

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, EMOTIONAL LABOUR AND JOB ATTITUDE:
MODERATING ROLE OF PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT

A Research dissertation submitted to
Kathmandu University School of Management
in the partial fulfilment of the requirement for the
Degree of Master of Philosophy (MPhil) in Management

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DECLARATION

I, hereby, declare this dissertation entitled Emotional Intelligence, Emotional Labour and Job Attitude: Moderating Role of Perceived Organizational Support embodies the original research work that I carried out in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of Master of Philosophy (MPhil) in Management of Kathmandu University School of Management and that this dissertation has not been submitted for candidature for any other degree.



Sabina Tuladhar

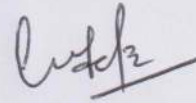
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RECOMMENDATION

This is to certify that Ms. Sabina Tuladhar has completed her research work on Emotional Intelligence, Emotional Labour and Job Attitude: Moderating Role of Perceived Organizational Support under my supervision and that her dissertation embodies the result of her investigation conducted during the period her worked as an MPhil candidate at the Kathmandu University School of Management. The dissertation is of the standard expected of a candidate for the degree of MPhil in Management. It has been prepared in the prescribed format of the Kathmandu University School of Management. The dissertation is forwarded for evaluation.

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RESEARCH COMMITTEE APPROVAL

We have conducted the viva-voce examination of the dissertation entitled *Emotional Intelligence, Emotional Labour, and Job Attitude: Moderating Role of Perceived Organizational Support* by Sabina Tuladhar. We have found the dissertation to be original work of the candidate and written according to the prescribed format of the School of Management. We approve the dissertation as the partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Philosophy (MPhil) in Management.

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ABSTRACT

The teaching job requires significant emotional intelligence and emotional labour due to interactions with various stakeholders, including students, parents, corporate representatives, and the community (Truata, 2014). An Affective Event Theory and a Job Demand Resource Model are used in this study to examine how emotional intelligence (EI), surface acting (SA), and deep acting (DA) affect job satisfaction (JS) and organizational commitment (OC), as well as the potential moderating effect of perceived organizational support (POS) among full-time faculty members in management colleges. 267 full-time faculty from management colleges under five universities were surveyed in this cross-sectional study using purposive sampling. In order to test direct hypotheses, the data were analyzed using the Structural Equation Model (SEM). Findings highlight the positive influence of EI on both JS and OC. While SA exhibited no effect on JS and negatively affected OC, DA positively impacted both. In order to analyze the moderating effect of POS, the Process Macro was used. A surprising result was that POS did not influence the relationship between this study's independent and dependent variables.

This study provides theoretical and practical insights, emphasizing the unique emotional dynamics and their impact on the job attitude of faculty members within academia. To equip educators with emotional coping strategies and enhancing emotional intelligence, the study suggests incorporating EI and EL sessions in faculty orientation and training programs. Recognizing the significance of EI in faculty selection, the study recommends its inclusion in hiring criteria. Further exploration into the non-moderating role of POS and implementation of suggested interventions can guide management practices, enriching faculty members' JS and OC. Overall the

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	i
ABSTRACT.....	ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	iv
LIST OF TABLES.....	vii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	ix
ABBREVIATION.....	x
CHAPTER I.....	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
Problem Statement.....	4
Research Objectives.....	8
Organization of the Report.....	10
CHAPTER II.....	11
LITERATURE REVIEW.....	11
Affective Event Theory (AET).....	11
Job Demand Resource Model (JD-R Model).....	12
Job Attitude (JA).....	13
Job Satisfaction (JS).....	14
Organizational Commitment (OC).....	15
Emotional Intelligence (EI).....	15
Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Job Satisfaction (JS).....	16
Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Organizational Commitment (OC).....	18
Emotional Labour (EL).....	19
Emotional Labour (EL) and Job Satisfaction (JS).....	21
Emotional Labour (EL) and Organizational Commitment (OC).....	22

Perceived Organization Support (POS).....	24
Conceptual Framework	26
CHAPTER III	27
METHODOLOGY	27
Variables.....	27
Unit of Analysis	27
Population and Sample.....	27
Measures or Instruments	29
Emotional Intelligence (EI) Scale	29
Emotional Labour (EL) Scale.....	29
Organizational Commitment (OC) Scale	30
Job Satisfaction (JS) Scale.....	30
Perceived Organizational Support (POS) Scale	30
Pilot Testing	30
Data Collection Procedure.....	31
Data Preparation	31
Data Analysis	32
CHAPTER IV	33
RESULTS	33
Demographic Profile of Respondents	33
Common Method Biases	34
Reliability	35
Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	35
Emotional Labour (EL): Dimensionality Test	36
Emotional Intelligence (EI): Dimensionality Test	38

Perceived Organizational Support (POS): Dimensionality Test	42
Organizational Commitment (OC): Dimensionality Test	45
Job Satisfaction (JS): Dimensionality Test	47
Assessment of Measurement Model	49
Model Fit Indices	50
Reliability Analysis	52
Convergent Validity	53
Discriminant Validity	54
Descriptive Statistics and Pearson Correlation	55
Assessment of Moderation Hypotheses	61
CHAPTER V	65
SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS	65
Summary of Findings	65
Discussion	66
Implications of the Study	73
Theoretical Implications	74
Managerial Implication	76
Critique of the Study	79
REFERENCES	82
APPENDIX I	101

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1. Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient	31
Table 1 Demographic Profile of Respondents	33
Table 2 Reliability of Measures	35
Table 3 Values of Model Fit Indices.....	36
Table 4 Model Fit Indices of EL.....	36
Table 5 Model Fit Indices of EI.....	40
Table 6 Model Fit Indices of EI (Using Modification Indices)	42
Table 7 Model Fit Indices of POS	43
Table 8 Model Fit Indices of POS (Using Modification Indices).....	44
Table 9 Model Fit Indices of OC	46
Table 10 Model Fit Indices of OC (Using Modification Indices)	47
Table 11 Model Fit Indices of JS (Using Modification Indices)	49
Table 12 Model Fit Indices.....	50
Table 13 Model Fit Indices.....	51
Table 14 Reliability of Constructs	52
Table 15 Convergent Validity of Constructs	53
Table 16 Discriminant Validity (Fornell & Larcker Criteria)	55
Table 17 Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix.....	55
Table 18 Model Fit Indices of Structural Model vs Measurement Model.....	58
Table 19 Result Hypotheses Testing.....	59
Table 20 Result of Moderated Hypothesis Testing.....	61
Table 21 Result of Moderated Hypothesis Testing.....	62
Table 22 Result of Moderated Hypothesis Testing.....	62

Table 23 Result of Moderated Hypothesis Testing.....	63
Table 24 Result of Moderated Hypothesis Testing.....	63
Table 25 Result of Moderated Hypothesis Testing.....	64
Figure 2. Five-Factor Model of EI.....	37
Figure 3. Single-Factor Construct of EI.....	38
Figure 4. Four-Factor Model of EI.....	39
Figure 5. Single-Factor Model of EI.....	39
Figure 6. Single-Factor Model of EI.....	41
Figure 7. Single-Factor Model of POS with Reverse-Coded Items.....	42
Figure 8. Single-Factor Model of POS without Reverse-Coded Items.....	43
Figure 9. Single-Factor Model of POS after Modification Indices.....	44
Figure 10. Single-Factor Model of OC with Reverse Code.....	45
Figure 11. Single-Factor Model of OC without Reverse Code.....	45
Figure 12. Single-Factor Model of OC without Reverse Code.....	46
Figure 13. Single-Factor Model of EI.....	47
Figure 14. Single-Factor Model of EI (After modification indices).....	48
Figure 15. Measurement Model.....	49
Figure 16. Measurement Model (Modification Indices).....	51
Figure 17. Structural Model.....	54

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Single Factor Model of EL	37
Figure 2. Two Factor Model of EL	37
Figure 3. Second Order Construct of EI	38
Figure 4. Four Factors Model of EI	39
Figure 5. Single Factor Model of EI	39
Figure 6. Single Factor Model of EI	41
Figure 7. Single Factor Model of POS with Reverse-Coded Items	42
Figure 8. Single Factor Model of POS without Reverse-Coded Items.....	43
Figure 9. Single Factor Model of POS after Modification Indices	44
Figure 10. Single Factor Model of OC with Reverse Code	45
Figure 11. Single Factor Model of OC without Reverse Code	45
Figure 12. Single Factor Model of OC without Reverse Code	46
Figure 13. Single Factor model of JS.....	47
Figure 14. Single Factor model of JS (After modification indices).....	48
Figure 15. Measurement Model	49
Figure 16. Measurement Model (Modification Indices).....	51
Figure 17. Structural Model	58

Role of Enablers

Resource Allocation For

Various Business Policies

ABBREVIATION

AET	Affective Event Theory
AVE	Average Variance Explained
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CMB	Common Method Bias
CR	Composite Reliability
DA	Deep Acting
EI	Emotional Intelligence
EL	Emotional Labor
JA	Job Analysis
JD-R Model	Job Demand Resource Model
OEA	Other's Emotion Appraisal
POS	Perceived Organizational Support
ROE	Regulations of Emotions
SA	Surface Acting
SEA	Self-Emotion Appraisal
SEM	Structural Equation Model
UOE	Use of Emotions
VAF	Variance Accounted For
VIF	Variance Inflation Factors

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Job attitude (JA) is one of organizational psychology's oldest, most prevalent, and most important topics of concern (Judge & Mueller, 2012). JA significantly influences people's behaviours and aids in adjusting to their surroundings (Baysal & Tekrslan, 1996). Many scholars have highlighted the importance of JA over the years because of its importance to the organization. Managers are concerned about JA because it guides how they feel about various aspects of their workplace (Aries & Rizqi, 2013). JA thus remains an important topic for scholarly debates and discussions on various categories of employees from various professions (Abdalkrim & Elhalim, 2016). The two job attitudinal variables, Job Satisfaction (JS) and Organizational Commitment (OC), affect the performance of employees (Berg et al., 2010).

There is a gamut of definitions of JS as proposed by different scholars. It is the realization of personal need or expectation (Lawler, 1973; Herzberg, 1968; Schfer, 1953); it is an emotional state resulting from achieving work-related goals (Locke, 1973); all the rewards you receive from your work are added up to form it (Lortie, 1975; Nias, 1973; Wilkomirska, 2002). Accordingly, organizational commitment (OC) comprises feelings, attitudes, values, practices, and innovative ideas that serve the organizational interests (Yalcin et al., 2021).

In recent years, understanding and regulating employee emotions has become increasingly important to understand job-related attitudes, particularly in-service industries (Awang et al., 2010; Choi et al., 2015), which is being reflected in the growing body of research and in literature. Several studies have shown that emotional variables such as Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Emotional Labor (EL) significantly

impact the JA of service employees (Berry & Cassidy, 2013; Menon & Narayanan, 2015; Psilopanagioti et al., 2012; Shagirbasha, 2018). EI and EL have emerged as key to influencing different organizational outcomes as JS and OC (Psiloanagioti et al., 2012).

Many studies of emotional constructs and JA were conducted with service employees such as airline attendants, waiters, bank tellers, call centre workers, childcare workers, hotel staff, and folks in retirement homes (Mahoney et al., 2011). In the health sector, EL and JS appear to have a relationship, according to Ghalendari et al. (2012). The study done for physicians concluded that physicians with EI seem more satisfied with their job. While physicians, who go through more EL in their job, are less satisfied with their job (Psilopangioti et al., 2012). Nuriplik et al. (2014) studied hotel employees and found that EL positively impacted JS. Similarly, Rahman and Shamsuddin (2013) found a significant relationship between emotional construct and job performance in call centre agents (Shamsuddin & Rahman, 2013). According to research conducted on flight attendants, emotionally competent professionals could operate amicably with humans and automated equipment in a stressful workplace (Okabe, 2018). The influence of emotional construct on the job is more significant among different professions (Wisniewski, 1990; Marawska, 2008, as cited Jawarska et al., 2014).

Aside from being regarded as a practice involving emotions (Hargreaves, 2000), teaching is also considered to be one of the most important occupations in modern society (Vesely et al., 2013). Teachers are required to have a mental and emotional readiness to respond to any scenario that prioritizes the interests of society (Dhull & Jain, 2017). Thus, Teaching is an essential aspect of general education and human resource development.

The teaching profession is very noble and pious. Students need a teacher who is a friend, philosopher, and guide. Tridevi (2012) argues that teachers' beliefs, views, and attitudes about their work affect their work. Teaching is a complicated and multi-faceted professional role (Jaworska et al., 2014), where teachers' attitudes are critical to their success as educators (Adval, 1979).

Various factors influence teachers' attitudes, including working hours, compensation, professional development, leadership, management, working environment, and job (Heimerl et al., 2020). Like employees in the other service sector, teachers have been increasingly exposed to circumstances that elicit strong positive and negative emotions (Erdogan, 2007).

According to Gopinath et al. (2021), perceived organizational support (POS) can help teachers manage their emotions and reduce emotional tension in the workplace, allowing them to be more positive. According to POS theory, when emotional needs are met, there is a positive outcome for both the individual and the institution (Giao et al., 2020). POS, if positive, weakens the negative effects of emotions on JA and strengthens the association between emotions and JA (Lartey et al., 2019). Internationally (and more so in developed nations), the significance of EI and EL in teaching has been clearly acknowledged (Yin et al., 2013). A teacher role in ensuring the transfer of learning is regarded as the most critical in developing and less developed nations. Researchers must also pay attention to the subject of EI and EL (Giao et al., 2020).

