appropriately to pain or pleasure (Goleman, 1995). Goleman also claimed that EI included sociability, warmth, and optimism. Mayer et al. (2001) and Salovey et al. (1993) defined EI as the capacity to recognize and use emotional information in social interactions. According to Salovey et al. (1993) the ability to effectively control one's mood as well as the ability to respond effectively to the emotional needs of others and not simply maintain personal awareness are signs of strong EI (Mayer et al., 2000; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Goleman (2009) made similar assertions to those of the previous authors (Mayer et al., 2000, 2001; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey et al, 1993) and further described EI as a competence that gives the person the ability to recognize, understand, and use emotional information on self and others to perform effectively. Thus, having high levels of EI (ability to regulate mood in social encounters), may contribute to better performance in an EL work environment such as the classroom.

Psychologists and educators are interested in EI to discern its implications on people's lives (Brackett, Mayer, & Warner, 2004). In academia, the positive influence of EI on faculty members will be important to a Dean or Chair since EI may improve TP. The ability to regulate mood in social settings, show empathy, and motivate, as the need arises, are desirable traits to hold in the dynamic classroom and these traits could lessen

the negative effects of EL.

According to Goleman (1998), employers are judging employees by new measures as work rules change. The new measures focus on how well employees relate to and interact with each other and not by smartness, prior training, or expertise. The new measures focus on areas of personal qualities, such as initiative and empathy and adaptability and persuasiveness, which could improve work relations and TP. Employees skilled at handling social encounters, are said to be high in EI which allows for better interaction with people (Goleman, 1995). The academic arena has high interpersonal encounters; therefore, current EI levels of teachers would be worth knowing since an emotionally intelligent individual, according to Mayer et al. (2004), should be able to accurately perceive and regulate emotions to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought. Conducting training, if EI levels are low, is reasonable as scholars (Moshabaki, et al., 2011; Yilmaz, 2012) found EI to be a skill that improves over time. Therefore, TP may be improved with training of the teacher to increase EI.

Previously considered a distraction, managers are now recognizing emotions as a valuable competence in the workplace (Jaeger, 2004). To perform effectively, Jaeger (2004) suggested supplementing one's knowledge, skills, and overall intelligence with EI. Sy, Tram, and O'Hara (2006), in a study involving 187 food service employees, found EI to positively correlate with both job satisfaction and employees' performance. It was indicated that, employees with high levels of EI were better able to regulate and identify emotions felt, albeit negative or positive, making them more able to curtail behavior and take appropriate actions to be satisfied on the job and improve performance (Sy et al., 2006). Other scholars (Law, Wong & Song 2004; Wong & Law 2002) also

had similar findings; reporting that employees with high EI performed better on the job, a signal that employees with high EI were better able to regulate their emotions to facilitate job performance. Additionally, Aghdaqi, Kiamanesh, & Ebrahim (2011) recognized EI as one of the solutions for increasing job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and lessening occupational stress. The findings of the above-mentioned studies are important to the current study as the researcher sought to ascertain the relationship between EI and TP (Aghdasi et al., 2011; Law, Wong & Song, 2004; Wong & Law, 2002; Sy et al., 2006).

Early EL research was primarily centered on elementary and secondary aged students. However, scholars began studying EI in the collegiate environment (Jaeger, 2003). The present study not only focuses on the collegiate level, but also on the teacher. Adding EI and other non-cognitive variables in TP studies could expand the existing knowledge and provide new insights. Rendon (2002) asserted that many faculty adopted the flawed assumption that giving consideration to the inner or emotional life was contrary to intellectualism and therefore did not belong in college education. However, such viewpoint failed to consider that humans are emotional beings (Tisdell, 2003). Since, emotions are naturally part of human existence, the current study seems relevant as it aimed to find out the role-played by EI in TP and managing EL.

Is there a relationship between EI and TP? Can EI lessen the negative effects of EL on TP? Yusooff, Desa, Ibrahim, Abd Kadir, and Ab Rahman's (2014) in a study on the relationship of EI and personality among lecturers at a research university, found that a person with a high EI count manages their stress, anxiety, and their mood better at work. The study conducted by Yusooff et al. (2014) focused on lecturers who were

promoted as administrators and was not specific to any one discipline. Näring, Vlerick, and Van de Ven (2012), in a study of Belgian teachers, found that emotional demands of the job significantly predicted emotional exhaustion. As Yin (2012) suggested, in performing EL individuals need to use different strategies, the study aimed to examine the relationship of EI in conjunction with, EL, and SI's impact on TP in the field of hospitality and tourism education setting in one country.

EI can be developed over time (Cotrus, Stanciu, & Bulborea, 2012). While our intellect helps us to resolve problems, EI allows us to be more creative and use our emotions to resolve our problems (Cotrus et al., 2012). Additionally, Cotrus et al. (2012) stated that individuals with high levels of EI had better control over emotional reactions than others. Individuals high in EI have an awareness of other people (self-adjustment) and that creates self-consciousness; thus, EI individuals can understand feelings of others (empathy). Understanding individual feelings and impulses makes one better able to adjust his or her behavior in any situation. The ability to manage emotions, be aware of other's feelings and to empathize are positive qualities, can lessen negative effects of EL on-the-job and positively impact TP.

EI components cannot work alone. According to Cotrus et al. (2012), they are in an interdependent relation. As explained by Wong and Law (2002), the basic dimensions of EI are emotional awareness, emotional control, use of emotion, and self-motivation. Cotrus et al. (2012) suggested that humans must be conscious enough of themselves to identify what pushes them to reach success in stressful situations. Having the ability to control emotional energies allows an individual to use his or her maximum capacity to work in stressful conditions (Cotrus et al., 2012). Also, Cotrus et al. (2012) suggested

that being sensitive to what motivates others, especially if there is a need to influence behavior and resolve conflicts is important in living and working with others. If individuals cannot control their emotions and feelings, then, as previous studies have shown, emotional dissonance, which is a barrier to individual and organizational well-being, could occur (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Daus, 2002; Erickson & Ritter, 2001; Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983). Thus H₂ – there will be a significant relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and teachers' performance stems from previous studies in the literature to test the relationship between emotional intelligence and teachers' performance.

Spiritual Intelligence

Studies relating to SI have been gaining traction in academic circles by scholars within the past decade (Emmons, 1999; King, 2013; Tisdell, 2003; Wolman, 2001; Wigglesworth, 2012; Zohar & Marshall, 2000). A look at the various definitions of SI is helpful to better understand the value of SI to organizations, since it has been shown that a spiritually intelligent individual is generally healthier, more productive, and happier on the job (Tischler et al., 2002).

Zohar and Marshall (2000) described SI as the intelligence by which we address and solve problems of meaning and value, where individuals can place their lives into a wider, richer meaning-giving context. The general assessment that one life path or course of action is better than another. Wolman (2001) referred to SI as the capacity of human beings to seek understanding about the meaning of life and experience connections with the surrounding world. Tisdell (2003) saw SI as creating meaning through experience with a sensed higher power, higher purpose of universal wholeness.

Wigglesworth (2012) described SI as the ability to act wisely and compassionately while upholding inner and outer peace in all situations. King (2013), on the other hand, defined SI as the application of spirituality to various everyday occurrences. SI involves “using” spirituality in problem solving, planning, and adapting to the various challenges of life. King’s definition simplifies and best describes SI, and will be the working definition for this study as it encapsulates the previous definitions, coining SI as the adaptive application of spirituality in everyday life. King further expanded the definition from a psychological perspective “as a set of mental capacities which contribute to the awareness, integration, and adaptive application of the nonmaterial and transcendent aspects of one’s existence” (King, 2008, p. 56).

Spirituality, which forms the basis of spiritual intelligence (SI), is excluded from hospitality and other theories of inquiry based on the confusion and perception that spirituality is religion (Gatling, 2015). In spite of misconceptions, hospitality organizations can gain large benefits, especially during organizational change and transformations (Gatling, 2015). As Vaughan (2002) purported, SI provides spiritual support in daily stresses and promotes more adaptation to environmental challenges as SI unifies inner spiritual health with outer life and workplace. According to Šilingienė and Škėrienė (2014), SI is linked to sustainable performance as it addresses challenges faced by businesses and influences all areas of an individuals’ life. As Salicru (2010) explained, SI is the science of human energy management, having a general awareness which releases total capabilities for succeeding in life and the social climate. Hence, SI is deemed important for improving service quality or performance in an organization. Perceptions of quality service and customer satisfaction are greatly influenced by the

behaviors and attitudes of leaders and service organization employees (Šilingienė & Škėrienė, 2014).

Spiritual Intelligence is a complex multi-dimensional phenomenon. King and DeCicco (2009) proposed a model identifying four abilities of SI with the aim of dispelling and distinctly differentiating SI from religiousness (see Figure 2). As King (2010) expounded, such abilities as critical existential intelligence, personal meaning production, transcendental awareness, and conscious state expansion, represent human spirituality and aid in highlighting internal processes people undergo when making decisions which are of importance to the teacher in the classroom as it taps into their personal value system.

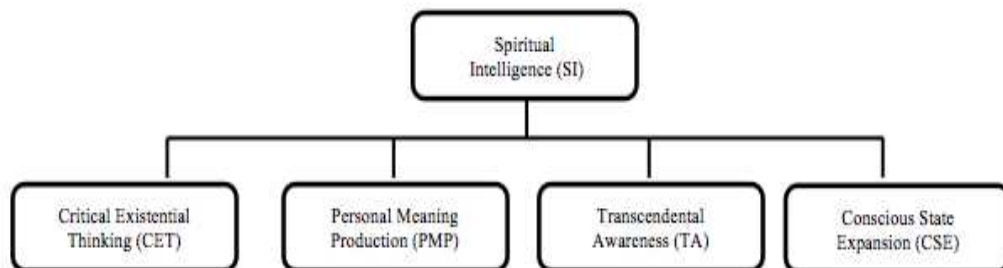


Figure 2. A model of spiritual intelligence. Adapted from “A Practical Guide to Spiritual Intelligence,” by D. King, 2013, Ebook, p. 5. Copyright 2013. Adapted with permission.

The first component of SI defined by King (2010), critical existential thinking, is the capacity to critically reflect on the nature of life-and-death, reality, consciousness, the universe, time, truth, justice, evil, and other philosophical issues. King suggested that critical thinking, when reflecting on these existential issues, forms conclusions based on personal philosophies integrated with scientific knowledge, hinting to the cognitive nature of SI. Just as cognitive resources are important in work performance and

instrumental in TP, so too is the reflection on existential topics (the origins of life and the universe, the definition of truth and justice, a higher power, energy or deity) which helps in value creation and personal goal setting and, as discussed earlier, having personal goals are important in improving performance. Figure 3 provides an illustration of the different levels of existential thinking.

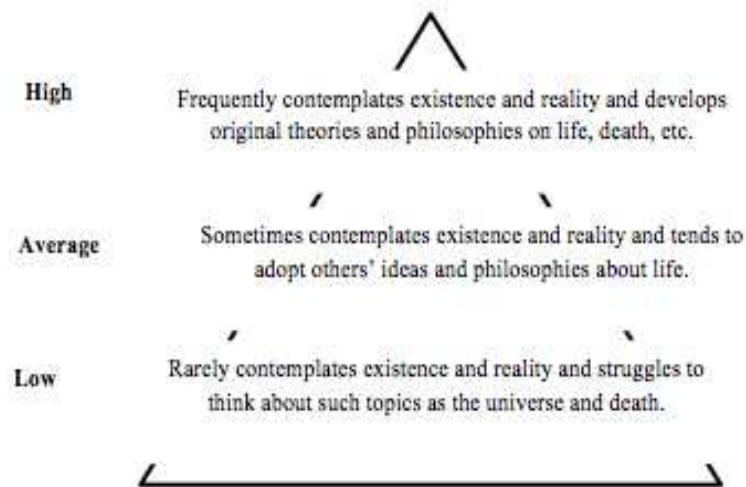


Figure 3. Levels of critical existential thinking. Adapted from “A Practical Guide to Spiritual Intelligence,” by D. King, 2013, Ebook, p. 6. Copyright 2013. Adapted with permission.

The second component of SI, personal meaning production, King (2008) defined as “the ability to construct personal meaning and purpose in all physical and mental experiences, including the capacity to create and master a life purpose” (p. 61). King continued by highlighting that there can be different sources to construct, extract meaning, and purpose so “creat[ing] meaning in all mental and physical experiences occupies the highest level of this particular ability” (King, 2008, p. 63). Figure 4 explains the levels of personal meaning production.

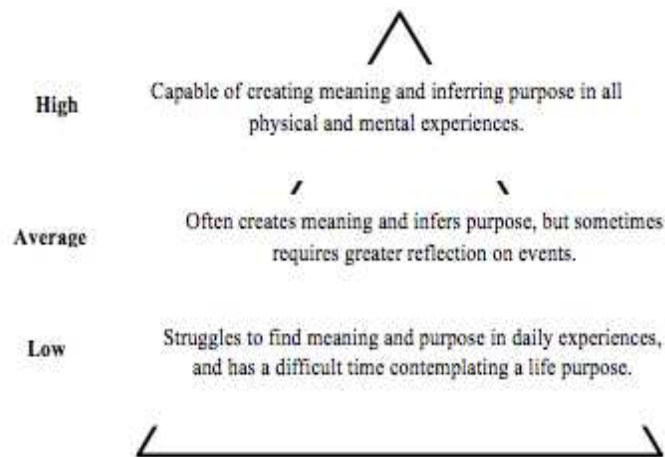


Figure 4. Levels of personal meaning production. Adapted from “A Practical Guide to Spiritual Intelligence,” by D. King, 2013, Ebook, p. 10. Copyright 2013. Adapted with permission.

The third part of SI, transcendental awareness, is the capacity to identify transcendental dimensions of self, others, and of the physical world (King, 2013). Transcendental awareness, according to King (2010), refers to going beyond the normal or physical human experience. Oxford University Press, as cited by King, stated that transcendental awareness involves “existing apart from and not subject to the limits of the physical universe” (p. 65); the spirituality of life creating a holistic dimension of truth. The transcendental piece of the model is what makes it spiritual intelligence or awareness. It allows the individual to mentally extricate themselves from encounters, calm themselves (by meditation/reflection), see the bigger picture, examine areas one may have missed before eventually responding in the face-to-face encounter (King, 2013). Figure 5 shows the levels of this ability.

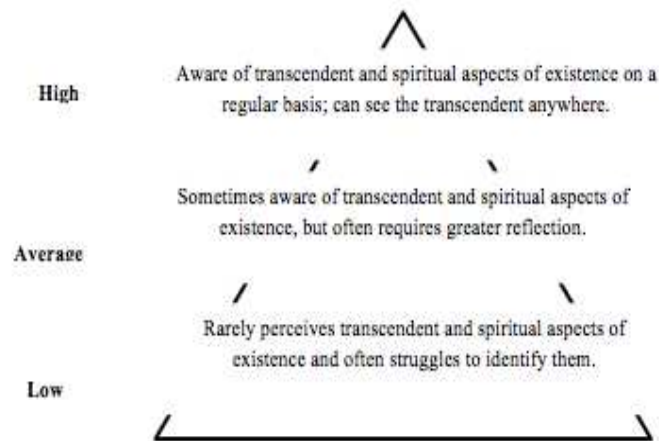


Figure 5. Levels of transcendental awareness. Adapted from “A Practical Guide to Spiritual Intelligence,” by D. King, 2013, Ebook, p. 14. Copyright 2013. Adapted with permission.

The fourth and final part of SI, conscious state expansion, is defined as the ability to enter and exit higher or “spiritual” states of consciousness, such as unity, at one’s own discretion (possibly through prayer or deep contemplation) (King, 2013). State of consciousness is compared, according to King, to awareness and arousal. Consciousness involves the view that all of life’s components are the same integrated and unified whole while pure consciousness refers to a silent state without any object of thought. State of consciousness involves deep reflection or focus allowing the individual to visualize peaceful or happy experiences which, when done on a consistent basis, helps him or her to have greater control over thoughts and emotions. Figure 6 shows levels of conscious state expansion.

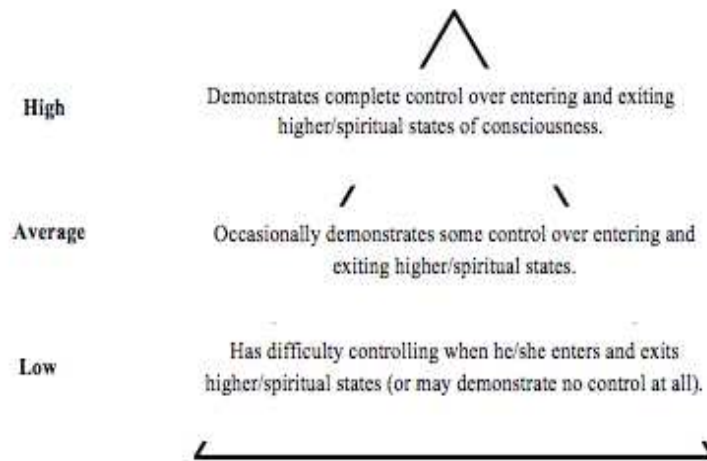


Figure 6. Levels of conscious state expansion. Adapted from “A Practical Guide to Spiritual Intelligence,” by D. King, 2013, Ebook, p. 18. Copyright 2013. Adapted with permission.

Improving Spiritual Intelligence

As mentioned in Chapter 1 and resulting discussions, SI is manageable and King (2013) suggested ways to improve all four abilities included in SI. For the first ability, the author proposed discussing existential issues with others, expressing personal thoughts and trying to explain them to improve existential capacity. Second, writing thoughts on existential topics aids in exploring individual views and understanding of the topic. Third, analyzing an existential debate or argument can help to develop critical thinking on the topic as here the individual will analyze and identify weak or inaccurate perspectives and, while doing so, ponders personal views on the topic. Improving the second ability entails making a list of things the individual considers giving them a sense of purpose in life, writing about experiences, finding the good in the bad and defining a personal purpose. Improving the third ability requires paying attention to both inner and outer worlds. King (2013) suggested an examination of the bigger picture, watching for connections, and finally, reflective thinking as a means of improving transcendental

awareness.

To improve the fourth ability of reflective thinking, King reasoned that the individual needs to become more mindful of personal views and emotions, exploring various methods of focusing. In academia, the use of retreats or other collective team building exercises could be used to build SI abilities, by inviting experts in SI to conduct training sessions. Building SI abilities not only improves TP but a college's or department's performance, competitiveness, and profit margin, overall increasing the institution's competitive advantage, a view shared by Šilingienė & Škėrienė (2014). Additionally, improved SI could decrease effects of EL based on the personal growth gained.

Spirituality in Academia

Vaughan (2002) stated that there are ways to discern SI in relation to different areas of inquiry. In fact, Vaughan stated that there are a number of fields (including medicine, psychology, and thanatology) for which research is being done regarding spirituality. Applying SI to all areas of inquiry would result in a reexamination of commonly held beliefs and assumptions. Furthermore, there would be greater depth in our inquiry as subjective and objective perspectives would be reviewed. Some of these perspectives examine:

1. Spiritual choices – Bookstores currently stock a wide array of literature on spiritual teachings which provide many choices to those seeking spiritual guidance.
2. Relationships – Not only does spiritual intelligence deepen primary love relationships, it also aids in the healing of familial relationships, platonic

relationships, and relationships among colleagues. Additionally, SI helps persons to gain an appreciation for teachers and mentors.

3. Parenting – Hoffman (1992) indicated that spiritual experiences in early childhood have long-term effects and that during childhood, the basic elements of SI are learnt through the exploration of the inner world of imagination.
4. Solitude – The process of spiritual inquiry appears to require an understanding of and appreciation for the value of periods of silence and solitude.
5. Varieties of spiritual experience – In discussing SI, it is important to understand and accept that there are a variety of spiritual experiences which potentially offer significant insights. However, the interpretations of these experiences are dependent on the beliefs of the interpreter. Furthermore, emotional and cognitive factors affect the successful integration of these experiences.
6. Self-concept – An important factor in spiritual inquiry is our self-image (i.e. our perceptions about who and what we are)

The above perspectives, some innate and some taught, are what help to shape the individual value system, how people relate to others, and function daily which could lead to successful job performance (Vaughan, 2002).

Kushwaha and Shakya (2014) conducted a study examining teaching effectiveness of prospective teachers in relation to their SI. The results revealed a significant correlation between teaching effectiveness (academic, professional, social, emotional, moral, & personality) and SI. An educational program's impact and success is dependent on the performance and quality of the teacher, which indicates the teacher's effectiveness (Kushwaha, 2014). The study by Kushwaha and Shakya (2014) supports

the researcher's view that SI should have a positive effect on TP. SI seems like a valuable skill to have which could lessen any negative effects of EL and improve TP. Furthermore, SI has been shown to have positive results on an individual and there is increased consideration to SI's importance in human experience and the role played in teaching and learning (Tisdell, 2003).

According to Hosseini, Elias, Krauss, and Aishah (2010), "spirituality can be viewed as a form of intelligence because it predicts functioning and adaptation and offers capabilities that enable people to solve problems and attain goals" (p. 179). Like Hosseini et al. (2010), Vaughan (2002) stated that the refinement of any form of intelligence needs training and discipline, with SI being no exception. Viewing spirituality as a form of intelligence allows a broader conceptualization of spirituality by psychologists. Thus, psychologists can examine how spirituality interrelates with such rational cognitive processes as goal achievement and problem resolution. SI also provides individuals with a basis for transcendental inquiry, thereby promoting questions about the purpose and meaning of life and supporting the active pursuit of personally meaningful goals. Therefore, SI assists individuals who have questions about the bigger picture (King, 2010). Additionally, Hossein et al. (2010) explained that SI promotes the conscious examination of the individual's activities in a broader context thereby allowing individuals to fill the gap between self and others using inter and intrapersonal emotions. In his account about interpersonal emotions, Goleman (1995) described them as within-the-self-emotions used in relating to others. Goleman also asserted that EI cannot by itself bridge the gap; SI is also needed to gain insight into ourselves, to interpret the world, to find meanings in elements, to understand how others derive meaning for

themselves, and to understand how everything fits into our own world.

Only recently has research begun to explore spirituality in the workplace. Thus, much of the existing knowledge on the subject is scattered across a variety of fields including business, psychology, communication, human resources, religious studies, and medicine. Nonetheless, Reave (2005) asserted that gathering, consolidating, and analyzing the findings from the various fields will provide a broad empirical base on which theory can be built and interdisciplinary approaches to studying SI can be explored. Linked with quantifiable positive effects for organizations and individuals are the spiritual values of integrity, honesty, and humility along with the spiritual practices of treating others with respect and fairness, expressing care and concern, listening responsively, appreciating others, and taking time for personal reflection (Reave, 2005). Additionally, SI helps to fight against problems of life and death and the deepest origins of human pain and despair (Hosseini et al., 2010). Existing research seems to indicate a link between spiritual beliefs, practices, and commitments and such positive results as good physiological and psychological health, a satisfying marriage, stable and positive interpersonal performance, and a more improved quality of life (Seybold & Hill, 2001).

Javaheri, Safarnia, and Mollahosseini (2013) surveyed 45 employees, examining the relationship between spiritual intelligence and service quality. SI was found to have a significant positive effect on service with personal meaning production and conscious state expansion reflecting a higher effect on service quality than critical existential thinking and transcendental awareness. Personal meaning production refers to personal values being created, while conscious state expansion involves deep reflection which aids in controlling emotions (King, 2013), assisting the individual in displaying positive affect

in face-to-face encounters. Reave (2005) suggested that characteristics such as respect for others, fair treatment, expressions of caring and concern, listening responsively, recognizing the contribution of others, and engaging in reflective thinking are crucial leadership skills which, along with integrity and honesty, are positive attributes of SI. The aforementioned characteristics of SI in work settings could also lead to improved organizational and employee performance; a view supported by Harmer and Fallon (2007). These are important, not only for leadership but for jobs, such as nursing, counseling, and teaching (Javaheri et al., 2013), which involve face-to-face interactions and where burnout could occur if emotions are not managed.