Academicians' ability to use and manage their emotions enhances their performance (Jiao et al. 2021). Due to the seismic changes in the working environment at universities worldwide, this ability is becoming increasingly important. Due to globalization, commercialization, and rapidly evolving technology,

universities are being forced to become more competitive, accountable, and business-driven (Hancock et al., 2019; Vesty et al., 2018). The paradigm shift in the educational industry (being run as a business or closely related to it) has impacted all streams. However, it is most apparent in applied fields like management education. In addition to teaching, business school faculty are expected to consult, conduct research, and develop relationships with business professionals (Nawaz et al., 2021). This need for coping with constant change amidst the fulfilment of the core role of ensuring teaching effectiveness and student satisfaction further enhances the role of emotional construct, making it much more important (Chaturvedi et al., 2017).

Much research on EI and EL has been conducted in Western countries. However, these results may not be applicable in a different context, such as in South or Southeast Asia (Seyal & Fzaal, 2013).

Within this context of limited research and questionable generalizability, this study on the effects of EI and EL is relevant. It examines how emotional constructs (EI and EL) and JA (JS and OC) relate to each other and how POS modifies these relationships among full-time faculty in Kathmandu, Nepal.

Problem Statement

The success of an academic institution depends on the performance of its teachers. In turn, the teachers' performance is linked to their attitudes toward their jobs and their institutions' working conditions (Kehya, 2007). Academic institutions, colleagues, students, and the value of life impact teachers' attitudes. A review of previous studies (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Zaidi, 2015) reveals that creative thinking, effectiveness, locus of control, family environment, and academic achievements are among the determinants of teachers' attitudes to their work.

Factors such as personality, work relationships, stress, the job itself and the environment fit also are important as these too tend to impact job attitude (Susanty & Miradipt, 2013) along with their EI and EL, which also affects behaviour (Berry & Cassidy, 2013; Kanwal et al., 2018; Lartey et al., 2018). Several scholars have highlighted work attitude over the years due to its importance to organizational performance (Abdalkrim & Elhalim, 2016).

The faculty control the dynamic force of education. Education is considered to be a lever for modernization in all developing countries. As a result of the seismic changes in the university's environment, faculty members are facing heavier workloads, a more significant number of students with customer expectations, burdensome administration, increasing pressure to publish, and fulfilling multiple and potentially conflicting job demands related to research, teaching and service, which are affecting their JS and OC at university (Hancock et al., 2019; Vesty et al., 2018). According to (Tok, 2012), a nation cannot afford to leave its future in the hands of incompetent teachers. The idea about job JS and OC are significant components regarding teaching profession. Many researchers argued that teachers who pay less attention to their work or does not organize themselves, are less motivated and show poor performance in their work (Frase, 1992). Evidently academic leaders need to uncover the problem and recommend solutions to retain teachers in the occupation and to keep them satisfied and pleased (Bukhari, 2018). Faculty members may be intellectually brilliant yet ineffective teachers, resulting in low JS among teachers. This might be due to individual, institutional, or external forces. However, psychologists believe that one of the primary reasons is a lack of adequate EI (Sungoh, 2007). However, studies on teachers' emotions and consequences are in nascent stage (Misska et al., 2014). Teachers' emotions have largely been studied by

Western societies, and Asian societies do not represent a critical mass in this field (Chen, 2019; Uitto et al., 2015).

According to many scholars (Anari, 2012; Kinman et al., 2011, Wong et al., 2010; Zhang & Zhu, 2008), satisfaction with teaching is a key aspect of EI and EL research. University faculty members' duty covers teaching and incorporates research work, administrative work, and other related professional activities (Lobocki, 1999; Seonghee & Boryyung, 2008). Today, teaching is one of the most demanding careers (Vesely et al., 2013). Faculty members are expected to consult, teach, counsel, develop business relationships, and develop new courses to meet corporate requirements. Additionally, business school faculty must demonstrate managerial skills in line with societal expectations. Thus, the ability to manage emotion can be a valuable perusal resource for the faculty at a business school (Gopinath et al., 2021). There is no doubt that emotional factors play an important role in teachers' growth (Hargreaves, 1998; Yin & Lee, 2011), teacher education (Haye, 2003; Intrator, 2006), as well as the establishment and modification of teachers' identities or self-understandings (Hamachek, 2000; Zembylas, 2003). Lea et al. (2018) found that higher EI was associated with greater attention to positive emotional stimuli than negative and neutral ones. Such an attentional preference may enhance job satisfaction and protect against stress (Lea et al., 2018; Yin et al., 2013). According to numerous studies, the EI and JS of employees exhibit a positive relationship (Carmeli, 2003; Petrides & Furnham, 2006). Though most studies on the relationship between EI and JA have shown a positive result, little research has demonstrated a negative to no connection between EI and JA (Cobb, 2014; Mandip et al., 2012). In addition, recent studies have shown inconsistent results between EL and JA (Bhave & Glomb, 2013, Ghalandar et al., 2012). Some studies claim a negative relationship between EL

and JA (Grandey, 1999; Hochschild, 1983; Tolich, 1993). However, Wharton, 1993 stated a positive relationship between EL and JS. Research on the relationship between teachers' EI, EL, and JA is still in its infancy (Yin et al., 2013). Li et al. (2018) state that research is still in early stage despite increased recognition of emotional traits in teachers' work.

Thus faculty nowadays ceased to be just a teacher, even meeting all professional requirement does not guarantee a faculty's JS and OC due to various reasons which result in lack of their professional stability (Durka et al., 2014). There is evidence that organizational resources, such as organizational support, can protect against the negative consequences of job demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). In several studies, organizational support was considered a moderator variable (Malik & Noreen, 2014). Furthermore, they stated that POS demonstrates an organizational commitment to its employees and its value to them. Previous studies concerning EI and EL have not examined teachers' JA in Nepalese management colleges. Examining the moderating effect of POS on the influence of EI and EL on teachers' JA in management colleges in Kathmandu Valley can contribute to understanding the factors that impact the JA and teachers' performance in a unique context.

This study explores EI and EL's influence on faculty members' JA and how the relationship is moderated by the POS of management colleges in Kathmandu Valley.

The specific research questions addressed in this study are as follows:

- Do Emotional Intelligence and Emotional Labor influence Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment, and does Perceived Organizational Support moderate such influence?

Research Objectives

This study has the following objectives:

- To examine the influence of the faculty members' Emotional Intelligence on their Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment.
- To examine the influence of the faculty members' Emotional Labor on their Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment.
- To examine the moderating effect of Perceived Organizational Support on the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Attitude; and between Emotional Labor and Job Attitude.

Significance of the Study

This study aims to investigate the effects of EI and EL on the JA of full-time faculty members in management colleges in Kathmandu Valley. This study's significant importance is understanding how emotional constructs influence JS and OC, particularly among full-time faculty members who play a vital role in the country's development. Put differently, full time faculty members in management colleges can enhance their JS and OC by recognizing the significance of EI and EL.

The study findings will benefit leaders, managers, and even full-time faculty of management colleges. This study would further try to minimize the gap in the literature, as this topic is at the nascent stage in Nepal.

Also, knowledge and information related to the benefits of hiring faculty with EI and strategies of EL will help academic institutions hire the right faculty members who can justify their teaching roles and will be more satisfied and committed to their organizations. The results of this study will be beneficial to practising faculty members in understanding why and how to enhance their EI and use EL strategies. It

is also clear from the Nepali context what role POS plays as a moderation, especially for faculty members of management schools.

This study fills a significant gap in Nepali literature and contributes to existing literature. This study fills a void in the academic sector by examining the effects of EI and EL on the JA of full-time faculty members, with POS as a moderating factor. Until this study, limited studies in Nepal specifically examined how EI and EL influenced faculty members' job satisfaction. These constructs have been studied in other industries within the Nepali context, but the academic sector needs to be explored. The study, therefore, offers valuable insights into the unique dynamics of the academic context and its impact on faculty members' JS. According to the study's findings, EI and EL affect JA similarly to previous research. However, regarding the moderating effects of POS, some interesting revelations diverged from the results of other studies. These findings highlight the need for context-specific research and caution against blindly generalizing results from studies conducted in different cultural and organizational settings.

This study contributes to the literature by discovering these unique moderating effects between emotional constructs, JS, OC, and POS. These insights can help inform future research and guide management practices within Nepal's academic sector.

Overall, the study's contributions include filling the gap in the Nepali context, shedding light on the influence of EI and EL on-faculty members' JA and uncovering novel moderating effects of POS. These findings advance our knowledge of emotional dynamics in the academic sector and emphasize the importance of considering contextual factors in research and practice.

Organization of the Report

There are five chapters in this study report. The first chapter discusses the introduction, problem statement, objectives, research questions, and significance. The second chapter examines the relationship between variables and theories related to them.

A detailed description of the research design and procedure is included in the third chapter. In addition, sampling strategies, units of analysis, and instruments used in this study for different variables are explained. It also incorporates the administration of the questionnaire, data processing and data analysis technique.

In the fourth chapter, the result obtained from the study is discussed. The descriptive statistics and the regression analysis models are presented along with the hypothesis testing. The fifth chapter, the last chapter, deals with the summary, findings, discussions, theoretical and practical implications, and critique of the study.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter critically reviews the literature in the context of EI, EL, JS, OC and POS. This chapter begins by defining individual constructs, the relationship among variables, and theories guiding the relationship between variables and ends with the proposed research model.

The researcher has selected the following theories to analyze the impact of EI and EL on JS and OC and the moderating effect of POS on their relationship. The affective event theory and J-D resource theory (Bakker & Denerouti, 2012) are the most relevant and common theories to study emotional constructs, JS, OC and moderating effect of POS.

As a result of reviewing existing literature, the researcher has selected the following theories to analyze the influence of EI and EL on JA and the moderating effect of POS. The conceptual framework of the study is primarily based on the AET and JD-R Models.

Affective Event Theory (AET)

This study uses AET and Job Demand Resource Model (JD-R) to answer the research questions and test the theoretical model. Purdue University's Howard M. Weiss and Arizona University's Russell Cropanzano developed the AET theory. It is well-documented that emotional events (such as moods and emotions) affect work satisfaction and performance (Thompson & Phua, 2012). AET emphasizes workplace events as proximal sources of affective (emotional) reactions to optimize an organisation's human aspect. Both behavioural and attitude changes are a result of

emotional experiences. Job satisfaction is directly related to affective experiences. This influence corresponds to the affective aspect of attitudes (Weiss, 1996).

Organizational citizenship behaviour, organizational commitment, effort level, intention to leave, and work pace deviation are all factors influenced by emotions (Robbins et al., 2012). Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) initial model did not include emotional intelligence, but recent refinements suggest that it affects employees' affective experiences, work attitudes, and behaviours (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002). Several aspects in the workplace environment, such as job stress, influence the employees' emotions and actions, affecting employee behaviours and attitudes such as JS. It is natural for people to react to the events of their work lives. The immediate affective states a person experiences are determined by these positive or negative events (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The current applications of AET emphasize both affective and attitudinal influences on specific work behaviours (Wegge et al., 2006). Affective experiences as emotions play an essential role in work experiences and affect performance and job satisfaction (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

As a result, the perception of a supportive environment at work may lessen negativity and assist individuals in becoming more satisfied and committed to their jobs (Taylor, 1991). Thus, in this way, AET supports the conceptual framework of this study.

Job Demand Resource Model (JD-R Model)

Demerouti et al. (2001) initially proposed Job Demands-Resources (JD-R Model). Based on the JD-R Model, the work environment tends to deplete employees' resources due to its physical and psychological demands (Lartey et al., 2019). According to this model, organizations need to continuously monitor and optimize job characteristics since employees' job pressure is determined by their daily work

demands and available resources (Bakker, 2014). The JD-R model has been extensively studied over the past decade (Broeck et al., n.d.). According to this model, many job characteristics can be classified as job demands or resources.

Combining high job demands with high job resources increases task pleasure and commitment (Bakker & Bal, 2010). According to Bakker and Demerouti (2012), well-designed employment and working conditions help employees stay motivated and reduce stress. Stress is defined as disrupting the equilibrium of the cognitive, emotional and environmental systems by external factors (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). High job demands contribute to poor employee well-being, turnover intentions, lower levels of satisfaction, and lower levels of commitment (Bakker, 2011). Bakker and Demerouti (2007) state that job demand includes physical and emotional effort. As a result of both physical and psychological demands, the working environment depletes employees' resources. When handling the demanding nature of their jobs, employees can access several job resources, including personal, organizational, and social resources. These resources allow them to maintain a positive attitude toward their jobs (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). In this way, the (JD-R) model can explain the relationship between job attitude and emotional constructs and how POS moderates the relationship.

Job Attitude (JA)

A job attitude evaluates one's job based on feelings, beliefs, and attachments. This concept has cognitive and emotional components (Schleicher et al., 2004). The word "job attitude" has roots in Industry Psychology, which has become essential to human productivity at work (Dhull & Jain, 2017). In literature, job attitude is also synonymously called work attitude, professional attitude, attitude towards work, etc. Organizational behaviour researchers are increasingly emphasizing regulations of

emotions as a factor in understanding service personnel attitudes towards their jobs (Choi et al., 2015; Dartey- Baah & Mekpor, 2017). Work attitude is believed to have the secret power to influence individuals' behaviour and helps individuals adjust to the environment (Baysal & Tekarslan, 1996). Work attitude is very important for individual behaviour, resulting from an individual beliefs and feelings towards ideas, situations and other people (Basaran, 2000). According to Colomeischi and Colomeischi (2014), teachers' work mindset expresses their attitude toward their profession, whether they perceive it as an accomplishment or a compulsory responsibility. Two attitudinal constructs, JS and OC, of the faculty members are taken as the dependent variables, as it has been well established in the literature that JS and OC are preeminent job attitudes crucial for any organizational success.