Porkodi, Varadaraj, and Rajesh (2013) examined causes influencing teacher's SI. They found the following factors to be essential for teacher's SI in the workplace: (1) discernment and immanence, (2) egolessness and openness, (3) presence, (4) trust and purpose, and (5) gratitude and equanimity. Teaching is expected to provide ways and means for achieving the development of body, mind, and spirit (Porkodi et al., 2013). Gathumbi et al. (2013) suggested that positive outcomes can occur with good TP. Quality teachers also have the distinct ability to master various knowledge, skills, and expertise to use as a means to improve the effectiveness of instruction and learning. As such, teachers are the forerunners in creating social cohesion, national and global integration, and a learning society. Also, it seems that, teachers' SI is important for teachers and students' communication and performance improvement. As Zoahar and Marshall (2000) suggested, SI is used when an individual needs to be flexible and visionary or creatively spontaneous. In teaching, much depends on the individual instructor, on his or her ability to grasp opportunities, understanding and appreciation for

young minds, and personal contribution to the important role of mentor (Neumann, 1957). Deolalkar and Phatak (2014) in a study focusing on SI development, innovators purported that SI leverages humans, creating the opportunity to be more creative and innovative.

As stated earlier, using the word “spiritual” in relation to intelligence does not necessarily mean connection to religion. Any religion that one believes in is based on the individual’s culture and upbringing. Of the intelligences proposed, SI has remained a forerunner in the past decade (Amram, 2007). The discussion on SI is still relatively new and so several gaps still exist on how this psychological skill impacts individual performance, learning and social skills. As Gatling (2015) summarized, a spirituality-enabled organizational transformation can positively affect work attitudes and improve performance in hospitality organizations. Emmons (1999) purported that there are many ways to be intelligent; however, spirituality has not been studied within mainstream research on intelligence. SI therefore brings forth new domains of intelligent actions in society. H₃ (there will be a significant relationship between teachers’ spiritual intelligence and teachers’ performance) stems from previous studies in the literature to test the relationship among spiritual intelligence and teachers’ performance.

The Model Framework and Hypotheses

From the review of literature and the proposed variables, the hypotheses of the study are as follows:

H₁: There will be a significant positive relationship between emotional labor and teachers’ performance.

H2: There will be a significant positive relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and teachers' performance.

H3: There will be a significant positive relationship between teachers' spiritual intelligence and teachers' performance.

The proposed hypotheses and their relationships stem from the structural model illustrated in Figure 7.

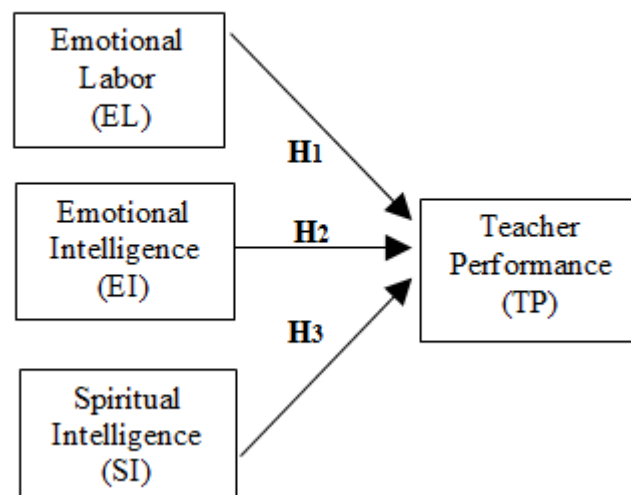


Figure 7. Structural model and hypotheses.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

Introduction

In chapter three, to demonstrate procedural rigor and establish that the research was conducted in a valid, reliable, and objective manner, the researcher described the research design, instrument, sampling, data collection process, and data analysis methods related to the study.

Research Design

This study adopted a multiple correlational analysis research design with self-reported questionnaire surveys to investigate the relationships among emotional labor (EL), emotional intelligence (EI), and spiritual intelligence (SI), and teachers' performance (TP). Data was collected electronically in an on-line format. In an effort to attract maximum response rate, purposive sampling coupled with snowball method were used to recruit participants for this study. Emails were sent using the researchers' personal database and from listings on the website of hospitality and tourism programs. Each prospective participant was asked to forward the survey to colleagues. Incentives were provided to participants for encouragement and timely response. One hundred US dollar award was randomly awarded as an incentive to one willing participant. Participants

submitted their email addresses at the end of the survey to be eligible for the award. Data collection instruments for all variables (EI, SI, EL, & TP) were distributed for completion towards the end of the semester. Since data was collected over one academic semester greater feedback was garnered on the existence of EL at the end, based on each teachers' experience. The teachers would have been more able to report on their actions taken at the end of the semester.

Sampling

The research sample consisted of hospitality and tourism educators from the United States of America. The proposed sample was drawn from faculty in two and four-year undergraduate degree granting institutions. Purposive sampling coupled with the snowballing technique were used to recruit participants for this study. The sample size decision was made prior to the study in accordance with Child's (2006) guidance. As such, the G*Power Sample Size Calculator was used to determine an appropriate sample size for the study. Three aggregated IV's (SI, EI, & EL) were used. G*Power takes into consideration the number of aggregated variables, desired statistical power of (.95), and effect size (medium = .50; large = .8 according to Cohen (1988). Consequently, from the sample size calculator it was determined that a minimum of 80 respondents would be sufficient for this study. However, the researcher aimed to gain 100 participants to ensure reliability of the correlations (Child, 2006, p.50).

Data Collection

To assist in the data collection process, an introductory letter was prepared inviting potential faculty participants and explaining the study. This invitation letter introduced the researcher, explained the purpose and importance of the study,

confidentiality procedures, the data collection process, the need for the faculty member to complete online surveys, and how they may be entered for the incentive drawing. All participants were treated ethically, and all documentations relevant to the study were approved by Oklahoma State University's Institutional Review Board.

Survey Instruments

To measure proposed constructs, several scales were adopted with minor modifications to fit the research context. The scales include: (1) the Spiritual Intelligence Self-Report Inventory (SISRI-24) developed by King (2008) to measure SI; (2) the Emotional Intelligence and Emotional Labor Scale developed by Wong and Law (2002) to measure both EI and EL; and (3) the Job Performance Scale developed by Goodman and Svyantek (1999) used in this study to measure TP. The rationale for using self-reported measures for data gathering according to Podsakoff and Organ (1986), are as follows:

1. Obtaining demographic or otherwise factual data (such as age, or sex of respondent, years of tenure, etc.), that are, in principle verifiable from other sources.
2. Assessing the effectiveness of experimental manipulations.
3. Gathering personality data (trait anxiety, need for achievement, locus of control, and so forth).
4. Obtaining descriptions of a respondent's past or characteristic behaviors (e.g., asking supervisors about their "structuring" behaviors), and/or seeking respondents' intentions of future behaviors (e.g., to quit), or how they would behave under certain hypothetical conditions (i.e., various role-playing exercises).

5. Scaling the psychological states of respondents, such as job attitudes, tension, or motivation.
6. Soliciting respondents' perceptions of an external environmental variable (the supervisor's behavior, formalization of organizational processes, climate). (p. 532)

From the reasons above, numbers one, three, five, and six are in line with the objectives of the current study as the researcher sought to ascertain the relationship between EI, SI, EL, and TP. Whereby demographic data, faculty perceptions of EL and their performance over a semester were ascertained.

Emotional Intelligence Instrument

The 16-item instrument (see Appendix 1) has four dimensions, namely: self-emotion appraisal (SEA), use of emotion (UOE), regulation of emotion (ROE), and other's emotion appraisal (OEA). A five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 for "strongly disagree" to 5 for "strongly agree." Statements in the scale include: "I have good control of my own emotions;" "I am a good observer of others' emotions;" "I always tell myself I am a competent person;" and "I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally." Internal consistency (reliability) for the four factors ranged from .82 to .86 (Wong & Law, 2002). The higher scores on the scale, correspond with the higher the levels of EI.

The Spiritual Intelligence Self-Report Inventory (SISRI-24)

The 24-item instrument (see Appendix 2) is a self-reported measure on a four-point scale with responses ranging from 0 for "Not at all true of me" to 4 "Completely true of me." The total score ranged from 0 to 96 with variations for each sub scale,

critical existential thinking (CET) 0 – 28, personal meaning production (PMP) 0 – 20, transcendental awareness (TA) 0 – 28, conscious state expansion (CSE) 0 – 20. Items from each of the four capacities include such items as: “I have often contemplated the relationship between human beings and the rest of the universe;” “I am able to find meaning and purpose in my everyday experiences;” “I am aware of a deeper connection between myself and other people;” “I often see issues and choices more clearly while in higher states of consciousness/awareness.” High scores represent higher levels of spiritual intelligence and/or each capacity. The instrument has shown a Cronbach alpha of .92 (King, 2013) depicting good internal reliability based on previous studies.

Emotional Labor

Wong and Law’s (2002) five-item EL scale (see Appendix 3) was used and the wording modified to suit the context of the current study. While such scholars as Yin (2012, 2015) modified the EL scale as developed by Wong and Law, using four items, there is value in the original five items previously developed which had a coefficient alpha of .69. EL was treated as a single construct as suggested by Chen, Ku, Shyr, Chen, and Chou (2009), Näring, Vlerick, and Van de Ven (2012), Taris and Schreurs, (2009) and Yin (2015). Therefore, all five items were used but re-worded to fit an undergraduate level teaching context and measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1= “Strongly disagree” to 5= “Strongly agree.” The items were designed to garner information relating to teachers’ perception of existing EL in the work environment with questions such as: “To perform my teaching well I have to hide my actual feelings when acting and speaking with people (students, colleagues, supervisors),” or “To perform my teaching well, I spend most of my work time interacting with people (students,

colleagues, supervisors).”

Teacher Performance

To measure TP, the 25 items of the Job Performance Scale developed by Goodman and Svyantek (1999) were used (see Appendix 4). The instrument was first developed with 16 items related to Contextual Performance (Altruism – citizenship behavior towards others & Conscientiousness – citizenship behavior in relation to the organization) by Smith, Organ and Near (1983) in an aim to measure Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Organ, 1997). Goodman and Svyantek added 9 items related to Task Performance from a Midwestern Manufacturing Organization employee performance evaluation form.

The Job Performance Scale was recently assessed for reliability and validity by Yusoff, Ali, and Khan (2014) in a study consisting of 677 university teachers working in both public and private universities in Pakistan. The instrument was found to be a reliable self-administered tool for assessing job performance levels among university teachers in Pakistan. The Job Performance Scale had a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of .82 and a mean item-total correlation of .70 which identifies internal consistency. Eigen values for all 25 items was above 01 indicating sufficient convergent validity. Inter-scale correlations for all three dimensions for the job performance scale (contextual, conscientiousness and task performance) ranged up to .83 proving reliability of the instrument. The instrument used a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 = “Not at all characteristic” to 6 = “Totally characteristic” containing items such as: “Makes innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the department,” “Gives advance notice if unable to come to work,” and “Is competent in all areas of the job by carrying

out tasks as expected.”

Establishing Reliability and Validity

To establish reliability and validity of the instruments in the current study professors in the field of hospitality and tourism were asked to assess the appropriateness of the data collection tools, a means of establishing construct validity. Reliability was established based on how consistently the results of this current study are to previous studies using the instruments proposed for data collection. A correlation was carried out on the instruments and related items to determine internal consistency to ensure the instruments are indeed measuring what they were intended. Additionally, preliminary analysis of the data collected included examining descriptive statistics of the continuous variables, checking the normality assumption by examining histograms of the continuous variables, checking the linearity assumption by examining correlations between continuous variables and scatter diagrams of the dependent variable versus independent variables, Pearson correlation coefficients were used to examine the magnitude of the relationships between TP and EI, SI, and EL. The model was examined, checking for multi-collinearity. Residual plots were examined to check for error variance assumptions of normality and homogeneity of the dependent (TP) and independent (EI, SI, and EL) variables. Influence of outliers (denoted by skewness or kurtosis), if any, were noted along with the significance of coefficient estimates to trim the model.

Data Analysis

The study consisted of three observed exogenous (independent) variables spiritual intelligence (SI), emotional intelligence (EI), emotional labor (EL), and one endogenous (dependent) variable teachers' performance (TP). The model framework, as seen in

Figure 7, provides a visual interpretation of the study. A regression analysis was conducted to test the null hypotheses, and the zero order correlation of the variables EI, EL, and SI with TP were reported. Regression analysis “examines the value of a dependent variable in relation to one or more independent variables” (Vogt, 2005, p. 296). The semi-partial correlations were recorded next, which answered the question of linear relationships of linear combinations among the three independent variables in the sample. The semi-partial correlations for all three assisted in answering the questions of whether or not a linear correlation exists between the three variables. Additionally, the question of whether or not there is a relationship between the three variables (EI, SI, and EL) relating to a significance in TP within the sample was answered. The possible results and suggested treatment are as follows:

1. None would be significant – If this occurred, the comparisons would be discontinued as the study would not be meaningful at this point.
2. One would be significant and one not – If this occurred, the comparisons would be discontinued as the study would not be meaningful beyond this point.
3. Both could be significant – If this occurred, each would be examined individually to determine how correlated each variable is controlling for nothing. Following this, a comparison would be done for each variable controlling for the remaining two. For example, is there a relationship between SI and TP after the relationship of EL and EI have been removed? The semi-partialing helps to determine 1) if there is a unique relationship with just one independent variable holding for the other two, 2) if there is a relationship when they are looked at together and 3) how large these relationships are.

The data collected for this study was coded and matched prior to statistical analysis. SPSS version 22.0 was used to run the relevant analysis. F-test for the significance of the R or zero order correlations and semi-partialing was used to assess the relationships between the independent variables (EI, SI, & EL) and the dependent variable TP.

Although the study used EI, SI, and EL to determine their impact on TP, the use of control variables in addition to the stated predictor variables in the model contributes to a more robust test of the hypotheses. Other variables could indeed have a role in impacting TP. Control variables (age, length of tenure, gender, academic rank) were used to glean greater understanding on the effect of the predictor variables on TP. To check within-group agreement for the sample, a cutoff point of .70, as suggested by James, Demaree, and Wolf (1984,1993), was used, having uniform null and normal distributions (Homburg, Fürst, & Koschate, 2010) in naturally occurring groups. A value equal to or greater than .70 indicates that group means reliability differ based on individual scores (Bliese, 2000).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine emotional labor (EL), emotional intelligence (EI), and spiritual intelligence (SI) as factors influencing teachers' performance (TP) in the context of hospitality and tourism education. The results from data collected are discussed and presented based on the proposed hypotheses. First, the demographic information of the respondents is presented followed by simple descriptive statistics, and the third section presents the statistical analysis discussed in accordance with the stated hypotheses.

Demographic Profile of Respondents

The participants for the current study possessed different socio-demographic characteristics (see Table 2). Purposive sampling was used to ensure that participants were representative of hospitality and tourism educators in the United States. The survey was only distributed to known educators in hospitality and tourism within the United States of America. The majority were males (54.2 %), representing approximately 36 of the U.S. states. Most of the participants possessed a university degree at the doctoral level (68.5%) and were between 35 and 54 years old (45.4 %). Approximately 12%

(12.1%) reported annual earnings in US dollars (USD) between \$50,000 and \$74,999, while another 27.1 % reported earning over 150,000 USD. Majority were employed to a public institution (75 %) and academic ranks varied from instructor (20.4 %) to professor (27.8 %). Of all the respondents, 51.9 % were tenured, married, (69.4 %), possessed industry experience (98.1 %), and carried teaching loads ranging from a high of 11-12 credits (30.5%), and a low of 5-6 credits (31.4 %). Thus, based on the number of tenured faculty and years of service of the respondents, the sociodemographic characteristics of the respondents appeared appropriate for this study as seen in Deale, O'Halloran, Jacques, and Garger (2010) and Woods (1994).

Table 2

Demographic Profile of Participants

| Categories | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|------------------------------------|-----------|----------------|
| Gender | | |
| Male | 58 | 54.2 |
| Female | 49 | 45.8 |
| Age | | |
| 13-17 | 1 | 0.9 |
| 18-25 | 1 | 0.9 |
| 26-34 | 8 | 7.4 |
| 35-54 | 49 | 45.4 |
| 55-64 | 39 | 36.1 |
| 65 or over | 10 | 9.3 |
| Education | | |
| College Graduate (4 year) | 2 | 1.9 |
| Master's Degree (MS) | 29 | 26.9 |
| Doctoral Degree (PhD) | 74 | 68.5 |
| Professional Degree (MD, JD, etc) | 3 | 2.8 |
| Industry Experience | | |
| Experience | 105 | 98.1 |
| No Experience | 2 | 1.9 |
| Academic Rank | | |
| Instructor | 22 | 20.4 |
| Assistant Professor | 25 | 23.1 |
| Associate Professor | 31 | 28.7 |
| Professor | 30 | 27.8 |

| Categories | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|---|-----------|----------------|
| Tenureship | | |
| Tenured | 56 | 51.9 |
| Not Tenured | 52 | 48.1 |
| Teaching Load | | |
| 1 to 2 credits | 1 | 1.0 |
| 3 to 4 credits | 14 | 13.3 |
| 5 to 6 credits | 33 | 31.4 |
| 7 to 8 credits | 6 | 5.7 |
| 9 to 10 credits | 19 | 18.1 |
| 11 to 12 credits | 32 | 30.5 |
| Annual Household Income (in USD) | | |
| Rather not say | 10 | 9.3 |
| \$20,000 - \$29,999 | 1 | 0.9 |
| \$40,000 - \$49,999 | 1 | 0.9 |
| \$50,000 - \$74,999 | 13 | 12.1 |
| \$75,000 - \$99,999 | 25 | 23.4 |
| \$100,000 - \$150,000 | 28 | 26.2 |
| Over \$150,000 | 29 | 27.1 |
| Marital Status | | |
| Rather not say | 2 | 1.9 |
| Divorced | 6 | 5.6 |
| Living with another | 3 | 2.8 |
| Married | 75 | 69.4 |
| Separated | 1 | 0.9 |
| Single | 17 | 15.7 |
| Widowed | 4 | 3.7 |

Descriptive Statistics

The mean values of the five emotional labor items were between 2.60 and 4.26 on a five-point Likert type scale. While all scores were above the 2.5 or half mark, noteworthy are the scores and related items above the 3.0 mark since these responses indicated that majority of the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed with those statements. These items ascertained whether or not the teacher had to disguise his or her true feelings when interacting with others (items 5 and 3), think from the point of view of others (item 3), and spent most of the work time interacting with others (item 1). The

results suggested that the respondents perceived and experienced emotional labor when performing their immediate line of work (see Table 3).

Table 3

Mean and Standard Deviation of Emotional Labor Items

| Variable | Mean | Std. Dev |
|--|------|----------|
| Emotional Labor | | |
| 1. Spend most of my work time interacting with people (eg. customers, colleagues, students, and other workers in this organization). | 3.98 | 1.041 |
| 2. Spend a lot of time with every person whom I work with. | 2.60 | .929 |
| 3. Hide my actual feelings when acting and speaking with people. | 3.08 | 1.117 |
| 4. Be considerate and think from the point of view of others. | 4.26 | .750 |
| 5. Hide my negative feelings (e.g., anger and depression). | 3.65 | 1.070 |

Note. The EL statements were measured on a five-point Likert type scale.

The mean scores for emotional intelligence ranged from 3.35 to 4.35. The final sub-component, ‘Regulation of Emotion’ (ROE), had the lowest mean scores ranging from 3.54 to 3.85. The overall results suggested that the respondents exhibited evidence of being emotionally intelligent (see Table 4).

Mean scores for spiritual intelligence items were between 2.03 and 4.0. The final sub-category ‘Conscious State Expansion’, a skill which, when practiced, allows the individual to have greater control over thoughts and emotions (King, 2013), possessed the lowest overall mean scores from 2.40 and 2.94 (see Table 5).

Table 4

Mean and Standard Deviation of Emotional Intelligence Items

| Variable | Mean | Std. Dev |
|---|------|----------|
| Self-emotion Appraisal (SEA) | | |
| 1. I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time. | 4.04 | .620 |
| 2. I have a good understanding of my own emotions. | 4.23 | .536 |
| 3. I really understand what I feel. | 3.99 | .657 |
| 4. I always know whether or not I am happy. | 4.07 | .676 |
| Others' Emotion Appraisal (OEA) | | |
| 5. I always know my friends' emotions from their behavior. | 3.35 | .893 |
| 6. I am a good observer of others' emotions. | 3.95 | .783 |
| 7. I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others. | 4.15 | .675 |
| 8. I have good understanding of the emotions of the people around me. | 3.97 | .723 |
| Use of Emotion (UOE) | | |
| 9. I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them. | 4.21 | .791 |
| 10. I always tell myself I am a competent person. | 3.88 | .787 |
| 11. I am a self-motivated person. | 4.36 | .700 |
| 12. I would always encourage myself to do my best. | 4.35 | .783 |
| Regulation of Emotion (ROE) | | |
| 13. I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally. | 3.85 | .756 |
| 14. I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions | 3.81 | .736 |
| 15. I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry. | 3.54 | .964 |
| 16. I have good control of my own emotions. | 3.83 | .728 |

Note. The EI statements were measured on a five-point Likert type scale.

Table 5

Mean and Standard Deviation of Spiritual Intelligence Items

| Variable | Mean | Std. Dev |
|--|------|----------|
| Critical Existential Thinking (CET) | | |
| 1. I have often questioned or pondered the nature of reality. | 2.70 | 1.117 |
| 2. I have spent time contemplating the purpose or reason for my existence. | 2.93 | 1.299 |
| 3. I am able to deeply contemplate what happens after death. | 2.93 | 1.178 |
| 4. I have developed my own theories about such things as life, death, reality, and existence. | 3.09 | 1.229 |
| 5. I frequently contemplate the meaning of events in my life. | 3.45 | 1.086 |
| 6. I have often contemplated the relationship between human beings and the rest of the universe. | 2.86 | 1.125 |
| 7. I have deeply contemplated whether or not there is some greater power or force (e.g., a god, goddess, divine being, higher energy, etc.). | 3.51 | 1.324 |
| Personal Meaning Production (PMP) | | |
| 8. My ability to find meaning and purpose in life helps me adapt to stressful situations. | 3.75 | 1.014 |
| 9. I am able to define a purpose or reason for my life. | 3.90 | .886 |
| 10. When I experience a failure, I am still able to find meaning in it. | 4.00 | .726 |
| 11. I am able to make decisions according to my purpose in life. | 3.92 | .882 |
| 12. I am able to find meaning and purpose in my everyday experiences. | 3.77 | .859 |
| Transcendental Awareness (TA) | | |
| 13. I recognize aspects of myself that are deeper than my physical body. | 3.75 | 1.027 |
| 14. It is difficult for me to sense anything other than the physical and material. | 2.03 | 1.013 |
| 15. I am aware of a deeper connection between myself and other people. | 3.60 | .892 |
| 16. I define myself by my deeper, non-physical self. | 3.22 | 1.020 |
| 17. I am highly aware of the nonmaterial aspects of life. | 3.75 | .905 |
| 18. I recognize qualities in people which are more meaningful than their body, personality, or emotions. | 3.85 | .896 |
| 19. Recognizing the nonmaterial aspects of life helps me feel centered. | 3.65 | .984 |

| Variable | Mean | Std. Dev. |
|---|------|-----------|
| Conscious State Expansion (CSE) | | |
| 20. I am able to enter higher states of consciousness or awareness. | 2.94 | 1.162 |
| 21. I can control when I enter higher states of consciousness or awareness. | 2.61 | 1.130 |
| 22. I am able to move freely between levels of consciousness or awareness. | 2.40 | 1.033 |
| 23. I often see issues and choices more clearly while in higher states of consciousness or awareness. | 2.66 | 1.210 |
| 24. I have developed my own techniques for entering higher states of consciousness or awareness. | 2.41 | 1.234 |

Note. The TP statements were measured on a seven-point scale.