Job Satisfaction (JS)

According to the literature, evaluative judgments about a job define job satisfaction (Weiss, 2002). An individual job satisfaction is a positive emotional state resulting from their experience with their job (Crisis et al., 2018). As Locke (1969) and Schneider and Snyder (1975) define job satisfaction as the pleasure one derives from seeing one's job as fulfilling or facilitating one's job value. According to Locke (1969), a complex emotional reaction results from job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. According to Singhai (2016), JS is a combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental factors that affect employees' feelings about their jobs. Jaewon and Todd (2016) found that positive emotions can increase employees' satisfaction and commitment. Work itself, compensation, promotion, coworkers, and supervisors are the five factors that have been extensively analyzed and evaluated for job satisfaction, according to Luthans (2011). So, keeping this perspective in mind, in this study, JS was evaluated on the basis of the JS construct developed by Taylor and Bowers

(1974), incorporating employees' satisfaction with work, coworkers, supervision, promotional opportunities, pay, progress, and overall organization.

Organizational Commitment (OC)

Organizational commitment is defined in various ways, but it is usually characterized by individuals who believe and accept organizational goals and values, are willing to stay within their organizations, and provide substantial effort on their behalf (Mowday et al., 1979). It refers to employees' commitment to an organization based on their desires, obligations, and costs (Meyer & Allen, 2004). An organizational interest is served when individuals feel psychologically connected to it (Porter et al., 1974). Employees with difficulty regulating emotions have less OC, which measures their identification and involvement with a particular organization (Abraham, 1999). Simple definitions of OC include feelings developed inside a person or emotions related to their workplace (Srivastava, 2013). OC is a factor that promotes the individual's attachment to the organization (Susanty & Miradipta, 2013).

Universities worldwide try to retain committed faculty in their systems (Awang & Ahmad, 2010). Organizations mostly want committed employees as they are the ones who work hard and are more enthusiastic about achieving organizational goals. Academic institutions are effective when faculty members are committed to the institution, students, teaching activities, occupations, and colleagues (Bali & Vaidya, 2012).

Emotional Intelligence (EI)

Among the components of social intelligence, EI can analyze and regulate one's feelings and emotions and those of others (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The concept of emotional intelligence emerged in psychology in the late 1980s. In psychology, however, it has rapidly gained acceptance as a valuable expression to

focus attention on the emotional aspects of talent. In various studies, it has been described as a set of competencies (Goleman, 1995), a capability (Mayer & Salovey, 1997), or a collection of skills (Jacobs, 2001). According to Wong and Law (2003), emotional intelligence encompasses four distinct aspects to understanding one's own emotions, understanding others' emotions, using emotions, and regulating emotions.

According to Goleman (1998), self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, empathy, and social skills are five components of EI (Rahim, 2002). Goleman (1998) argued that emotional intelligence skills synergise with cognitive skills. Moaney and Peter (2014) stated that most people today experience crumbling trust, jarring uncertainty, stifled creativity, and increased distance between managers and co-workers. Being aware of these emotions and managing them is essential rationally. EI manages emotions consciously.

Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Job Satisfaction (JS)

EI can also predict organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Prati et al., 2003). According to Daaus and Ashkanasy (2005), emotional intelligence is crucial in managing stress and job satisfaction in the workplace. According to evidence from studies (Platsidou & Agaliotis, 2008), some elements of EI predict or influence job satisfaction.

According to Abraham (2000), although EI and JS are related, an environmental characteristic: job control, moderates this relationship. To thrive, organizations must provide autonomy in decision-making and hire emotionally intelligent workers (Chiva & Alegere, 2008). Moods and emotions impact job performance and job satisfaction based on the affective event theory (Thompson & Pines, 2012).

Several studies concluded a strong or weak relationship between EI and JS. EI and JS positively correlate in many studies, but few studies have shown a negative correlation. EI and JS have been shown to have a negative, positive, or no relationship (Carmeli, 2003; Kafetsios & Loumakour, 2007). It has been shown that EI and JS have a positive and significant relationship (Locke, 1976; Psilopanagioti et al., 2012). In addition to being skilled at managing emotions and understanding that emotions influence behaviour and outcomes, employees with a high EI are more satisfied with their work (Shooshtarian et al., 2013). EI and JS have a significant relationship. Cobb (2014) and Mousavi (2012) reported a significant relationship between EI and JS among teachers. Rather than a teacher who only understands the content, students prefer to have an emotionally intelligent teacher (Shrestha, 2018). EI and JS, however, do not appear to be related, according to Mandip (2012). Researchers have examined different professions to determine the relationship between EI and JS and found a significant relationship between EI and job performance (Shamsuddin & Rahman, 2013). EI and JS were also found to be related to football coaches by Mahdi et al. (2012). It has been found that physicians who use their EI in the workplace are more competent and more satisfied with their jobs (Psilopanagioti et al., 2012). Bank employees with EI are more balanced in their job, can deal with workplace stressors, feel confident and successful, and are happy at work (Gio et al., 2020). Nepalese bankers' EI and job satisfaction correlate positively (Shrestha & Lertjanyaki, 2019). Carmeli (2003) study found that emotionally intelligent managers were more likely to be satisfied with their work. Guleryuz et al. (2007) reported a positive relationship between nurses' emotional intelligence and job attitude. The relationship between EI and JS is also positive and significant for school teachers (Yin et al., 2013).

The theoretical support from AET and JD-R Model suggests that EI is positively associated with JS. Individuals with higher EI are better equipped to manage emotional responses to workplace events, effectively navigate job demands, and maximize job resources, all contributing to a more satisfying work experience. Thus, this study hypothesizes that:

Hypothesis 1(H1): Emotional intelligence is positively associated with job satisfaction.

Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Organizational Commitment (OC)

Employees who cannot control their emotions have a lower organizational commitment (Abraham, 1999), determined by their identification and involvement with an organization. Organizational commitment is a key predictor of both positive and negative outcomes (Meyer et al., 2002). Employees who are committed to the organization perform better. They are positively related to employee motivation, job performance, and JS, and it negatively relates to absenteeism, turnover, and stress (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Positive and negative emotions are triggered by work events, according to the AET theory. Emotions play a significant role in employee motivation, organizational citizenship behaviour, organizational commitment, level of effort, and intention to quit (Robbins et al., 2012). The relationship between EI and OC has been shown in several studies, and EI is crucial to increasing OC (Nikolaou & Tsaousis, 2002; Rathi & Rastogi, 2009; Aghdasi et al., 2011). However, Wong and Law (2002) found no significant relationship between EI and OC. Several studies have shown a positive relationship between EI and OC, but others do not show a significant one.

Emotionally intelligent bankers are more committed to their workplace (Gio et al., 2020). Nepali bankers' EI has a positive and notable impact on their OC

(Dhungana & Kautish, 2020). Carmeli (2003) asserts that emotionally intelligent managers are more committed to their organizations. Guleryuz et al. (2007) have found that nurses' emotional intelligence and organizational commitment are positively correlated.

The theoretical support from AET and JD-R Model suggests that EI is positively associated with OC. Employees with higher emotional intelligence can develop positive relationships and a greater commitment to the organization. Therefore, the researcher proposed that:

Hypothesis 2(H2): Emotional intelligence is positively associated with organizational commitment.

Emotional Labour (EL)

Employees must express and demonstrate a workplace desired emotional expectation during any interpersonal interaction (Morris & Feldman, 1996). Hochschild (1983) defined emotional labour as faking, suppressing, or displaying emotions while carrying out one's occupation. In their study, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) defined emotional labour as the expectations of service agents during service interactions. According to Morris and Feldman (1996), it is the effort, planning, and control an organisation requires to effectively embed its desired emotions into interpersonal processes (Bayram et al., 2012).

In the service industry, EL describes the work of flight attendants, bill collectors, and clerical staff. Wharton (2009) also examined EL for-healthcare workers and lawyers. According to Yin (2013), teaching also meets Hochschild (1983) criteria for jobs that require EL. Hochschild identifies flight attendants, physicians, nurses, therapists, dentists, and other customer-oriented jobs as having greater EL (Okabe, 2018). According to Yin and Lee (2012), EL in-teaching concerns

how teachers attempt to repress, produce, and control their feelings and emotional expressions.

Researchers have conceptualized emotional labour in many ways, but most distinguish between two major strategies: DA and SA (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Grandey, 2000). In addition, Henning et al. (2006) identified two main strategies for engaging in emotional labour: SA and DA. Surface acting involves adapting external emotional expressions to reflect organizational standards. Unlike SA, DA entails experiencing internal emotions aligned with external expressions and organizational standards (Hochschild, 1983).

According to Jaewon and Tod (2016), employees use DA and SA to control their emotions. In deep acting, employees try to feel and think about the desired emotions in a unique workplace environment. DA involves feeling one's emotions while modifying them to match their clients' standard emotions (Grandey, 2003). In surface acting, the considered emotions remain unchanged while the expressed behaviour changes. In some cases, surface acting may be problematic because more people are expected to have superficial emotions. So, keeping this perspective in mind in this study, EL was evaluated based on the EL construct developed by Brotheridge and Lee (1998), incorporating surface and deep strategies.

According to Constanti and Gibbs (2004), emotional labour among university lecturers is on the rise. Many emotions must be displayed during lectures, whether they are emphasized or exaggerated (Ogbonna & Harris, 2004) or minimized or suppressed (Ybema & Smulders, 2002). According to Pyzalski and Merez (2010), teaching falls under assisting professions, and in society, teaching is seen as a mission rather than simply a job (Wrobel, 2013). A high level of expectation is placed on teachers by the community. According to them, teachers must be kind, helpful,

considerate, and active, which increases the use of EL by teachers. Tutors and researchers are responsible for students' growth and the development of society, region, and nation (Jaworska et al., 2014).

Emotional Labour (EL) and Job Satisfaction (JS)

Employees can experience both satisfaction and dissatisfaction from emotional labour (Sharma & Black, 2001). Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), define emotional labour as both functional and dysfunctional for employees. In job demand theory, a high work load leads to negative employee well-being, turnover intentions, lower satisfaction, and lower commitment (Bakker, 2011). According to the literature, surface acting negatively correlates with job attitude (Bhave & Glomb, 2013). Previous theoretical work on emotional labour shows that job satisfaction is negatively correlated with emotional labour (Adermann, 1989; Wharton, 1993). As a result of surface acting, underlying tensions are created that negatively influence work-related attitudes. Deep-acting improves job attitudes by showing genuine positive emotions (Grandey, 2003). Despite this, recent studies on emotional labour and work-related attitudes show inconsistent results (Bhave & Glomb, 2013).

It becomes more challenging to display sanctioned emotions during interpersonal interactions when controlling feelings is required (Yang & Chang, 2006). Hochschild seminal work (Wang et al., 2016) demonstrated emotional labour's physical and psychological demands. Job satisfaction correlates negatively with suppressing inauthenticity felt emotions (Ruter & Fielding, 1998).

In deep acting, expressive behaviours and inner feelings are regulated (Zapf, 2000). Deep acting is also considered an act of exerting effort to regulate emotions. Yang and Chang (2007) found that DA positively correlates with job satisfaction when active thoughts, images, and memories are invoked (Ashforth & Humphrey,

1993). Several studies have shown that emotional work can result in burnout and job dissatisfaction (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). Dormann and Zapf (2001) found inconsistent results between EL and JS. Regarding different professions, Yang and Chang (2008) found that deep acting has a significant relationship with job satisfaction in nurses, but surface acting does not (Yang & Chang, 2008). In the case of hotel employees, EL and JS are positively associated (Nuriplik, 2014). Regarding Physicians, there is a negative correlation between SA and JS (Psilopanagioti et al., 2012). While talking about the employees working in a university, there is a negative relationship between EL and JS (Pugliesi, 1999). Most studies on EL have shown that surface acting has a negative relationship with JS, and deep acting has a positive relationship with JS (Bono & Vey, 2005; Zhang & Zhu, 2008). For American professors, professors who are involved in deep acting are more satisfied with the job (Mahoney et al., 2011).

Both AET and JD-R models suggest that SA is likely to be negatively associated with JS due to the emotional dissonance and strain it imposes, while DA is likely to be positively associated with JS due to its alignment with genuine emotions and its potential to act as psychological resources. Thus, in this study, it is proposed:

Hypothesis 3(H3): Surface acting is negatively associated with Job Satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4(H4): Deep acting is positively associated with Job Satisfaction.

Emotional Labour (EL) and Organizational Commitment (OC)

The job demand resource model can classify various job characteristics as job demands or job resources. Adverse outcomes from increasing work demands include employee unhappiness, turnover intentions, and a lack of commitment (Bakker, 2011). According to Wong and Law (2002), employees' emotional labour performance alters their OC. Yang and Chang (2008) found that surface acting did not

significantly influence job JS but significantly affected OC. The relationship between deep acting and JS was significant, but not with OC. According to Bogdan et al. (2010), deep and surface acting are positively correlated with all dimensions of job burnout, while emotional labour leads to negative work attitudes. According to Wong and Law (2002), employees' EL performance changes their OC. In Wang and Chang (2007), SA negatively affects OC by depressing OC when employees perform differently from their inner feelings, which does not affect JS but depresses OC. A suppressed negative emotion negatively affects one's commitment to an organization and job satisfaction (Lartey et al., 2018).