The twenty-five item teachers' performance scale was measured on a seven-point Likert type scale with three sub-components. The overall mean scores ranged from 2.03 to 6.42. Based on the responses, participants felt they were competently performing their job tasks, valued their place of work, were mindful to not waste resources, and were not only concerned about their own success and wellbeing but also that of others (see Table 6).

Table 6

Mean and Standard Deviation of Teachers' Performance Items

| Variable | Mean | Std. Dev |
|---|------|----------|
| Teachers' Performance (IV) | | |
| Contextual Performance (Altruism) | | |
| 1. I help other employees with their work when they have been absent. | 5.42 | 1.216 |
| 2. I volunteer to do things not formally required by the job. | 5.92 | .978 |
| 3. I take initiative to orient new employees to the department even though it is not part of my job description. | 5.80 | .993 |
| 4. I help others when their work load increases (e.g., assists others until they get over the hurdles). | 5.33 | 1.097 |
| 5. I am assisted with my duties. | 3.81 | 1.492 |
| 6. I make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the department. | 5.71 | 1.033 |
| 7. I willingly attend functions not required by the organization, but help in its overall image. | 5.47 | 1.544 |
| Contextual Performance (Consciousness) | | |
| 8. I exhibit punctuality arriving at work on time in the morning and after lunch breaks. | 5.95 | 1.161 |
| 9. I take undeserved work breaks. | 2.53 | 1.519 |
| 10. I exhibit attendance at work beyond the norm, for example, take fewer days off than most individuals or fewer than allowed. | 5.58 | 1.601 |
| 11. I coast toward the end of the day. | 2.96 | 1.696 |
| 12. I give advance notice if unable to come to work. | 6.13 | 1.133 |
| 13. I spend a great deal of time in personal telephone conversations. | 2.03 | 1.249 |
| 14. I do not take unnecessary time off work. | 5.83 | 1.476 |
| 15. I do not take extra breaks. | 5.66 | 1.358 |
| 16. I do not spend a great deal of time in idle conversation. | 5.10 | 1.459 |
| Task Performance | | |
| 17. I achieve the objectives of the job. | 6.30 | .752 |
| 18. I meet the criteria for job performance. | 6.42 | .763 |
| 19. I demonstrate expertise in all job-related tasks. | 6.10 | .906 |

| Variable | Mean | Std. Dev |
|--|------|----------|
| 20. I fulfill all the requirements of the job. | 6.38 | .758 |
| 21. I could manage more responsibility than typically assigned. | 5.59 | 1.326 |
| 22. I appear to be suitable for a higher level role. | 6.00 | 1.028 |
| 23. I am competent in all areas of the job, handle tasks with proficiency. | 6.05 | .931 |
| 24. I perform well in the overall job by carrying out tasks as expected. | 6.35 | .727 |
| 25. I plan and organize to achieve objectives of the job and meet deadlines. | 6.15 | .909 |

Note. The TP statements were measured on a seven-point scale.

Normality Assumptions

After importing responses from Qualtrics into SPSS, prior to proceeding with data analysis all missing values were identified and coded as missing. Following this, frequency analysis was done for each variable to identify any unusual responses. The normality assumptions of TP were examined since this was the outcome variable of interest and distributional assumptions associated with it were of importance (Kline, 2011). A scatterplot matrix with total fit line was generated and examined for linearity and homoscedasticity of the outcome variable, TP. No adverse issue was identified in the scatterplot. Figure 8 reflects these results.

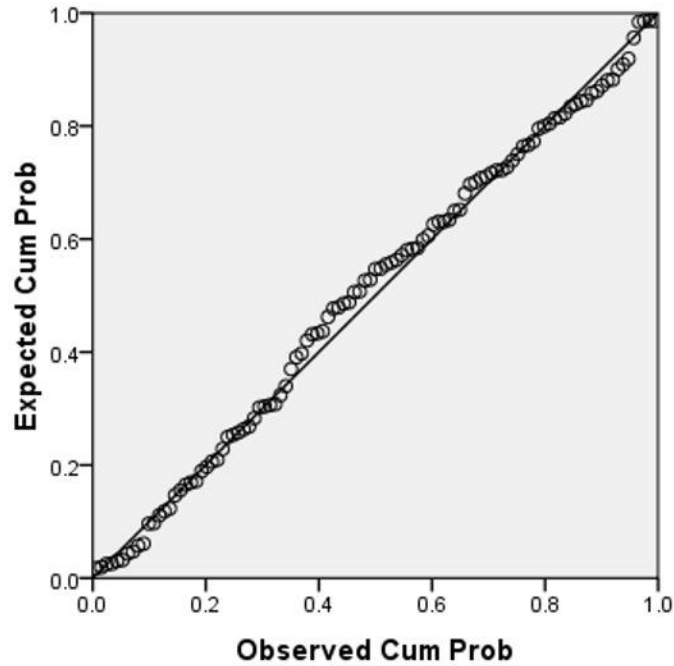


Figure 8. Scatterplot for the outcome variable TP.

In the current study, z-scores were computed to identify existing outliers. A cut-off value of 3.0 was used; therefore, any case with z-scores equal to or above 3.0 was removed from the TP data (Stevens, 2009, p. 14). One case which had a value considered to be extreme at -3.372 was identified and eliminated. Following elimination of the outlier, the distribution was improved as shown in Figure 9.

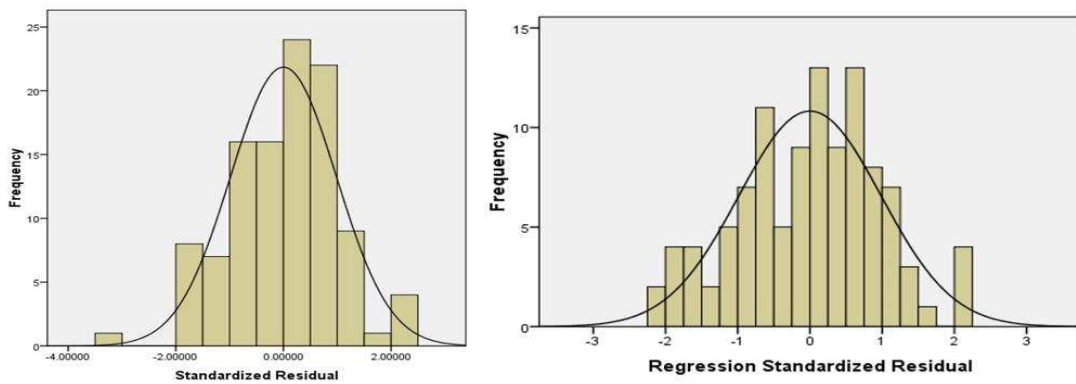


Figure 9. Histogram of normal distribution curve for TP before and after treatment of outlier.

The correlation matrix is presented in Table 7. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2000), a correlation coefficient value between .10 and .30 is considered weak; between .31 and .70 moderate; and .71 and above indicates high positive relationships. Because none of the obtained values exceeded .70, no multicollinearity was identified. To further confirm no multicollinearity, emotional labor, spiritual and emotional intelligence were regressed on teachers' performance. The obtained range of VIF values was between 1.020 and 1.127. The VIF indicated that multicollinearity was not a concern as the respective VIF scores were not > 3 as suggested by O'Brien (2007).

Table 7

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Measures

| | Mean | S.D. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|----|------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| TP | 5.38 | .463 | 1.000 | | | |
| EI | 3.98 | .419 | .461 | 1.000 | | |
| EL | 3.54 | .631 | .162 | .078 | 1.000 | |
| SI | 3.24 | .636 | .131 | .317 | -.084 | 1.000 |

Note. Not all correlation coefficients were significant at the level of .01 in a one-tailed test.

Reliability and Validity of the Measurements

As suggested by Davis (1992), an expert panel of hospitality and tourism instructors were consulted to examine and assess the instruments used in the current study. The process was conducted to establish content validity. The instruments and their related items were examined and the consensus was that the items were appropriate based on the nature of the study.

The KMO, a measure of sampling adequacy (Cerny & Kaiser 1977; Dziuban & Shirkey, 1974; Kaiser 1970;), a value of 0.448, was below the reported acceptable value

(Kaiser, 1974). Values below .5 indicate the need for remedial action to be taken while values greater than .8 can be considered good (Kaiser 1970). The low value however, could be attributed to the low number of respondents as well as the characteristic difference in the population being sampled (Fuqua, 2015). For the current study, there were 120 respondents and 70 items suggesting one and half response to an item. However, following data cleaning, 13 respondents were discarded based on non-response to survey items further reducing the number of responses to items. In spite of the low KMO value, scholars (Gorsuch, 1983; Kline, 1979; MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang & Hong, 1999) recommend a sample size of at least 100 for factor analysis thus making the current data set appropriate to proceed with the analysis.

Even though the instruments used for the study were pre-established measures, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to establish construct validity, especially since the scales were used together and minor adjustments were made to fit the context of the current study. As indicated by Hair et al. (2006), confirmatory factor analysis is used to evaluate the relationship between the latent variables and their indicators.

The fit indices obtained after conducting CFA are presented in Table 8. Kline suggests, chi-square p-value > .05, CFI > .95, RMSEA < .05, and SRMR > .08. Several items were eliminated from the measurement scales to improve the fit indices. The readings are presented (see Table 11). The CFA yielded the following: EL ($\chi^2 = 0.000$, $df = 0$ ($p < .001$)). The fit statistics cannot be interpreted as either bad or good as the model was identified. Additionally, there were not enough degrees of freedom for EL, also contributing to the model being just identified. SI, EI, and TP had acceptable fit indices

based on the chi-square being significantly above .05. SI $\chi^2 = 364.730$, $df = 205$ ($p < .001$); EI ($\chi^2 = 184.580$, $df = 100$ ($p < .001$); and TP ($\chi^2 = 269.626$, $df = 148$ ($p < .001$)). Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham (2006) suggested reporting other fit indices along with Chi-square since it is sensitive to sample size. Additional examined goodness-of-fit indices were CFI, RMSEA and SRMR (see Table 8).

Table 8

Goodness-of-Fit Indicators (n=107)

| Variables | χ^2 | df | χ^2/df | CFI | RMSEA | SRMR |
|-----------|------------|------|-------------|------|-------|-------|
| EL | 0.000*** | 0 | 0.000 | 1.00 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| SI | 364.730*** | 205 | 1.779 | .899 | .083 | 0.076 |
| EI | 184.580*** | 100 | 1.845 | .900 | .05 | 0.081 |
| TP | 269.626*** | 148 | 1.82 | .883 | .087 | 0.077 |

Note. *** $p < .001$, χ^2 = Chi-square, df = Degree of Freedom, CFI = Comparative Fit Index, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.

As indicated by Kline (2011), one may achieve poor fit statistics based on a small sample size. The current study had poor fit indicators ($CFI < .95$ = SI, EI, & TP; $RMSEA > .05$; = SI & TP; $SRMR < .08$ = EL, SI, & TP) which could be attributable to the number of parameters being estimated and sample size (Kline, 2011). Of all the variables, EI resulted with the best fit indices ($\chi^2 = 184.580$, $CFI = .900$, $RMSEA = .05$, and $SRMR = 0.081$).

Convergent validity assesses the degree to which the indicators of a latent construct measures the same construct. Therefore, an assessment of the parameter estimates is one method used by researchers when estimating convergent validity (Blanthorne, Jones-Faremer, & Almer, 2006). In the current study four one-factor

models were used based on the research question and sample size (Kline, 2011). The first and second order factors and respective loadings are presented in Table 9. Standardized factor loadings for emotional labor had one being above 0.5, two fell just below and the remaining two fell way below. These two items were deleted which improved the fit indices. The spiritual intelligence scale had all factors loading above 0.5 while the same was true for emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence. Convergent validity was therefore achieved. Teachers' performance also had good standardized loadings, however, items 8, 11, and 12 loaded separately from items 14, 15, and 16 which were all a part of the contextual performance (conscientiousness) sub scale; an indication that a fourth sub-factor could be present to measure TP. However, upon closer inspection items 8, 11, and 12 were positively stated statements while items 4 through 16 were negatively worded and thus could have contributed to the separation.