Talking about different professions, the study on nurses revealed that surface acting has a significant relationship with OC, but deep acting has no significant relationship with OC (Yang & Chang, 2008). For American professors, the professors who are involved in deep acting have less OC (Mahoney et al., 2011). The authors' study on nurses' aides and childcare workers revealed that SA is negatively related to OC (Seery & Corrigan, 2009).

Both AET and JD-R Models suggest that SA is likely to be negatively associated with OC due to its potential to create emotional dissonance and detachment, while DA is likely to be positively associated with OC due to its alignment with genuine emotions and its potential to enhance employees' emotional connection to the organization. In this study, EL will be examined for its influence on the JS and OC of management college faculty members based on theoretical and literature findings on EL and JA. This study hypothesizes that:

Hypothesis 5(H5): Surface acting is negatively associated with Organizational Commitment.

Hypothesis 6 (H6): Deep acting is positively associated with Organizational Commitment.

Perceived Organization Support (POS)

According to Eisenberger et al. (1986) and Rhoades and Eisenberg (2002), POS represents employers' concern for employees' well-being. Employers are expected to use POS to influence their employees' behaviour and job involvement and demonstrate their commitment to their employees (Eisenberger et al., 1986). POS also helps employees have more positive feelings in the workplace by enhancing their worth and perceived competence (Rhoades et al., 2001). EI and EL are very integral parts of any employee working in different professions. When EL needs to be displayed by the employees, it can hurt their job attitude, and support from the organization can reduce their negativity. Numerous studies and theoretical arguments show that organizational support can prevent the negative consequences of work demands (Bakker & Menerouti, 2007).

Before the mid-1990s, there were relatively few studies on perceived organizational support (Shagirbasha, 2018). POS systems have positively impacted employee performance and well-being. POS may not directly affect Surface and deep acting (Gosserand, 2003); Emotional labour, however, may be more challenging. When POS is positive, Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007) suggest surface acting weakens its adverse effects on JA, while deep acting strengthens its association with JA.

As per AET theory, the work environment influences employees' emotions and actions, which impacts their behaviours and attitudes, such as JS (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Over the last decade, various job aspects have been studied about individual and organizational outcomes (Broeck et al., n.d.). Job demands and job resources are classified according to the job demand resource model. Employees with

high work demands are also more likely to be unsatisfied, less committed, and have a hostile work environment (Bakker, 2011).

Emotions play a significant role in several performance and satisfaction variables, including organizational citizenship behaviour, organizational commitment, job effort, and intention to quit (Robbins et al., 2012). Thus, the emotions, if having an impact on the JA, then how emotions are managed and displayed are mainly determined by the events that happen in the workplace. So, the perception of a supportive environment at the workplace might reduce negativity and help the employees to get more satisfied and committed to the workplace (Taylor, 1991).

According to the above discussion, this study proposes that faculty members' EI may positively influence their JS and OC. To what extent do faculty need to do SA/ DA might influence JS and OC regarding the EL? SA might negatively influence JS and OC, whereas DA might positively influence JS and OC. Though extensive research has been done on POS, how it moderates the influence of EI and EL on the JA of faculty needs to be explored yet. AET and JD-R models suggest that POS might enhance the positivity between EI and JS and OC; DA and JS and OC; and reduce the negativity between SA and JS and OC. based on how employees interpret and respond to emotional events. When employees perceive solid organisational support, their positive emotional experiences are more likely to translate into higher JS and OC.

Thus, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 7 (H7a): The relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction is moderated by Perceived Organizational Support.

Hypothesis 7 (H7b): The relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Commitment is moderated by Perceived Organizational Support.

Hypothesis (H8a): The relationship between Surface acting and Job Satisfaction is moderated by Perceived Organizational Support.

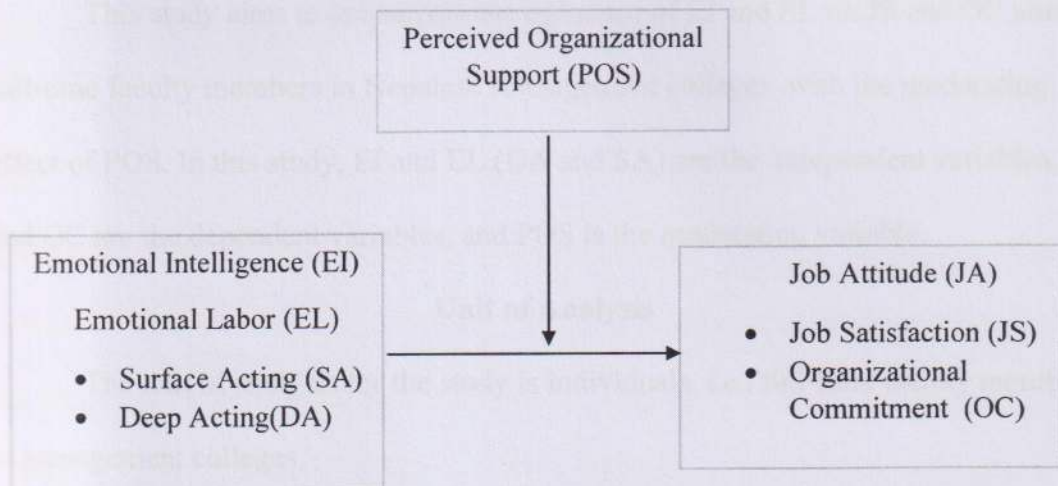
Hypothesis (H8b): The relationship between Surface acting and Organizational Commitment is moderated by Perceived Organizational Support.

Hypothesis (H9a): The relationship between Deep acting and Job Satisfaction is moderated by Perceived Organizational Support.

Hypothesis (H9b): The relationship between Deep acting and Organizational Commitment is moderated by Perceived Organizational Support.

Conceptual Framework

Based on the literature review for the relationship among EI, EL, JA and POS, the conceptual framework is developed to show the relationship among different variables for this study. The proposed conceptual framework is presented in figure 1.



CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The study examined the moderating role of POS in the relationship between EI, EL and JS, OC. This study applied a cross-sectional survey design to achieve the research objective. As a part of the research design, this chapter explains the sampling design, which includes the population, sampling techniques, sample size, and sampling unit. It also discusses the rationale for selecting the sampling design. This chapter describes the measurements and sources of measurement applied to the research. Finally, the chapter concludes with a discussion on data collection and analysis procedures.

Variables

This study aims to investigate the influence of EI and EL on JS and OC among full-time faculty members in Nepalese Management colleges, with the moderating effect of POS. In this study, EI and EL (DA and SA) are the independent variables, JS and OC are the dependent variables, and POS is the moderating variable.

Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis for the study is individuals, i.e., full-time faculty members in management colleges.

Population and Sample

The population of this study included all the full-time management faculty members working in the management colleges of Kathmandu Valley. The researcher selected colleges of management faculty because a paradigm shift in education has affected all fields, but the effects are most evident in applied fields such as management education. Along with teaching, the researcher expects business school

faculty to consult, research, and develop relationships with business professionals (Nawaz et al., 2021). Thus, the researcher took full-time faculty members from management colleges of the Kathmandu Valley as population. Likewise, the Kathmandu Valley is the centre of management colleges. There are altogether 206 Management colleges in Kathmandu under different universities. The affiliated colleges are offering Bachelor in Business Administration (BBA), Bachelor in Business Studies (BBS), Masters in Business Administration (MBS), and Masters in Business Studies (MBS) (Collegenp, 2023). Therefore, the faculty of management working in the Kathmandu Valley was deemed appropriate for the data collection and represented the variables of interest. Moreover, to increase the representativeness of the respondents, the researcher has categorized the management colleges under Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu University, Pokhara University, Purbanchal University, and Foreign Universities.

Thus, the study encompassed a diverse sample of full-time faculty members from various management colleges affiliated with different universities. The sample size included 93 faculty members from Tribhuvan University, 20 faculty members from Kathmandu University, 90 faculty members from Pokhara University, 13 faculty members from Purbanchal University, and 51 faculty members from Foreign Universities, making the total of 267 full-time faculty members from management colleges of Kathmandu Valley.

The researcher used a non-probability (purposive) sampling method to reach the respondents because caution and preparation can increase the representativeness of respondents. Since purposive sampling assumes that the respondents have enough experiences to respond to the study, the faculty members of management colleges have served as a sample.

The sample size for the study is 267 faculty members from different management colleges in the Kathmandu Valley. The researcher argues that this sample size could represent the population of this study. First, Nepali business schools have very few full-time faculties in their colleges. Second, Hair et al. (2016) contended that the sample size required to be at least five times larger (minimum) than the items employed in advanced multivariate analysis. In this study, the questionnaire captures the variables with 46 items in the questionnaire. According to the rule of thumb, there should be at least $46 \times 5 = 230$ samples. Since the limited number of full-time faculty and according to the rule of thumb, the researcher argued that the sample size of 267 could represent the target population of this study.

Measures or Instruments

The researcher utilized five previously developed measures to capture various study-related variables. Numerous researchers have previously employed these measurements and confirmed that they are reliable and valid for capturing the variables under study. The specifics are detailed below;

Emotional Intelligence (EI) Scale

The researcher used the Wong and Law (2002) Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire to measure EI. The sixteen items on the questionnaire were divided into four categories: SEA (Self Emotions Appraisal), OEA (Other's Emotions Appraisal), UOE (Use of Emotions) and ROE (Regulations of Emotions). According to Cronbach's alpha, the scale's reliability is 0.80, anchored with a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 7 (1=strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree).

Emotional Labour (EL) Scale

Brotheridge and Lee (1998) developed the six items scale to measure EL. For this study, the researcher used this scale. The first three scale items assess surface

strategy, whereas the final three assess deep strategy. The scale was anchored with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5 (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree), and its Cronbach Alpha reliability is 0.712.

Organizational Commitment (OC) Scale

The OCS scale, developed by Balfour and Wechsler (1996), was used to evaluate the OC. The scale's nine items measure three characteristics of overall OC: affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuous commitment. The scale was anchored using a 7-point Likert scale, with one denoting strong disagreement and seven denoting strong agreement. For emotional commitment, Cronbach's Alpha values were 0.081. For normative commitment, they were 0.72; for continuous commitment, they were 0.83 (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996; Kacmar et al., 1999).

Job Satisfaction (JS) Scale

Taylor and Bowers (1974) developed a seven items scale to measure JS. This measure had a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 to 5 (one representing the most satisfied, and five the least satisfied). According to Larwood et al. (1998), Cronbach Alpha values vary from 0.67 to 0.71.

Perceived Organizational Support (POS) Scale

The researcher used the eight items POS scale of Eisenberger et al. (1997) to evaluate the POS using a 5-point rating scale, with one being strongly disagreed with and five strongly agreed with. For POS, Cronbach's Alpha was reported to be 0.93.

Pilot Testing

The researcher performed pilot testing, and the respondents for the pilot testing were 20 faculty members (Full time and Part time) of the South Asian Institute of Management (SAIM) College. The result of pilot testing showed that all of the constructs have a reliability of over 0.60 (Pallant, 2020).

Table 1.1. *Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient*

Variables	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Emotional Labour (SA)	3	0.816
Emotional Labour(DA)	3	0.699
Job Satisfaction	7	0.827
Emotional Intelligence	16	0.640
Perceived Organization Support	6	0.734
Organization Commitment	6	0.833

Data Collection Procedure

After the pilot testing, the researcher distributed the printed questionnaires via the institution's focal person (coordinator, director or principal). In the realm of ethical considerations, prior to distributing the questionnaire to full-time faculty members within the college, the researcher diligently secured verbal consent from a designated focal person. Subsequently, the researcher provided a comprehensive explanation regarding the study's objectives, methodology, as well as the assurance of confidentiality and anonymity to the respondents. The researcher visited 30 management colleges under five universities during the data collection. Out of 30 colleges, two were affiliated with Purbanchal University, two with Kathmandu University, ten with Pokhara University, eight with Tribhuvan University, and eight with Foreign Universities. Data were collected from the management colleges between July 2022 and August 2022. The researcher collected the completed questionnaires from the focal persons of respective management colleges.

Data Preparation

After collecting the questionnaires, the researcher entered the data into the computer by applying the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (26 Trail

version). The responses were screened by applying different techniques of data preparation. First, the responses with more than 30% not filled out questionnaires were eliminated from the study. Second, the unengaged responses, such as only 5 or 4 responses throughout the items, were removed from the study.

Data Analysis

After data preparation, the researcher analysed the data using the SPSS and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS, 23 Trial Version). The researcher documented the demographic profile, reliability, confirmatory factor analysis, descriptive statistics, and Pearson correlation. The moderated multiple regression was estimated by Process Macro 3.5. Structural Equation Model (SEM) was employed to test the direct hypotheses.

Table 1
Demographic Profile of Respondents

Demographic Variables	Frequency	Percent (%)
Gender		
Male	20	33.3
Female	06	24.7
Age		
Below 30	70	28.2
31-40	124	46.4
41-50	53	19.9
Above 50	28	7.5
Educational Level		
Master's	236	77.15

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

In this chapter, the researcher first describes the profile of respondents, followed by an examination of common method biases. The confirmatory factor analysis is performed to estimate the factor structure. Descriptive statistics shows the nature of data, and correlation analysis illustrates the relationship among variables. Finally, multiple hierarchical regression and moderated multiple hierarchical regression are performed to test hypotheses.

Demographic Profile of Respondents

Two hundred sixty-seven respondents working as full-time faculty participated in this study from different colleges of the Kathmandu Valley. Table 1 presents their demographic profile.

Table 1

Demographic Profile of Respondents

Demographic Variables	Frequency	Percent (%)
Gender		
Male	201	75.3
Female	66	24.7
Age		
Below 30	70	26.2
30-40	124	46.4
41-50	53	19.9
Above 50	20	7.5
Educational Level		
Masters	206	77.15

Demographic Variables	Frequency	Percent (%)
MPhil or Above	61	22.85
Experience		
Less than five years	76	28.5
5-10 years	89	33.3
10-15 years	45	16.9
More than 15 years	57	21.3
Affiliated University		
Tribhuwan University	93	34.8
Kathmandu University	20	7.5
Pokhara University	90	33.7
Purbanchal University	13	4.9
Foreign Universities	51	19.1

Table 1 reveals that the majority of respondents in the research were male (n=201, 75.3%). Likewise, the maximum number of respondents was from the age group of 30-40 (n=124, 46.4%). Similarly, the most frequent experience of employees was 5-10 years (n=89, 33.3%). Finally, most respondents were from Tribhuwan University (n=93, 34.8%).

Common Method Biases

A common method bias may develop when independent and dependent variables are measured in the same survey (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Studies' variance can be best explained by one factor, which points to common approach biases. Harman single factor test, the common latent factor test, and the market variable test are used in Gaskin (2020) to estimate common method biases. According to

Podsakoff et al. (2003), the value of Herman's single-factor test was 25.41%, showing that there were no significant common method biases.

Reliability

The consistency of the instruments' findings over time is referred to as reliability (Kerlinger, 2000). Table 2 shows that all Cronbach Alpha values are more than 0.60. Through these Cronbach Alpha values, researcher conclude that the instrument is reliable (Pallant, 2020). The researcher moved forward with further data analysis because all the numbers lie within the permitted range of values.

Table 2

Reliability of Measures

Constructs	No Items	Cronbach's Alpha
1. Perceived Organizational Support	9	0.686
2. Emotional Labour (Deep Acting)	3	0.654
3. Emotional Labour (Surface Acting)	3	0.652
4. Organizational Commitment	8	0.694
5. Emotional Intelligence	16	0.916
6. Job Satisfaction	7	0.830

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

This study performed confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to estimate the factor structures of the instrument by applying Analysis of Moment Structure (AMOS) 23 (Trial Version). The model fit indices, reliability and validity, were performed to estimate the CFA. The different model-fit indices such as Discrepancy divided by degree of freedom (CMIN/df), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted-Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), and

Comparative Fit Index (CFI) were calculated. Table 3 documents the acceptable values of model fit indices.

Table 3
Values of Model Fit Indices

Fit Indicators	Authors	Threshold values
CMIN/df	Hair et al. (2009)	< 3
RMSEA	Meyers et al. (2005)	< 0.50
GFI	Segars and Grover (1993)	> 0.90
TLI	Hair et al. (2016)	> 0.90
CFI	Meyers et al. (2005)	> 0.90

Emotional Labour (EL): Dimensionality Test

The model fitness of EL was estimated to assess the factor structure of the model, and EL estimated whether the construct fit a single-factor model or a two-factor model. Figure 1 shows the single-factor model, and Figure 2 the two-factor model.

Table 4
Model Fit Indices of EL

Fit Indicators	Authors	Threshold values	Two-factor model	Single-factor model
CMIN/df	Hair et al. (2009)	< 3	1.186	8.849
RMSEA	Meyers et al. (2005)	< 0.050	0.026	0.181
GFI	Segars and Grover (1993)	> 0.90	0.988	0.899
TLI	Hair et al. (2016)	> 0.90	0.987	0.381
CFI	Meyers et al. (2005)	> 0.90	0.993	0.629

Table 4 shows the model fit indices of EL. The two-factor model of EL is relatively more robust than single factor model of EL in all model fit indices such as

CMIN/df, RMSEA, GFI, TLI, CFI, and NFI within an acceptable range of values.

Since all model fitness indicators are suited for a two-factor model, this study applied a two-factor model of EL.

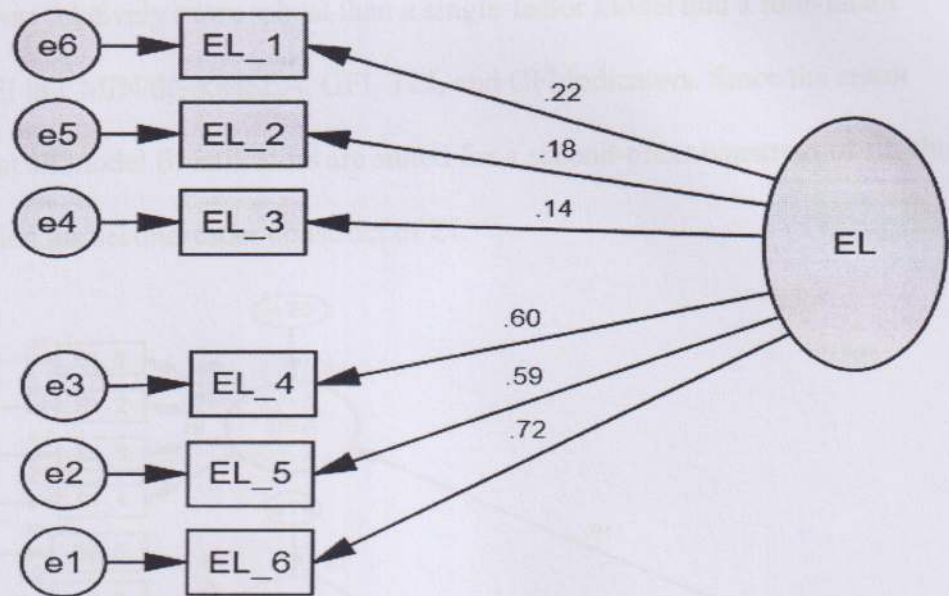


Figure 1. Single Factor Model of EL

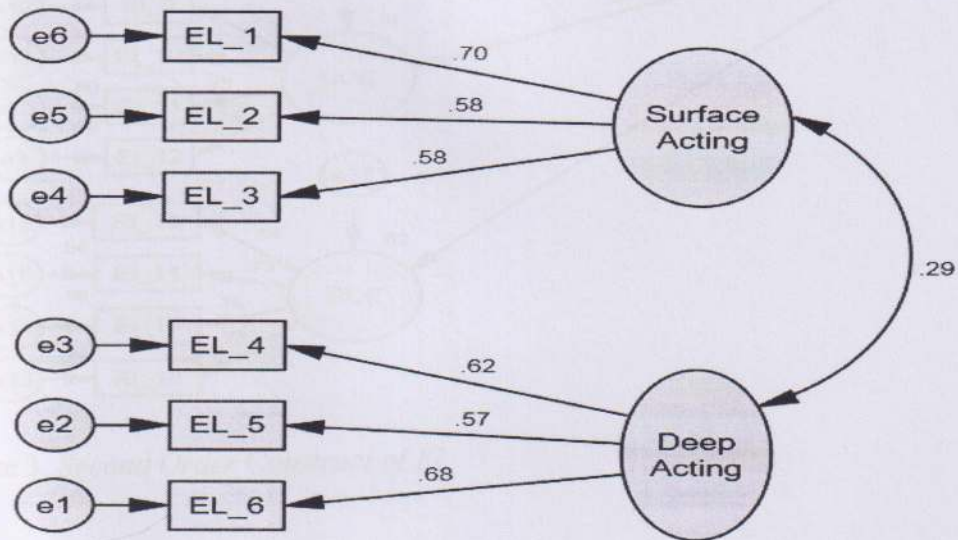


Figure 2. Two Factor Model of EL

Emotional Intelligence (EI): Dimensionality Test

Table 5 shows the model fit indices of EI. The researcher estimated a single-factor model, a four-factor model and a second-order model of EI. The second-order construct was relatively more robust than a single-factor model and a four-factor model of EI in CMIN/df, RMSEA, GFI, TLI, and CFI indicators. Since the result showed that all model fit indicators are suited for a second-order construct of EI, this study applied the second-order construct of EI.

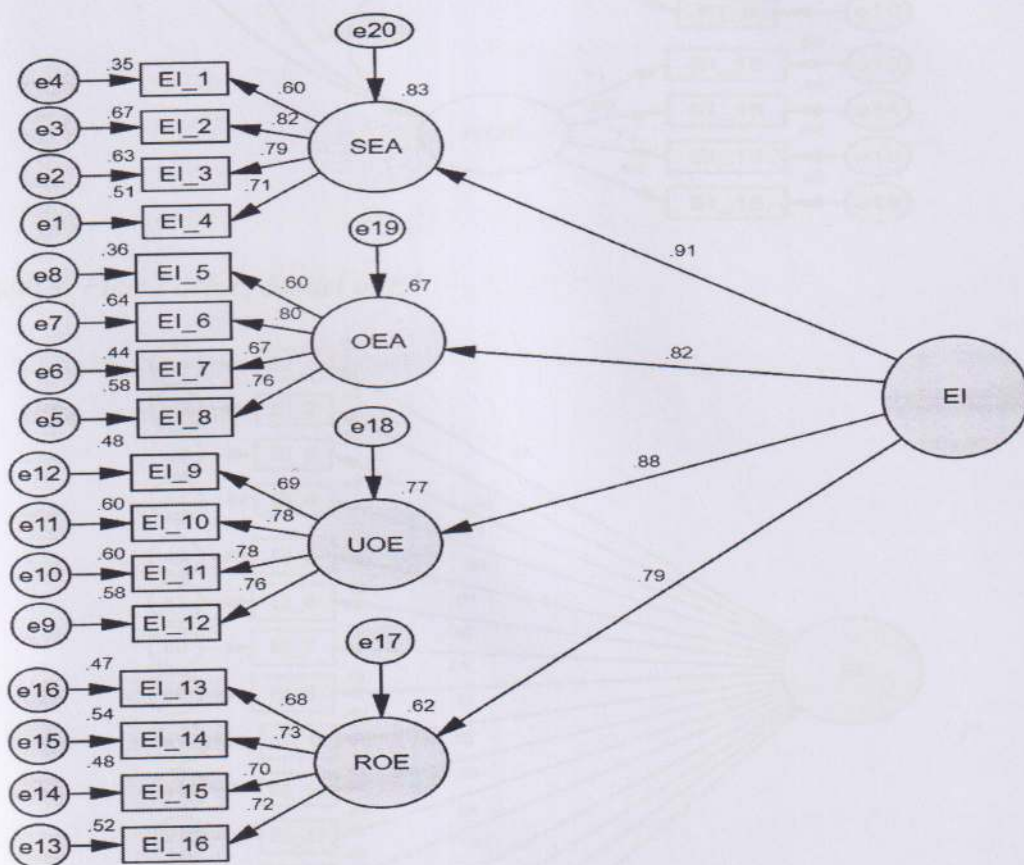


Figure 3. Second Order Construct of EI

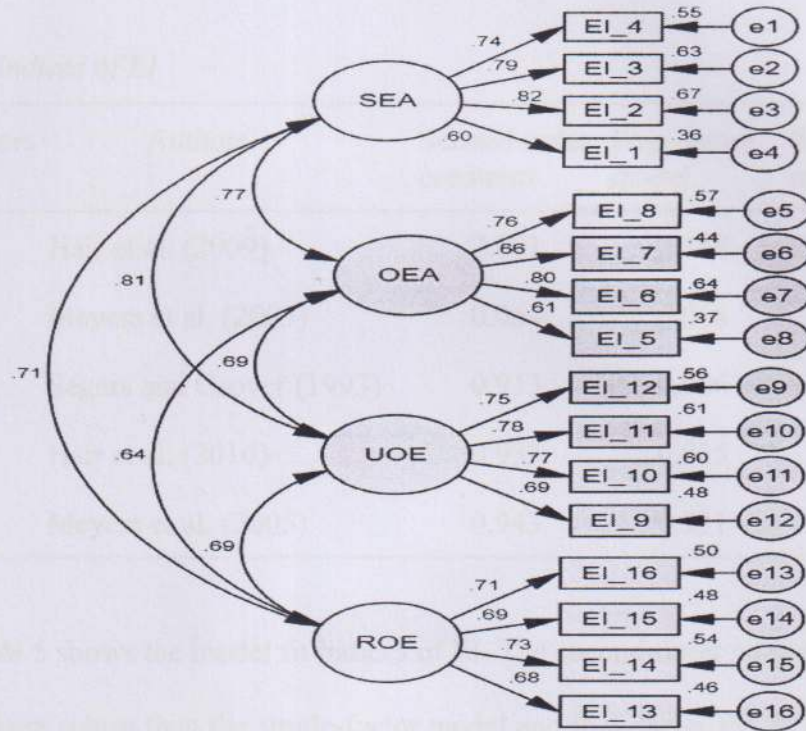


Figure 4. Four Factors Model of EI

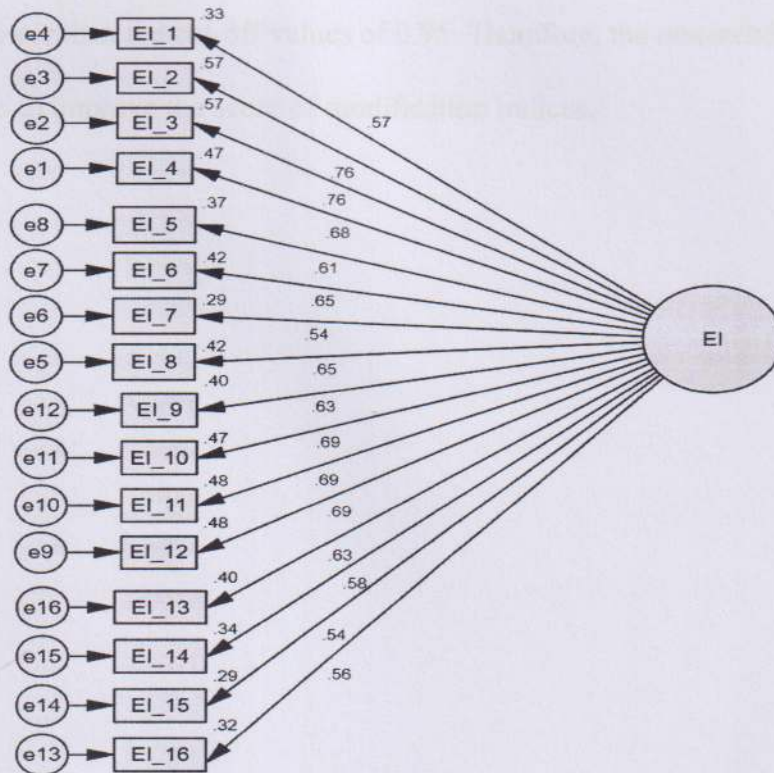


Figure 5. Single Factor Model of EI

Table 5
Model Fit Indices of EI

Fit Indicators	Authors	Second-order construct	Four-factor model	Single-factor model
CMIN/df	Hair et al. (2009)	2.091	2.118	4.274
RMSEA	Meyers et al. (2005)	0.064	0.068	0.117
GFI	Segars and Grover (1993)	0.913	0.906	0.798
TLI	Hair et al. (2016)	0.933	0.915	0.751
CFI	Meyers et al. (2005)	0.943	0.931	0.784

Table 5 shows the model fit indices of EI. The second-order construct EI is relatively more robust than the single-factor model and four-factor model of EI in all model fit indices such as CMIN/df and RMSEA. However, the values of GFI, TLI and CFI are lower than the cut-off values of 0.95. Therefore, the researcher co-vary different items to improve the score of modification indices.