Table 9

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Standardized Loadings for EL, SI, EI, and TP

| Items | Standardized Loadings |
|--|-----------------------|
| Emotional Labor | |
| 1. Spend most of my work time interacting with people (eg. customers, colleagues, students, and other workers in this organization). | 0.787 |
| 2. Spend a lot of time with every person whom I work with. | 0.460 |
| 4. Be considerate and think from the point of view of others. | 0.492 |
| Emotional Intelligence | |
| Self-emotion Appraisal (SEA) | |
| 1. I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time. | 0.778 |
| 2. I have a good understanding of my own emotions. | 0.870 |

| Items | Standardized Loadings |
|--|-----------------------|
| 3. I really understand what I feel. | 0.748 |
| 4. I always know whether or not I am happy. | 0.596 |
| Others' Emotion Appraisal (OEA) | |
| 5. I always know my friends' emotions from their behavior. | 0.453 |
| 6. I am a good observer of others' emotions. | 0.739 |
| 7. I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others. | 0.632 |
| 8. I have good understanding of the emotions of the people around me. | 0.986 |
| Use of Emotion (UOE) | |
| 9. I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them. | 0.801 |
| 10. I always tell myself I am a competent person. | 0.610 |
| 11. I am a self-motivated person. | 0.727 |
| Regulation of Emotion (ROE) | |
| 13. I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally. | 0.891 |
| 14. I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions | 0.926 |
| 15. I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry. | 0.555 |
| 16. I have good control of my own emotions. | 0.785 |
| Spiritual Intelligence | |
| Critical Existential Thinking (CET) | |
| 2. I have spent time contemplating the purpose or reason for my existence. | 0.632 |
| 3. I am able to deeply contemplate what happens after death. | 0.741 |
| 4. I have developed my own theories about such things as life, death, reality, and existence. | 0.600 |
| 5. I frequently contemplate the meaning of events in my life. | 0.782 |
| 6. I have often contemplated the relationship between human beings and the rest of the universe. | 0.743 |
| 7. I have deeply contemplated whether or not there is some greater power or force (e.g., a god, goddess, divine being, higher energy, etc.). | 0.758 |
| Personal Meaning Production (PMP) | |
| 8. My ability to find meaning and purpose in life helps me adapt to stressful situations. | 0.831 |
| 9. I am able to define a purpose or reason for my life. | 0.790 |

| Items | Standardized Loadings |
|--|-----------------------|
| 10. When I experience a failure, I am still able to find meaning in it. | 0.618 |
| 11. I am able to make decisions according to my purpose in life. | 0.640 |
| 12. I am able to find meaning and purpose in my everyday experiences. | 0.739 |
| Transcendental Awareness (TA) | |
| 13. I recognize aspects of myself that are deeper than my physical body. | 0.784 |
| 15. I am aware of a deeper connection between myself and other people. | 0.593 |
| 16. I define myself by my deeper, non-physical self. | 0.696 |
| 17. I am highly aware of the nonmaterial aspects of life. | 0.682 |
| 18. I recognize qualities in people which are more meaningful than their body, personality, or emotions. | 0.702 |
| 19. Recognizing the nonmaterial aspects of life helps me feel centered. | 0.779 |
| Conscious State Expansion (CSE) | |
| 20. I am able to enter higher states of consciousness or awareness. | 0.880 |
| 21. I can control when I enter higher states of consciousness or awareness. | 0.938 |
| 22. I am able to move freely between levels of consciousness or awareness. | 0.896 |
| 23. I often see issues and choices more clearly while in higher states of consciousness or awareness. | 0.900 |
| 24. I have developed my own techniques for entering higher states of consciousness or awareness. | 0.851 |
| Teachers' Performance | |
| Contextual Performance (Altruism) | |
| 1. I help other employees with their work when they have been absent. | 0.587 |
| 2. I volunteer to do things not formally required by the job. | 0.738 |
| 3. I take initiative to orient new employees to the department even though it is not part of my job description. | 0.750 |
| 4. I help others when their work load increases (e.g., assists others until they get over the hurdles). | 0.848 |
| 6. I make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the department. | 0.561 |

| Items | Standardized Loadings |
|--|-----------------------|
| 7. I willingly attend functions not required by the organization, but help in its overall image. | 0.558 |
| Contextual Performance (Consciousness) | |
| 8. I exhibit punctuality arriving at work on time in the morning and after lunch breaks. | 0.557 |
| 12. I give advance notice if unable to come to work. | 0.676 |
| 14. I do not take unnecessary time off work. | 0.795 |
| 15. I do not take extra breaks. | 0.829 |
| 16. I do not spend a great deal of time in idle conversation. | 0.721 |
| Task Performance | |
| 17. I achieve the objectives of the job. | 0.815 |
| 18. I meet the criteria for job performance. | 0.895 |
| 19. I demonstrate expertise in all job-related tasks. | 0.826 |
| 20. I fulfill all the requirements of the job. | 0.887 |
| 23. I am competent in all areas of the job, handle tasks with proficiency. | 0.684 |
| 24. I perform well in the overall job by carrying out tasks as expected. | 0.746 |
| 25. I plan and organize to achieve objectives of the job and meet deadlines. | 0.636 |
| Second Order Factors | |
| Emotional Intelligence | |
| Self-emotion Appraisal (SEA) | .680 |
| Others' Emotion Appraisal (OEA) | .505 |
| Use of Emotion (UOE) | .578 |
| Regulation of Emotion (ROE) | .598 |
| Spiritual Intelligence | |
| Critical Existential Thinking (CET) | .680 |
| Personal Meaning Production (PMP) | .505 |
| Transcendental Awareness (TA) | .578 |
| Conscious State Expansion (CSE) | .598 |
| Teachers Performance | |
| Contextual Performance (Altruism) | .491 |
| Contextual Performance (Consciousness) | .990 |
| Task Performance | .772 |

Note. The EL, EI, and SI statements were measured on a five-point Likert type scale. The TP statements were measured on a seven-point scale.

Prior to conducting the CFA, reliability was examined. Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the reliability of the measurement scales. Values of Cronbach's alpha exceeding 0.70 indicate adequate internal consistency (Nunnally, 1959; Pett, Lackey, & Sullivan, 2003; Polit, Beck, & Owen, 2007). The reliability coefficients for each scale of the current study ranged from .550 to .923 (see Table 10).

Table 10

Summary of Cronbach's Alpha for Measurement Scales

| Measurement scales | α | CR | AVE |
|------------------------|----------|------|------|
| Emotional Labor | .550 | .665 | .363 |
| Emotional Intelligence | .853 | .966 | .689 |
| Spiritual Intelligence | .923 | .960 | .526 |
| Teachers' Performance | .781 | .931 | .439 |

Note. α = Cronbach's Alpha, CR = Composite Reliability, AVE = Average Variance Extracted

Efforts were made to improve the reliability coefficients of the emotional labor scale. Two items were removed from the emotional labor scale; however, to remove any more items would mean abandoning the research question related to the variable altogether and so three items were maintained. In support of maintaining the instrument with a reliability coefficient of .50, Kline (1999), noted that psychological constructs values below .70 can be realistic and expected as a result of the diversity of the constructs being measured. Therefore, the measurement instrument used for emotional labor was considered acceptable in spite the Cronbach alpha being below .70.

The composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) estimates were manually calculated in an effort to assess the internal consistency of each construct

(see Table 13). Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggested the following formulas to obtain these values.

$$\text{Composite reliability (CR)} = (\sum\lambda)^2 / [(\sum\lambda)^2 + \sum\theta]$$

$$\text{Average variance extracted (AVE)} = \sum\lambda^2 / (\sum\lambda^2 + \sum\theta)$$

Formula key:

λ = standardized factor loading

θ = error variance for each loading

\sum = the summation of the indicators of the latent variable

The composite reliability indices for EL was just below .70, while EI, SI, and TP were well above the recommended .70 (Bagozzi, 1980). Thus, the emotional labor, emotional intelligence, spiritual intelligence, and teachers' performance scales could be considered reliable and used for further analysis. Additionally, the variance extracted scores (AVE) for EI and SI were above the .50 recommendation. However, the scores for EL and TP fell below .5, an indication that not all the measures were internally consistent. Of note, items related to each measure for the current study were transformed and the average scores were used to compute a single variable for emotional labor, emotional intelligence, spiritual intelligence, and teachers' performance.

Hypotheses Testing

A multiple linear regression analysis was used to assess the relationship between emotional labor, emotional intelligence, and spiritual intelligence and teachers' performance to ascertain if H₁, H₂, and H₃ were supported. Teachers' performance was regressed on the three predictor variables to assess the strength of the relationships. The results indicated that 23% of the variation in teachers' performance could be explained by

the model ($R^2 = .228$). This indicates that there are other factors aside from those tested which could contribute to teachers' performance. Additionally, the F-test for the overall significance indicated that at least one of the predictor variables had a significant relationship with teachers' performance ($F=10.153, p \leq .05$).

The Pearson correlation coefficient was used to assess the strength of the linear relationship between two variables. The results, as reported in Table 11, showed there was a positive correlation between emotional labor (DV) and teachers' performance (IV) [$r = 0.162, n = 107, p = 0.001$], there was also a moderate positive correlation between emotional intelligence (DV) and teachers' performance (IV) [$r = 0.461, n = 107, p = 0.001$], as well as a positive correlation between spiritual intelligence (DV) and teachers' performance (IV) [$r = 0.131, n = 107, p = 0.001$]. After analyzing the data, the strongest correlation was between emotional intelligence and teachers' performance.

Table 11

Regression Analysis for each Independent Variable affecting Teachers' Performance

| Variable | b | Beta | t | Correlations | | | VIF |
|----------|-------|--------|---------|-------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| | | | | Zero-order Partial Part | | | |
| Constant | 3.074 | | 6.931** | | | | |
| EI | .498 | .451** | 4.914** | .461 | .436 | .425 | 1.125 |
| EL | .093 | .126 | 1.446 | .162 | .141 | .125 | 1.020 |
| SI | .000 | -.001 | -.013 | .131 | -.001 | -.001 | 1.127 |

Note. $R^2 = .228$; Adjusted $R^2 = .206$; $F = 10.513$; significance $F = .000$
 $*p \leq .05$. $**p \leq .01$.

H1: There will be a significant positive relationship between emotional labor and teachers' performance.

The relationship between emotional labor and teachers' performance was assessed to ascertain if H_1 was supported. The analysis indicated that emotional labor had beta coefficients which were not statistically significant ($p < .05$). Results for emotional labor (standardized $\beta = .126$) indicated it had the second largest influence on teachers' performance of the three variables, however these results were not significant; thus indicating that H_1 was not supported in this study.

H2: There will be a significant positive relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and teachers' performance.

To ascertain if H_2 was supported, the relationship between emotional intelligence and teachers' performance was assessed. The analysis indicated that emotional intelligence had beta coefficients which were statistically significant ($p < .05$). Results also indicated that emotional intelligence (standardized $\beta = .451$) had the strongest impact on teachers' performance of the three variables. The results, as previously shown in Table 11, indicate that when the relationship between teachers' performance and each of the variables was assessed independently, without the influence of the other variables, emotional intelligence had significant explaining power in the dependent variable when compared to emotional labor and spiritual intelligence. Therefore, since there was a significant positive correlation H_2 was supported.

H3: There will be a significant positive relationship between teachers' spiritual intelligence and teachers' performance.

The analysis to determine the relationship between spiritual intelligence and teachers' performance indicated that spiritual intelligence had beta coefficient which was

not statistically significant ($p < .05$). Therefore, $H3$ was supported. Additional results for spiritual intelligence (standardized $\beta = -0.001$) indicated it had the smallest influence on teachers' performance of the three variables; however, these results were not significant; thus indicating that $H3$ was also not supported in this study.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Chapter 5 provides a discussion of the findings, theoretical and practical implication, as well as limitations and directions for future research.