Figure 4. Single Factor Model of EI

Error terms of e13, e14, and e15 are co-varied for RMSEA construct to improve the model fit indices. Likewise, Error terms of e9 and e12 are co-varied for GFI construct. Finally, error terms of e5, e6 and e8 are co-varied for the CFI construct.

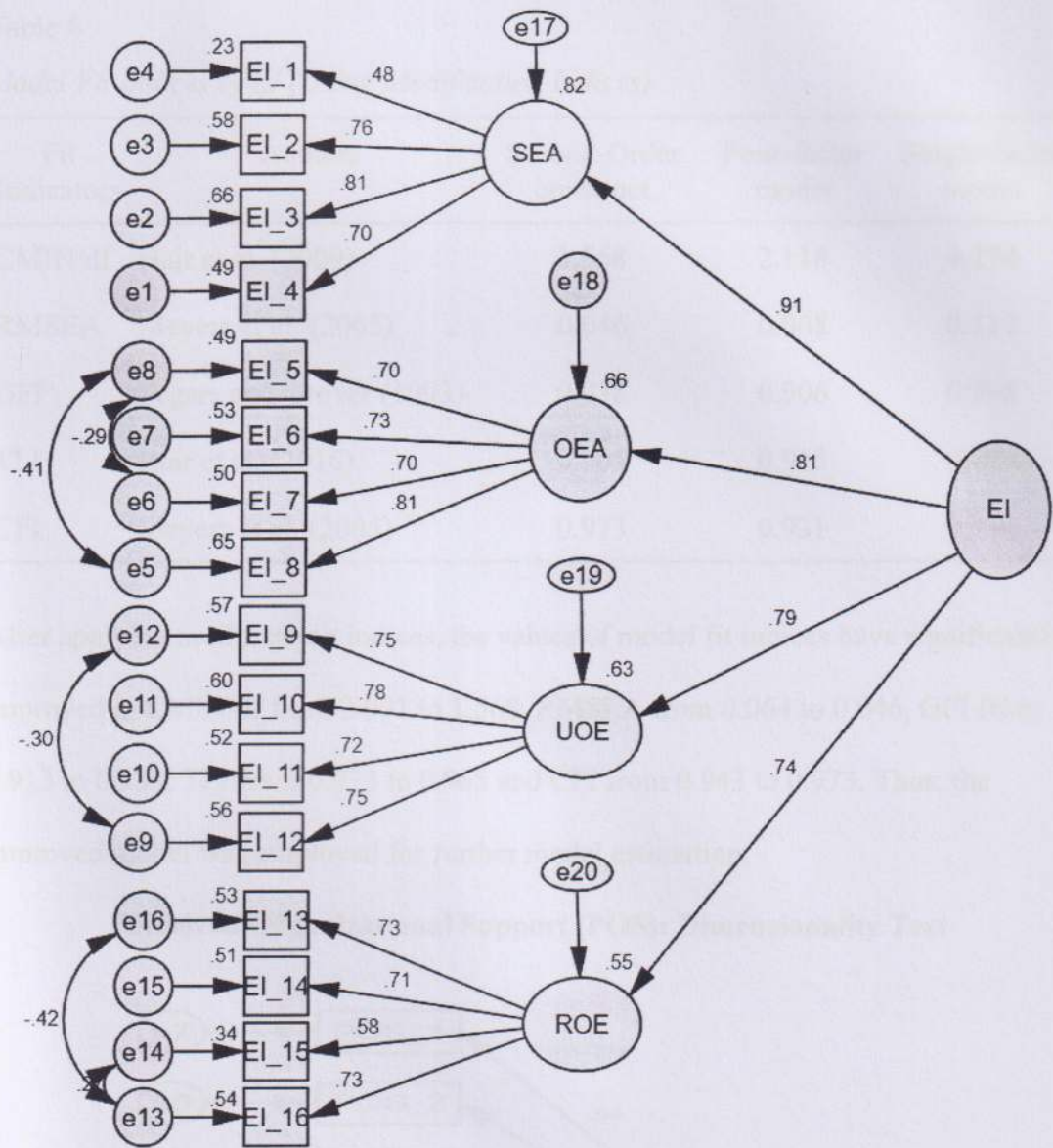


Figure 6. Single Factor Model of EI

Error terms of e13, e14, and e16 are co-varied for ROE construct to improve the model fit indices. Likewise, Error terms of e9 and e12 are co-varied for UOE constructs. Finally, error terms of e5, e6 and e8 are co-varied for the OEA construct.

Table 6

Model Fit Indices of EI (Using Modification Indices)

Fit Indicators	Authors	Second-Order construct	Four-factor model	Single-factor model
CMIN/df	Hair et al. (2009)	1.568	2.118	4.274
RMSEA	Meyers et al. (2005)	0.046	0.068	0.117
GFI	Segars and Grover (1993)	0.938	0.906	0.798
TLI	Hair et al. (2016)	0.965	0.915	0.751
CFI	Meyers et al. (2005)	0.973	0.931	0.784

After applying modification indices, the values of model fit indices have significantly improved in CMIN/df from 2.091 to 1.568, RMSEA from 0.064 to 0.046, GFI from 0.913 to 0.938, TLI from 0.933 to 0.965 and CFI from 0.943 to 0.973. Thus, the improved model was employed for further model estimation.

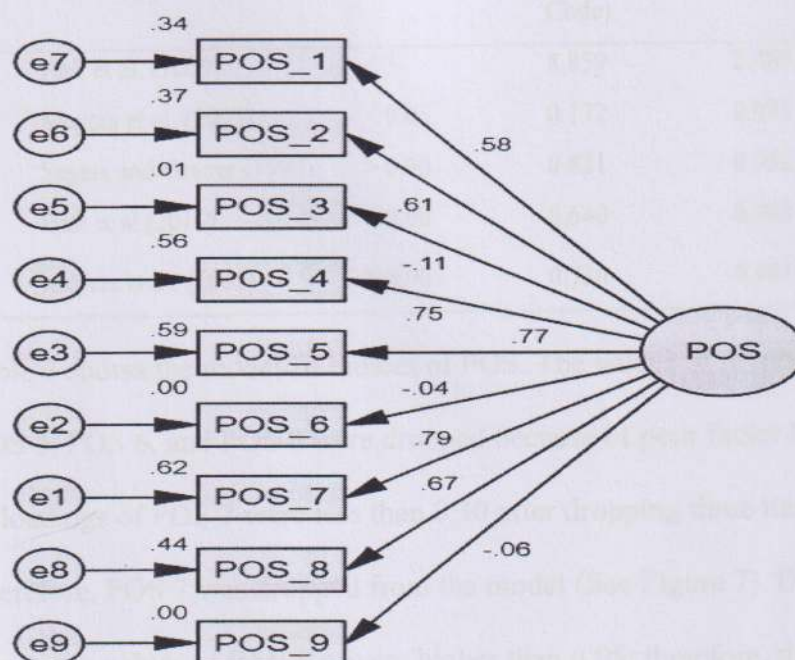
Perceived Organizational Support (POS): Dimensionality Test

Figure 7. Single Factor Model of POS with Reverse-Coded Items

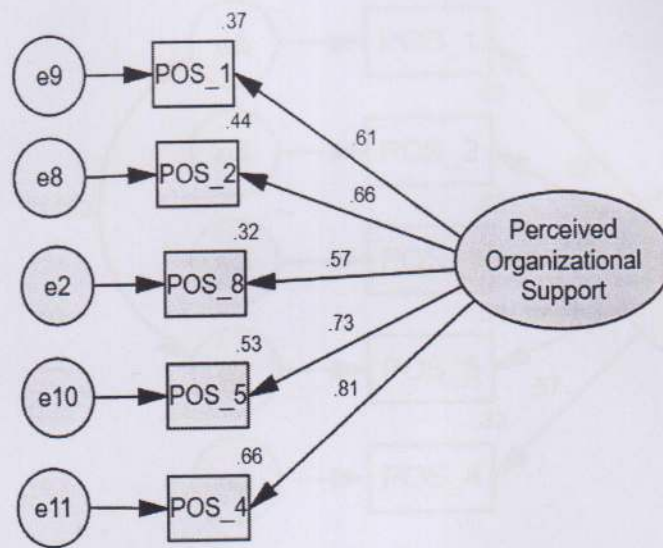


Figure 8. Single Factor Model of POS without Reverse-Coded Items

Table 7

Model Fit Indices of POS

Fit Indicators	Authors	Threshold values	Single factor model (Reverse Code)	Single-factor model (without reverse code)
CMIN/df	Hair et al. (2009)	< 3	8.859	2.480
RMSEA	Meyers et al. (2005)	< 0.05	0.172	0.075
GFI	Segars and Grover (1993)	> 0.90	0.821	0.982
TLI	Hair et al. (2016)	> 0.90	0.640	0.963
CFI	Meyers et al. (2005)	> 0.90	0.730	0.981

Table 7 shows the model fit indices of POS. The values of reverse-coded items such as POS 3, POS 6, and POS 9 were dropped because of poor factor loadings. However, loadings of POS 7 were less than 0.30 after dropping three items from the model. Therefore, POS 7 was dropped from the model (See Figure 7). Despite the improvement, the values of RMSEA were higher than 0.05; therefore, the error terms e2 and e5 were co-varied for the POS construct (see Figure 9).

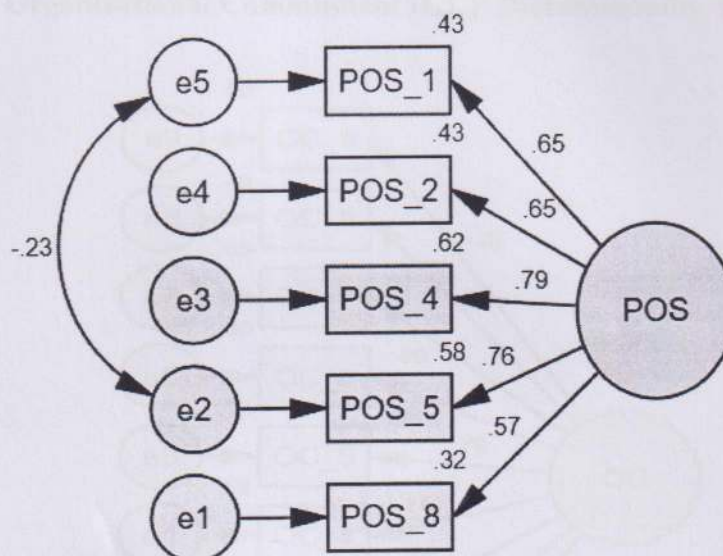


Figure 9. *Single Factor Model of POS after Modification Indices*

After applying modification indices, there is a significant improvement in CMIN/df, from 1.476 to 2.476, RMSEA from 0.075 to 0.042, GFI from 0.982 to 0.982, TLI from 0.963 to 0.998 and CFI from 0.981 to 0.995. Thus, the researcher performed the model fit test with the co-varied model (See Table 8).