Summary of Findings

Based on the results of the study, emotional intelligence was found to be a significant predictor of teachers' performance, with a moderate, positive association. Emotional labor and spiritual intelligence were not statistically significant predictors of teachers' performance. Additionally, based on the findings related to emotional labor and spiritual intelligence, the obtained evidence suggested that a large proportion of unexplained variance pointed on other factors influencing teachers' performance. The unexplained variance could be associated with several factors such as self-efficacy (Cousins & Walker, 1995), industry furlough (Marshall, 1995), staff development, and teacher's interaction with colleagues (Smylie, 1988). Each of the predictor variables are examined in more detail.

Emotional Labor

EL was found to be weakly correlated with teacher's performance, and therefore did not contribute to the prediction of teacher's performance in a significant way. Only 1.6% ($sr^2 = .016$) of the variation in teacher's performance was attributed to EL, after

controlling for the other predictors, EI and SI. This finding is not in accordance with results of other studies (Pugliesi 1999; Grandey, 2014; Yin, 2015). Pugliesi (1999), in a study examining the consequences of EL, purported that performing EL had both a positive and negative effect for employees. Grandey had suggested that emotion regulation was needed to achieve good job performance. Yin (2015) indicated that stress resilience was considered an important quality to possess since it limited emotional disturbance impacting both social judgment capabilities and cognitive performance needed for work. This was supported by Pugliesi (1999) who found that EL increased the perception of job stress, decreased satisfaction, and increased distress. There are a number of factors that may account for the differences between the present study and existing literature. The difference in the findings could be based on the nature of the work of the surveyed participants - teachers in the field of hospitality and tourism - who instruct students to work in the industry with people of varied temperament. They impart knowledge on how students can handle the difficult customer or on the do's and don'ts of customer service. A strong possibility therefore exists that the participants do indeed know how to manage their emotions and by extension stressful situations associated with EL. The necessity of possessing the ability of teachers to manage EL is supported by Hargreaves (1998) as it is viewed as a means of advancing educational goals, therefore future studies should further ascertain the effects of EL on TP. According to Brosbe (2016), EL comes with the job of teaching and therefore EL scores for teachers are expected to be high from day one and throughout their teaching vocation. That is, teachers are expected to constantly put their feelings on hold to create a positive, and nurturing environment for their students. Indeed, in this present study the majority of the

EL scores were found to be high, 2.6 or above. This observation invariably creates what is described as a restricted range of EL scores, which is a problem in relational studies. According to Lane (2013), “whenever a sample has a restricted range of scores, the strength of correlation between variables will be reduced” (p. 5). This is plausible reason for the poor correlation between EL and TP.

Spiritual Intelligence

SI was found to be weakly correlated with teacher’s performance, and accounted for 1.7% ($r^2 = .017$) of the variation with TP. However, the contribution of SI to TP was reduced to 0.0% ($sr^2 = .000$) after controlling for the effects of the other predictors, EI and EL. That is to say, SI was not found to be a predictor of TP when the associations of EI and EL with SI were removed (controlled). The lack of correlation between SI and TP disagreed with existing literature (Gatling, 2015; Javaheri et al., 2013; Kushwaha & Shakya, 2014; Vaughan, 2002). Vaughan (2002) purported that SI provides spiritual support in daily stresses and promotes more adaptation to environmental challenges as SI unifies inner spiritual health with outer life and workplace. Javaheri et al. (2013) surveyed 45 employees examining the relationship between SI and service quality. In that study, SI was found to have a significant positive effect on service. Additionally, Kushwaha and Shakya’s (2014) study, which examined teaching effectiveness of prospective teachers in relation to their SI, revealed a significant correlation between teaching effectiveness (academic, professional, social, emotional, moral, and personality) and SI. Gatling (2015) suggested a spirituality-enabled organizational transformation can positively affect work attitudes, and improve performance in hospitality organizations.

A possible reason the results of this present study did not concur with previous

studies could be due to participant selection and or instrumentation differences. For example, Gatlin (2015) chose “prospective” teachers as the participants. According to Gitomer and Latham (1999), prospective teacher differences in teaching academic ability are wide; that is, have wide variations in teacher performance scores. Therefore, the variation in the TP scores among the prospective teachers would add robustness to a statistical test to detect a relationship between TP and SI. On the other hand, in this present study the participants were mainly experienced teachers and thus performance variations were likely to be smaller than that observed among prospective teachers; hence reducing the robustness of the statistical test to detect a similar relationship.

Another example is that the study by Javaheri et al. (2013) was based on employees in a Counselling Center, where customer satisfaction was used as the measure of performance. This instrument was dissimilar to the one used in the present study, whereby performance was measured in terms of contextual performance (consciousness, and altruism), and task performance. Hence the difference in instrumentation may also explain the discord in findings between Javaheri et al. (2013) and the present study. Also, a rational argument lends support to the findings in the current study, in that, there is a professional expectation of all teachers to perform at a high standard irrespective of his or her transcendence with a supernatural being.

Emotional Intelligence

EI was found to be positively, and moderately associated with teacher’s performance in a statistically significant way and accounted for 21.3% ($r^2 = .213$) of the variation with TP. The strength of the relationship remained moderate after controlling for the other predictors EL and SI; that is, it accounted for 19.0% ($sr^2 = .19$) of the

variation in teacher's performance. This finding concurred with the existing literature such as Wong and Law (2002), Law, Wong and Song (2004) and Sy et al. (2006), indicating that EI does have a significant impact on teachers' performance. Sy et al.'s (2006) study involving 187 food service employees found EI to positively correlate with both job satisfaction and employees' performance. Similarly, Wong and Law (2002) and Law et al. (2004) found that employees with high EI performed better on the job, a signal that employees with high EI were better able to regulate their emotions to facilitate job performance. As suggested by Salovey et al. (1993), when an individual is highly emotionally intelligent, he or she has the ability to recognize and use emotional information in social interactions. Thus, the results of the current study confirm possible positive gains for the classroom from an emotionally intelligent workforce.

Implications

Theoretical Implications

The first theoretical contribution of the study is related to EL and SI. The findings of the current study did not accord with the prevailing view of previous studies on EL and SI. However, the lack of statistically non-significant correlations observed in this present study arguably makes rational sense. That is, all teachers are expected to manage EL and therefore have above average EL scores, irrespective of TP. Also, all qualified teachers are expected to demonstrate high levels of teaching skills, irrespective of their level of SI.

The second theoretical contribution of the study surrounded EI. The result was congruent with previous studies that reported EI to influence performance. The statistically significant positive relationship is an indication that the more emotionally

intelligent the teacher, the better his or her performance at work will be. Again, this makes rational sense. In general, the results of this present study make theoretical sense. EI is positively associated with TP, whereas SI and EL are not predictors of TP.

To date, the researcher has not identified any studies examining all four variables used in the current study together. The current study, though some of the results were not significant, has provided several theoretical and empirical contributions to the existing literature about EL, EI, SI, and TP.

Practical Implications

This present study provides confirmatory evidence that EI is at least moderately to strongly associated with TP. Therefore, all institutions that train students to be teachers are encouraged to incorporate self-awareness and other aspects of EI into their teaching program and assess prospective students, specifically with respect to EI, before they graduate as qualified teachers. In fact, as part of the admission process such institutions should assess the ability of potential student teachers to demonstrate EI. Within tertiary institutions, chairs, deans, and supervisors are recommended to encourage faculty members to include EI as part of their annual professional development.

University accrediting bodies are advised to review their accreditation criteria to ensure that all institutions of teacher training provide adequate preparation for prospective teachers in terms of EI. Secondly, these bodies are recommended to monitor all teaching institutions, under its umbrella, to ensure that existing practicing teachers include EI as part of their professional development. Implementing EI training and professional development of the same will build the capacity for teachers to be more self-aware, express emotions, and handle student situations judiciously and empathetically.

This will enhance the interpersonal relationship between teachers and students and promote a more positive learning environment.

Although the relationship of emotional labor and spiritual intelligence was not statistically significant in the current study, their importance should not be ignored as other studies (Gatling, 2015; Kushwaha & Shakya, 2014; Näring, Vlerick, & Van de Ven, 2012; Tisdell, 2003; Vaughan, 2002; Yin, 2015) have shown their contribution to improved performance. Certainly, with respect to EL, the majority of teachers scored above average, meaning that they frequently put their emotions on hold for the sake of their students and or colleagues. Studies have shown that high emotional labor, if not managed well, can lead to psychological and physical challenges such as increased job stress, decreased job satisfaction, and increased distress (Pugliesi, 1999). Therefore, this study recommends that teachers in training are also taught how to manage EL and that chairs, deans, and supervisors carefully monitor the EL of their faculty members. Implementation of such policies will help to ensure the wellbeing of faculty members and reduce faculty member attrition rates. Again, the accrediting bodies, are recommended to ensure that teaching institutions are monitoring and supporting the management of EL among its teaching staff.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

The limitations of the study are those characteristics of design or methodology that impacted or influenced the interpretation of the findings from your research. They are the constraints on generalizability, applications to practice, and/or utility of findings that are the result of the ways in which you initially chose to design the study and/or the method used to establish internal and external validity.

There are a number of limitations to the study. Firstly, this study employed non-probabilistic sampling techniques (purposive and snowball sampling) and recruited a small sample of participants, thinly spread across 36 states of America. Therefore, the overall sample was not representative of the population and hence the results may not be generalizable across other institutions. Additionally, the current study examined hospitality instructors in the United States of America only. Therefore, based on the low response rate and the cultural context of the population studied, the findings of the current study are not generalizable to all institutions of learning. This sample approach was not a concern as the study did not seek to generalize but to detect relationships among the main variables. According to Creswell (2008), small sample sizes are adequate to detect an effect among variables. The fit statistics for EL also proved a limitation as it was just an identified model as seen in Table 8. For the current study, how well the original five item scale created by Wong and Law (2002) fit the data could not be ascertained.

Another limitation concerns the comparison of results with existing literature. It was not possible to provide a more comprehensive comparison of the results of this present study with existing literature due to the paucity of literature that examine specific relationships between TP, SI, EL, and EI. Likewise, IQ, which is considered one of the three main intelligences (Stanciu & Bulborea, 2012), was not explored in the current study as, existing instruments to confirm levels of IQ found had numerous items which, when combined with those to test TP, SI, EL, and EI, would not only frustrate the participants but extend the research period beyond the available time for completion. Additionally, interaction effects were not examined as it was not the initial intent of the

current study; however, further exploration could furnish interesting results should a two-way or three-way interaction effect on TP be explored. No doubt the interesting results of this study will spur future research in this area and therefore solve the problem of cross study comparisons. No demographic analysis was conducted to examine the influence of such variables on the relationships among the main variables. Hence, it is possible that the observed relationships may yield different results when controlling for variables such as gender, rank, and income. Again, future studies examining these influences may produce some different results. Future studies could aim to examine how the observed variables perform across other cultural contexts. The current study could be used as a pilot for future studies and as such the survey instruments used could be modified based on the fit indices.

In the future, a closer examination of the sub-categories of emotional intelligence (self-emotion appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, use of emotion, & regulation of emotion) and spiritual intelligence (critical existential intelligence, personal meaning production, transcendental awareness, & conscious state expansion), and teacher performance could be examined to see how each of these categories impacted the various sub-categories of teachers' performance. Additionally, future studies in relation to EL in hospitality and tourism could examine the EL strategies of surface acting, deep acting, and expressions of naturally felt emotions as a means to determine which is employed by hospitality and tourism instructors in the American classroom or other cultural contexts. The three EL strategies mentioned were suggested to be appropriate for teaching (Cheung, Tang, & Tang, 2011; Yin 2012; Zhang & Zhu, 2008); therefore, greater insight could be garnered on their effect on the performance of teachers in the classroom. The

use of one institution or department as a case study could be attempted. Doing so would allow for an inclusion of evaluation from both students and immediate supervisors to help assess how the teacher performed for a particular semester or school year.

Yin and Lee (2012) asserted that teaching requires great interpersonal interactions, strong emotional commitment, and deliberate emotion management. Therefore, the observed variables of EL, EI, and SI, which examines the ability to manage emotions by application of learnt and innate behavior traits, would provide valuable information for academicians as well as practitioners.