Table 8

Model Fit Indices of POS (Using Modification Indices)

Fit Indicators	Authors	Threshold values	Single factor model (Reverse Code)	Single-factor model (without reverse code)
CMIN/df	Hair et al. (2009)	< 3	8.859	1.476
RMSEA	Meyers et al. (2005)	< 0.50	0.172	0.042
GFI	Segars and Grover (1993)	> 0.90	0.821	0.992
TLI	Hair et al. (2016)	> 0.90	0.640	0.998
CFI	Meyers et al. (2005)	> 0.90	0.730	0.995

Organizational Commitment (OC): Dimensionality Test

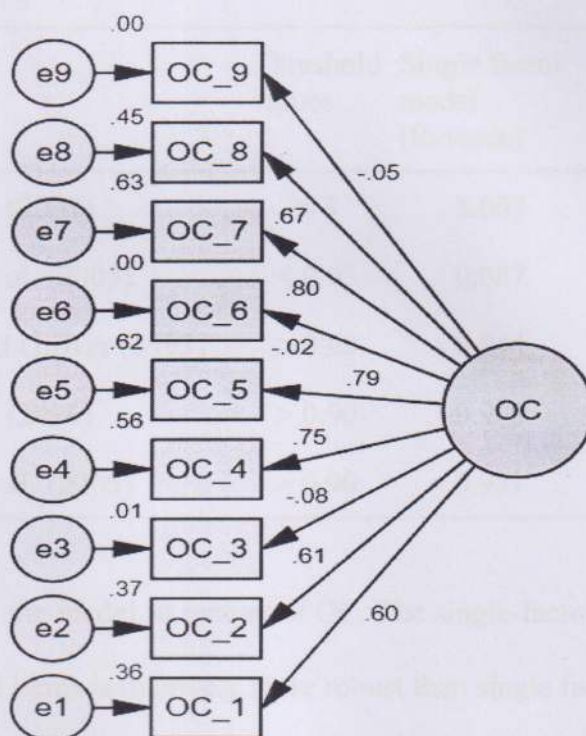


Figure 10. Single Factor Model of OC with Reverse Code

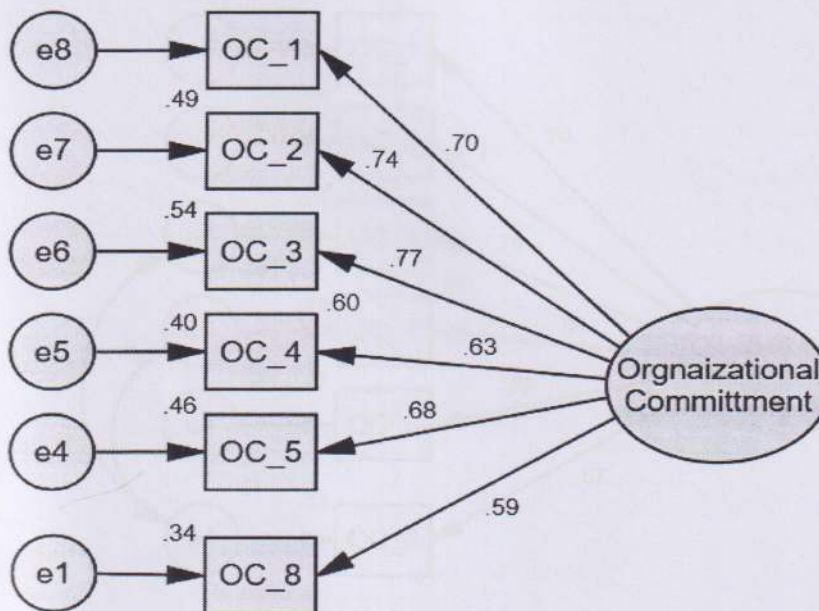


Figure 11. Single Factor Model of OC without Reverse Code

Table 9
Model Fit Indices of OC

Fit Indicators	Authors	Threshold values	Single factor model (Reverse)	Single-factor model (without reverse)
CMIN/df	Hair et al. (2009)	< 3	3.007	2.903
RMSEA	Meyers et al. (2005)	< 0.05	0.087	0.085
GFI	Segars and Grover (1993)	> 0.90	0.944	0.968
TLI	Hair et al. (2016)	> 0.90	0.903	0.903
CFI	Meyers et al. (2005)	> 0.90	0.931	0.948

Table 9 shows the model fit indices of OC. The single-factor model of OC without reverse-coded items is relatively more robust than single factor model with reverse-coded items. However, the value of RMSEA is higher than 0.05 (see Table 9). Therefore, the researcher co-vary error terms in the final model of OC.

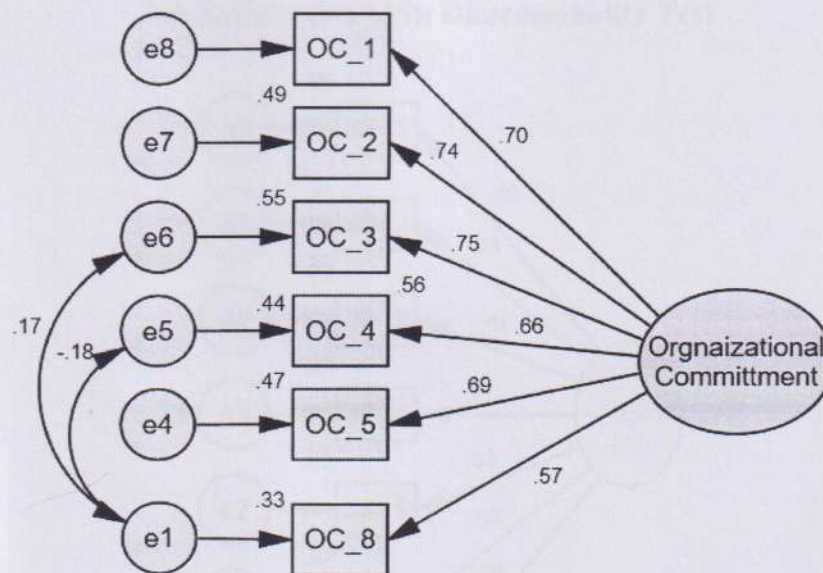


Figure 12. *Single Factor Model of OC without Reverse Code*

Table 10
Model Fit Indices of OC (Using Modification Indices)

Fit Indicators	Authors	Threshold values	Single factor model (Reverse)	Single-factor model (without reverse)
CMIN/df	Hair et al. (2009)	< 3	3.007	1.605
RMSEA	Meyers et al. (2005)	< 0.050	0.087	0.048
GFI	Segars and Grover (1993)	> 0.900	0.944	0.986
TLI	Hair et al. (2016)	> 0.900	0.903	0.983
CFI	Meyers et al. (2005)	> 0.900	0.931	0.992

The researcher co-vary error terms of e1, e5 and e6 of the OC construct. After employing modification indices, this study improved model fit indices of CMIN/df from 2.903 to 1.605, RMSEA from 0.085 to 0.048, GFI from 0.968 to 0.986, TLI from 0.903 to 0.983 and CFI from 0.948 to 0.992. Thus, the final measurement model was estimated by applying co-varied error terms.

Job Satisfaction (JS): Dimensionality Test

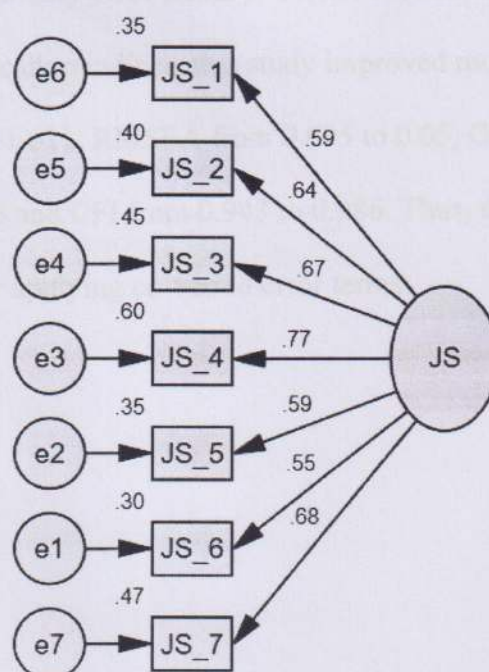


Figure 13. Single Factor model of JS

Table 11 shows the model fit indices of JS. The single-factor model of JS has model fit indices values higher than the cut-off values of RMSEA, CFI and TLI (see Table 11). Therefore, the researcher co-vary error terms in the final model of the JS construct.

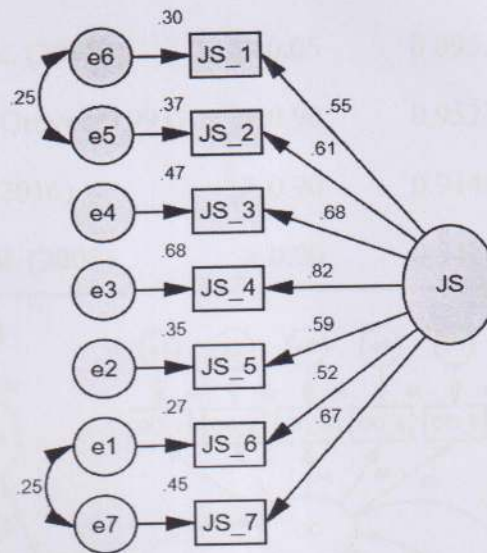


Figure 14. Single Factor model of JS (After modification indices)

The researcher co-vary error terms of e1, e5, e6, and e7 of the JS construct. After employing modification indices, this study improved model fit indices of CMIN/df from 3.206 to 1.621, RMSEA from 0.095 to 0.05, GFI from 0.952 to 0.976, TLI from 0.914 to 0.976 and CFI from 0.943 to 0.986. Thus, the final measurement model was estimated by applying co-varied error terms.

Figure 15. Measurement Model

Assessment of Measurement Model

Each construct was evaluated separately before evaluating the overall measurement model. Any item with a factor loading less than 0.50 is suggested to be deleted from the study (Nunnally & Berkman, 1995). This study applied JS and CFC as

Table 11

Model Fit Indices of JS (Using Modification Indices)

Fit Indicators	Authors	Threshold values	Single factor model	Single-factor model (with modification indices)
CMIN/df	Hair et al. (2009)	< 3	3.206	1.621
RMSEA	Meyers et al. (2005)	< 0.05	0.095	0.050
GFI	Segars and Grover (1993)	> 0.90	0.952	0.979
TLI	Hair et al. (2016)	> 0.90	0.914	0.976
CFI	Meyers et al. (2005)	> 0.90	0.943	0.986

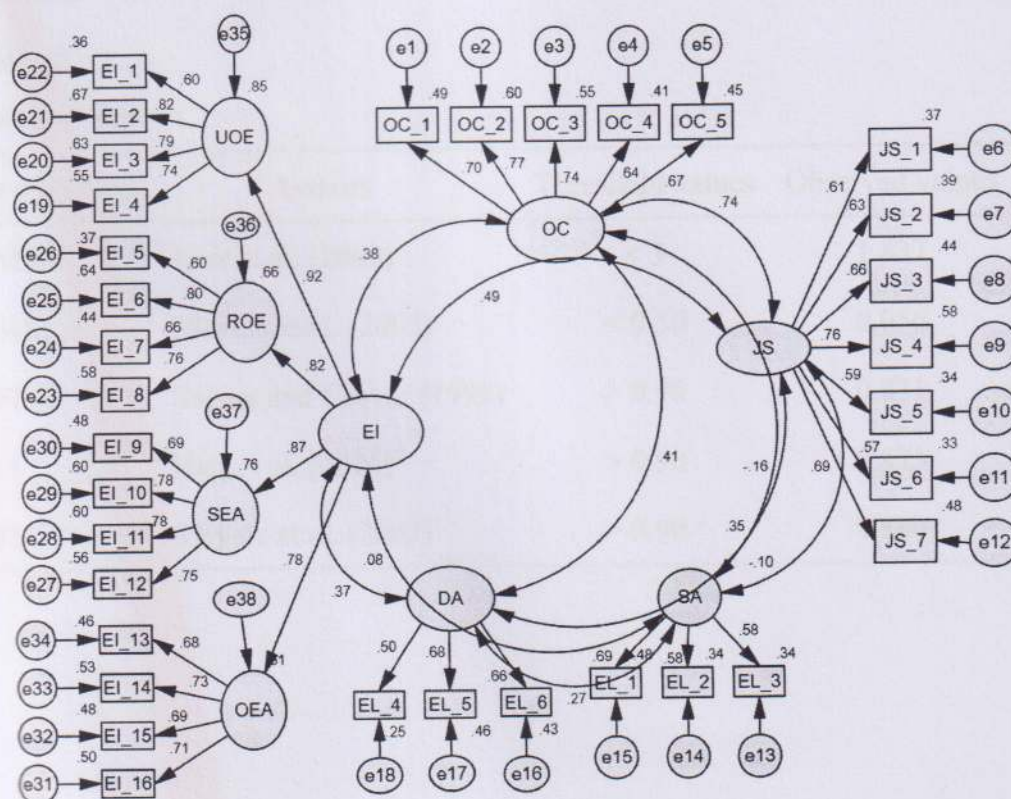


Figure 15. Measurement Model

Assessment of Measurement Model

Each construct was evaluated separately before evaluating the measuring model as a whole. Any item with a factor loading less than 0.50 is suggested to be omitted from the study (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993). This study applied JS and OC as

a single factor. Finally, EI was considered a second-order construct, and EL was a two-factor model. Figure 12 shows the measurement model.

Model Fit Indices

The ability of a model to reproduce the data (often the variance-covariance matrix) is referred to as model fit. Several model fitness indicators, such as CMIN/df, RMSEA, GFI, AGFI, and PCFI, should be satisfied in order to estimate structural models (Gaskin, 2020). This study was conducted because the values of model fit indices such as RMSEA, GFI, TLI, and CFI are not within the acceptable range (See Table 12).