Summary

The results of the current study were not as expected based on the proposed hypotheses. However, the study confirms a moderate positive relationship between TP and EI. Associations between TP and EL and SI were not observed. Follow-up studies addressing some of the limitations observed in this study, especially with respect to method of data collection and survey instrument could gain more enlightening results.

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APPENDIX 1

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE SCALE

1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – neither agree/disagree; 4 – agree;

5 – strongly agree

Self-emotion Appraisal (SEA)

1. I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.
2. I have good understanding of my own emotions.
3. I really understand what I feel.
4. I always know whether or not I am happy.

Others' Emotion Appraisal (OEA)

5. I always know my friends' emotions from their behavior.
6. I am a good observer of others' emotions.
7. I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.
8. I have good understanding of the emotions of people around me.

Use of Emotion (UOE)

9. I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.
10. I always tell myself I am a competent person.
11. I am a self-motivated person.
12. I would always encourage myself to try my best.

Regulation of Emotion (ROE)

13. I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.
14. I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.
15. I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.
16. I have good control of my own emotions.

APPENDIX 2

THE SPIRITUAL INTELLIGENCE SELF-REPORT INVENTORY (SISRI-24)

0 – Not at all true of me; 1 – Not very true of me; 2 – Somewhat true of me; 3 – Very true of me; 4 – Completely true of me

Critical Existential Thinking (CET)

1. I have often questioned or pondered the nature of reality.
2. I have spent time contemplating the purpose or reason for my existence.
3. I am able to deeply contemplate what happens after death.
4. I have developed my own theories about such things as life, death, reality, and existence.
5. I frequently contemplate the meaning of events in my life.
6. I have often contemplated the relationship between human beings and the rest of the universe.
7. I have deeply contemplated whether or not there is some greater power or force (e.g., god, goddess, divine being, higher energy, etc.)

Personal Meaning Production (PMP)

8. My ability to find meaning and purpose in life helps me adapt to stressful situations.
9. I am able to define a purpose or reason for my life.
10. When I experience a failure, I am still able to find meaning in it.
11. I am able to make decisions according to my purpose in life.
12. I am able to find meaning and purpose in my everyday experiences.

Transcendental Awareness (TA)

13. I recognize aspects of myself that are deeper than my physical body.
14. It is difficult for me to sense anything other than the physical and material.
15. I am aware of a deeper connection between myself and other people.
16. I define myself by my deeper, non-physical self.
17. I am highly aware of the nonmaterial aspects of life.

18. I recognize qualities in people which are more meaningful than their body, personality, or emotions.
19. Recognizing the nonmaterial aspects of life helps me feel centered.

Conscious State Expansion (CSE)

20. I am able to enter higher states of consciousness or awareness.
21. I can control when I enter higher states of consciousness or awareness.
22. I am able to move freely between levels of consciousness or awareness.
23. I often see issues and choices more clearly while in higher states of consciousness/awareness.
24. I have developed my own techniques for entering higher states of consciousness or awareness.

APPENDIX 3

EMOTIONAL LABOR SCALE

1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – neither agree/disagree; 4 – agree;

5 – strongly agree

To perform my job well, it is necessary for me to:

1. Spend most of my work time interacting with people (e.g., customers, colleagues, and other workers in this organization).
2. Spend a lot of time with every person whom I work with.
3. Hide my actual feelings when acting and speaking with people.
4. Be considerate and think from the point of view of others.
5. Hide my negative feelings (e.g., anger and depression).

APPENDIX 4

JOB PERFORMANCE SCALE

0 – not at all characteristic of me; 1 – Not very characteristic of me; 2 – Somewhat not characteristic of me; 3 – Neither characteristic/characteristic of me; 4 – Somewhat characteristic of me; 5 – Very characteristic of me; 6 - Totally characteristic

Contextual Performance (Altruism)

1. I help other employees with their work when they have been absent.
2. I volunteer to do things not formally required by the job.
3. I take initiative to orient new employees to the department even though not part of my job description.
4. I help others when their work load increases (assists others until they get over the hurdles)
5. I am assisted with my duties.
6. I makes innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the department.
7. I willingly attend functions not required by the organization, but help in its overall image.

Contextual Performance (Conscientiousness)

8. I exhibit punctuality arriving at work on time in the morning and after lunch breaks.
9. I take undeserved work breaks.
10. I exhibit attendance at work beyond the norm, for example, take fewer days off than most individuals or fewer than allowed.
11. I coast toward the end of the day.
12. I give advance notice if unable to come to work.
13. I spend a great deal of time in personal telephone conversations.
14. I do not take unnecessary time off work.
15. I do not take extra breaks.

16. I do not spend a great deal of time in idle conversation

Task Performance

17. I achieve the objectives of the job

18. I meet criteria for performance

19. I demonstrate expertise in all job-related tasks

20. I fulfill all the requirements of the job

21. I could manage more responsibility than typically assigned

22. I appear suitable for a higher level role

23. I am competent in all areas of the job, handles tasks with proficiency

24. I perform well in the overall job by carrying out tasks as expected

25. I plan and organize to achieve objectives of the job and meet deadline

APPENDIX 5

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS

1. In what state do you currently reside?

2. Please indicate the highest level of education completed.
 - College Graduate (4 year) (1)
 - Master's Degree (MS) (2)
 - Doctoral Degree (PhD) (3)
 - Professional Degree (MD, JD, etc.) (4)
 - Other (5)

3. What is your gender?
 - Female (1)
 - Male (2)

4. How old are you?
 - Under 13 (1)
 - 13-17 (2)
 - 18-25 (3)
 - 26-34 (4)
 - 35-54 (5)
 - 55-64 (6)
 - 65 or over (7) _____

5. What is your current marital status?

- Rather not say (1)
- Divorced (2)
- Living with another (3)
- Married (4)
- Separated (5)
- Single (6)
- Widowed (7)

6. Please indicate your current household income in U.S. dollars

- Rather not say (1)
- Under \$10,000 (2)
- \$10,000 - \$19,999 (3)
- \$20,000 - \$29,999 (4)
- \$30,000 - \$39,999 (5)
- \$40,000 - \$49,999 (6)
- \$50,000 - \$74,999 (7)
- \$75,000 - \$99,999 (8)
- \$100,000 - \$150,000 (9)
- Over \$150,000 (10)

7. What is your academic rank?

- Instructor (1)
- Assistant Professor (2)
- Associate Professor (3)
- Professor (4)

8. What type of institution is your current place of work? Please select all options that apply to you.

- Community College (1)
- University (2)
- Public (3)
- Private (4)

9. What was your teaching load for the semester you most recently completed?

- 1 to 2 credits (1)
- 3 to 4 credits (2)
- 5 to 6 credits (3)
- 7 to 8 credits (4)
- 9 to 10 credits (5)
- 11 to 12 credits (6)

10. How many years of teaching experience do you have in this field?

11. Are you tenured?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

12. Do you have industry experience in the area you are currently instructing?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Dear Faculty, You did it! Thank you so much for taking the time to complete the survey. As a token of my appreciation, I will be awarding one US\$100 prize! Please respond to this question if you would like to be a part of the prize drawing, which is a completely separate database from the survey you just completed. I hope you are the WINNER!! Sincerely, Noriel Jacobs-Gray
Doctoral Student
Oklahoma State University
noriel@okstate.edu

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

APPENDIX 6

IRB APROVAL

Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board

Date: Tuesday, May 05, 2015
IRB Application No HE1525
Proposal Title: Examining the effects of emotional labor, emotional and spiritual intelligence in hospitality and tourism education
Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved Protocol Expires: 5/14/2018

Principal Investigator(s):

| | |
|----------------------------|----------------------|
| Noriei Jacobs-Gray | Lisa Slevitch |
| 14 N University Pl, Apt. 3 | 222 HES |
| Stillwater, OK 74075 | Stillwater, OK 74078 |

The IRB application referenced above has been approved. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

The final versions of any printed recruitment, consent and assent documents bearing the IRB approval stamp are attached to this letter. These are the versions that must be used during the study.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval. Protocol modifications requiring approval may include changes to the title, PI advisor, funding status or sponsor, subject population composition or size, recruitment, inclusion/exclusion criteria, research site, research procedures and consent/assent process or forms
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of the research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved protocols are subject to monitoring by the IRB and that the IRB office has the authority to inspect research records associated with this protocol at any time. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Dawnett Watkins 219 Cordell North (phone: 405-744-5700, dawnett.watkins@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,



Hugh Crethar, Chair
Institutional Review Board

Recruitment for Dissertation Research

Dear Faculty,

My name is Noriel Jacobs-Gray, a doctoral student in the School of Hotel and Restaurant Administration in the College of Human Sciences at Oklahoma State University. I am conducting an academic research under the supervision of Dr. Lisa Slevitch.

I am currently seeking volunteers to take part in a dissertation related study focusing on the effects of emotional labor, spiritual and emotional intelligence in hospitality and tourism education. As a participant, you will be required to respond to an electronic survey with expected duration being 20 to 30 minutes.

Your participation in the current study, is extremely valuable and pertinent to the successful completion of my doctoral studies. Anonymity will be maintained, as only IP addresses will be retained to facilitate follow-up communication regarding completing the study. All information garnered will be kept in the strictest of confidence. The data generated will be reported in an aggregated format and not linked to any participant.

Participation is voluntary and should you agree to participate the researcher seeks your assistance in sharing the survey link with other notable faculty members in the field of hospitality and tourism. Aside from assisting a student to successfully complete studies, an added incentive of **US\$100** will be awarded to **two** survey participants. This will be conducted and housed in a separate database and not linked to the first survey.

If you are in agreement to complete this study, please click the survey link to begin. Should you choose not to participate or to withdraw at any time during the study, there will be no penalty for doing so.

Thanks in advance for your kind assistance.

Sincerely,

Noriel Jacobs-Gray
Doctoral Student
Oklahoma State University
noriel@okstate.edu



Recruitment for Dissertation Research (Follow-up Email)

Dear Faculty,

Two weeks ago, an email was sent seeking your participation in a dissertation related study. If you have already completed the survey, thank you so much for your time and effort. If you have not and intended to, please select the surveys' link below. Your participation is greatly appreciated.

Your participation in this study is anonymous and completely voluntary.

Sincerely,

Noriel Jacobs-Gray
Doctoral Student
Oklahoma State University
noriel@okstate.edu

Incentive Draw

Dear Faculty,

You did it! Thank you so much for taking the time to complete the survey. As a token of my appreciation I will be awarding **two US\$100** prize!

Click the link to enter which is a completely separate database from the survey you just completed. I hope you are the **WINNER!!**

Sincerely,

Noriel Jacobs-Gray
Doctoral Student
Oklahoma State University
noriel@okstate.edu



VITA

Noriel Jacobs-Gray

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy/Education

Thesis: EXAMINING THE EFFECTS OF EMOTIONAL LABOR, EMOTIONAL AND SPIRITUAL INTELLIGENCE IN HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM EDUCATION

Major Field: Human Sciences – Hotel and Restaurant Administration

Biographical:

Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy in Hospitality Administration at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in May, 2017.

Completed the requirements for the Master of Science in Tourism and Hospitality Management at The University of the West Indies, Mona Campus, Jamaica, in 2003.

Completed the requirements for the Bachelor of Science in Hotel and Restaurant Management at The University of Technology, Kingston, Jamaica in 2000.

Experience:

Programme Coordinator & Lecturer, Hospitality and Tourism Management at Northern Caribbean University, Mandeville, Jamaica, W.I.

Owner/Manager, B&B Restaurant & Catering Service, Kenhill Drive, Kingston 20, Jamaica W.I.

Assistant Manager, Farquharson Hall Cafeteria, University of Technology, 207 Old Hope Road, Kingston 10, Jamaica W.I.

Professional Memberships:

International Council on Hotel Restaurant, and Institutional Education (ICHRIE)
International Society of Travel & Tourism Educators (ISTTE)
Council Heads of Caribbean Hospitality Schools (CHOCHS)
Caribbean Tourism Educators Association (C-TEA)