Table 12

Model Fit Indices

Fit Indicators	Authors	Threshold values	Observed values
CMIN/df	Hair et al. (2009)	< 3	1.837
RMSEA	Meyers et al. (2005)	< 0.50	0.056
GFI	Segars and Grover (1993)	> 0.90	0.831
TLI	Hair et al. (2016)	> 0.90	0.873
CFI	Meyers et al. (2005)	> 0.90	0.884

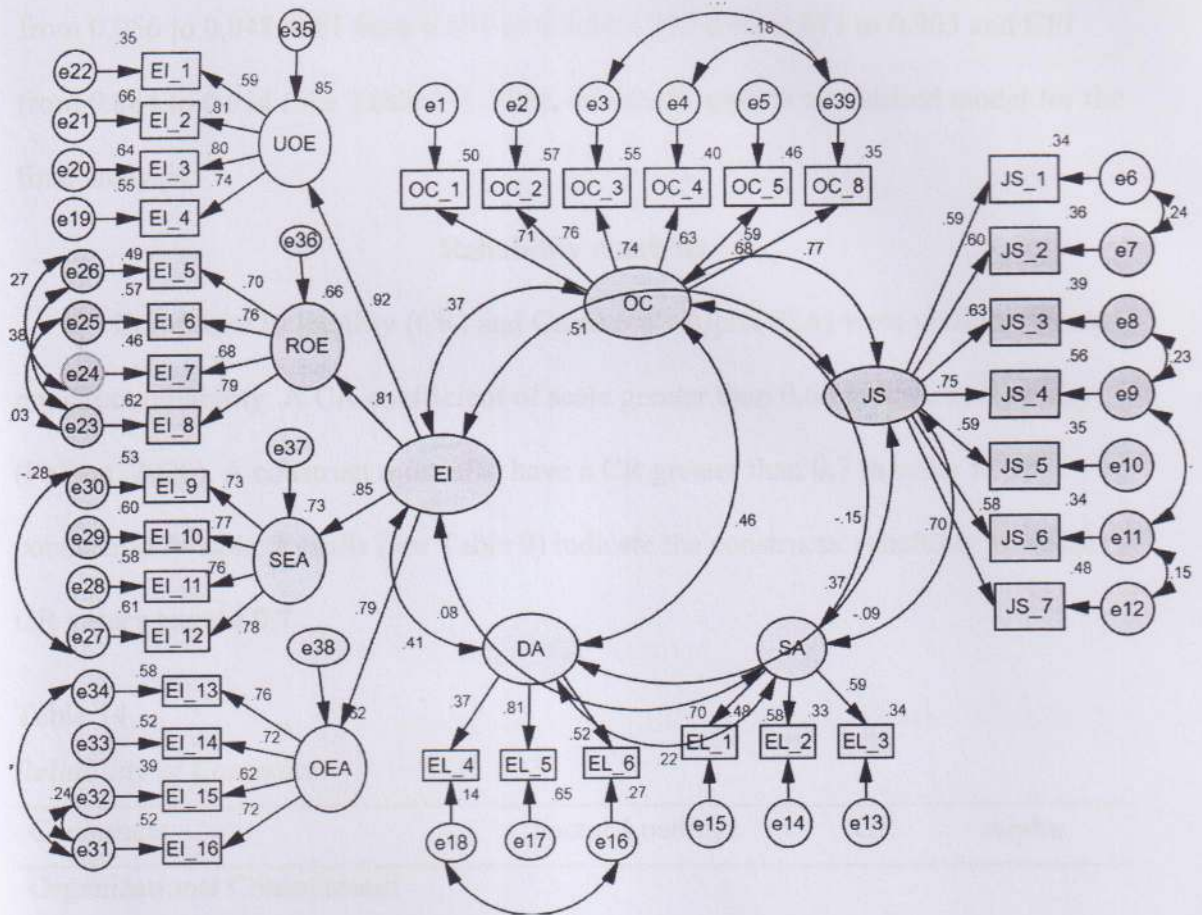


Figure 16. Measurement Model (Modification Indices)

Table 13

Model Fit Indices

Fit Indicators	Authors	Threshold values	Observed values
CMIN/df	Hair et al. (2009)	< 3	1.618
RMSEA	Meyers et al. (2005)	< 0.50	0.048
GFI	Segars and Grover (1993)	> 0.90	0.846
TLI	Hair et al. (2016)	> 0.90	0.903
CFI	Meyers et al. (2005)	> 0.90	0.914

After using modification indices of the measurement model, there is a significant improvement in CMIN/df from 1.837 to 1.618, RMSEA

from 0.056 to 0.048, GFI from 0.831 to 0.0.846, TLI from 0.873 to 0.903 and CFI from 0.884 to 0.914 (See Table 13). Thus, this study applied a modified model for the final analysis.

Reliability Analysis

Composite Reliability (CR) and Cronbach's Alpha (CA) were used to estimate construct reliability. A CA coefficient of scale greater than 0.60 indicates reliability (Pallant, 2020). A construct must also have a CR greater than 0.7 in order to be considered reliable. Results (see Table 9) indicate the constructs' reliability since all CR values exceed 0.7.

Table 14
Reliability of Constructs

Constructs	Factor Loadings	CR	Alpha
Organizational Commitment			
OC 1	0.703		
OC 2	0.773		
OC 3	0.742	0.832	0.832
OC 4	0.637		
OC 5	0.671		
Job Satisfaction			
JS 1	0.610		
JS 2	0.626		
JS 3	0.663		
JS 4	0.759	0.833	0.830
JS 5	0.587		
JS 6	0.572		
JS 7	0.692		
Surface Acting			
EL 1	0.694		
EL 2	0.584	0.653	0.652
EL 3	0.582		

Constructs	Factor Loadings	CR	Alpha
Deep Acting			
EL 4	0.505		
EL 5	0.681	0.648	0.654
EL 6	0.658		
Emotional Intelligence			
UOE	0.921		
ROE	0.815	0.912	0.916
SEA	0.872		
OEA	0.783		

Convergent Validity

Convergent validity refers to the degree to which an assessment is related to what it should theoretically refer to (Kaplan & Saccuzo, 2009; Swerdlick & Cohen, 2005). The value of factor loadings should be more than 0.60, and the Average Variance Explained (AVE) should be higher than 0.50 to ensure the convergent validity of the measurement model (Hair et al., 2016). However, in this study, the values of AVE are less than 0.50 in SA, DA, and JS (See Table 11). Lam (2012) documented that AVE less than 0.50 can be acceptable if the values of CR are more than 0.60. Since all the values of CR are higher than 0.648, the measures have convergent validity.

Table 15

Convergent Validity of Constructs

Constructs	Factor Loadings	Average Variance Explained
Organizational Commitment		
OC 1	0.703	
OC 2	0.773	
OC 3	0.742	0.500
OC 4	0.637	
OC 5	0.671	

Constructs	Factor Loadings	Average Variance Explained
Job Satisfaction		
JS 1	0.61	
JS 2	0.626	
JS 3	0.663	
JS 4	0.759	0.419
JS 5	0.587	
JS 6	0.572	
JS 7	0.692	
Surface Acting		
EL 1	0.694	
EL 2	0.584	0.387
EL 3	0.582	
Deep Acting		
EL 4	0.505	
EL 5	0.681	0.384
EL 6	0.658	
Emotional Intelligence		
UOE	0.921	
ROE	0.815	0.721
SEA	0.872	
OEA	0.783	

Discriminant Validity

According to Bagozzi et al. (1991), discriminant validity estimates how much one idea and its indicators differ from another concept and its indicators. Fornell and Larcker (1981) argued that correlations between items within a construct should be less than the square root of their average variance in order to establish discriminant validity. The outcome demonstrates the discriminant validity of the model (see Table 16), as the values in the diagonal (square root of AVEs) are greater than the correlation coefficients (except in OC).

Table 16
Discriminant Validity (Fornell & Larcker Criteria)

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5
1. JS	0.647				
2. OC	0.744	0.707			
3. SA	-0.096	-0.162	0.622		
4. DA	0.349	0.410	0.267	0.620	
5. EI	0.494	0.379	0.084	0.369	0.849

Notes. DA: Deep Acting, EI: Emotional Intelligence; JS= Job Satisfaction; OC= Organization Commitment; SA: Surface Acting

Descriptive Statistics and Pearson Correlation

Descriptive statistics can be used to descriptively convey the details of each respondent's replies. Cooper & Schindler (2014) describe data using this technique by arranging and summarizing it simply and clearly. The correlation between variables in the study also shows their relationship.

Table 17
Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix

Constructs	Mean	STDV	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. SA	2.860	0.935	1					
2. DA	3.390	0.801	0.184**	1				
3. JS	3.599	0.697	-0.077	0.244**	1			
4. EI	5.380	0.890	0.057	0.262**	0.438**	1		
5. POS	5.181	1.062	-0.083	0.265**	0.678**	0.565**	1	
6. OC	3.481	0.788	-0.120	0.255**	0.612**	0.326**	0.560**	1

Notes. ** $P < 0.01$. DA= Deep Acting; EI= Emotional Intelligence; OC= Organization Commitment; POS= Perceived Organization Support; JS= Job Satisfaction; SA= Surface Acting

Table 17 shows that SA is positively and significantly related to DA ($\gamma = 0.184, p < 0.01$). However, SA is negatively related to JS, POS and OC and positively

related to EI ($\gamma = -0.077, p > 0.01$; $\gamma = -0.083, p > 0.01$; $\gamma = -0.120, p > 0.01, \gamma = 0.057, p > 0.01$ respectively). Likewise, DA is positively related to JS, EI, POS and OC ($\gamma = 0.244, p < 0.01$; $\gamma = 0.262, p < 0.01$; $\gamma = 0.265, p < 0.01, \gamma = 0.255, p < 0.01$ respectively). Moreover, JS is positively and significantly related to EI, POS and OC ($\gamma = 0.438, p < 0.01, \gamma = 0.678, p < 0.01, \gamma = 0.612, p < 0.01$ respectively). Furthermore, EI is positively related to POS and OC ($\gamma = 0.566, p < 0.01, \gamma = 0.326, p < 0.01$). Finally, POS positively relates to OC ($\gamma = 0.560, p < 0.01$). However, correlation analyses are not robust enough to test the proposed hypotheses. Therefore, multiple and moderated hierarchical regressions were performed to test the hypotheses.

Results of t- tests and ANOVA

In this study, an independent samples t-test was employed to examine and compare the mean scores between male and female participants in the constructs of EI, SA, and DA. This statistical analysis aimed to assess potential gender-based differences in these variables.

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the EI for male and female. There were no significant differences ($t(265) = -1.38, p = 0.167$) in scores for male ($M = 5.336, SD = 0.920$) and for female ($M = 5.51, SD = 0.78$). An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the SA for male and female. There were no significant differences ($t(265) = -0.792, p = 0.429$) in scores for male ($M = 2.834, SD = 0.920$) and for female ($M = 2.939, SD = 0.981$). An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the DA for male and female. There were significant differences ($t(265) = 2.025, p = 0.044$) in scores for male ($M = 3.446, SD = 0.779$) and for female ($M = 3.217, SD = 0.848$).

In summary, the study found no significant gender-based differences in EI and SA. However, there is a significant gender-based difference in case of DA, with males tending to engage in Deep Acting more than females. These findings indicate that gender may influence EL practices, particularly in DA. Further research can explore the reasons behind these gender differences and their implications in various settings.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to assess whether there are statistically significant differences in the levels of EI, SA and DA among full-time faculty members across various universities. This statistical test was employed to investigate potential variations in these critical attributes within the context of different universities.

The outcomes of the ANOVA analysis about EI indicate the examination of EI among full-time faculty across different universities. The faculty members were categorized into five groups: Tribhuvan University, Pokhara University, Purbanchal University, Kathmandu University, and Foreign Universities. The results of the ANOVA test suggest no significant differences in EI levels across these groups ($F_{4, 262} = 0.761, p > 0.05$). Notably, the data indicates that Foreign Universities exhibit the highest mean EI scores.

The findings from the ANOVA analysis regarding SA reveal variations in SA levels among full-time faculty members associated with different universities. These faculty members were categorized into five groups: Tribhuvan University, Pokhara University, Purbanchal University, Kathmandu University, and Foreign Universities. The ANOVA results indicate significant differences in SA levels across these groups ($F_{4, 262} = 2.577, p < 0.05$). Notably, the data highlights that full-time faculty at Tribhuvan University demonstrate the highest mean SA scores.

The results stemming from the ANOVA analysis concerning DA indicate variances in DA levels within the ranks of full-time faculty across diverse universities. These faculty members were categorized into five groups: Tribhuvan University, Pokhara University, Purbanchal University, Kathmandu University, and Foreign Universities. The ANOVA outcomes suggest no significant variations in DA levels among these groups ($F_{4, 262} = 1.439, p > 0.05$). It's noteworthy that the data presented in the table illustrates that full-time faculty members at Pokhara University (PU) exhibit the highest mean DA scores.

In summary, the research findings suggest differences in SA levels among faculty members from different universities, with Tribhuvan University full time faculty members exhibiting the highest SA. However, there are no significant differences in EI or DA across the university groups. These findings provide insights into how EL practices may vary academically, with implications for faculty

After using modification indices of the measurement model, there is no significant difference in the measurement and structural model such as CMIN/df are 1.618 to 1.629, RMSEA from 0.048 to 0.049, TLI from 0.903 to 0.902 and CFI from 0.914 to 0.912 (See Table 18). Since all fitness indicators are not significantly different from the measurement and structural model, the hypotheses were tested with the structural model.

Table 19

Result Hypotheses Testing

	Hypotheses	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P-values
JS	<--- EI	0.291	0.053	5.467	0.000
OC	<--- EI	0.215	0.058	3.738	0.000
JS	<--- SA	-0.101	0.060	-1.684	0.092
JS	<--- DA	1.185	0.303	3.906	0.000
OC	<--- DA	3.222	1.010	3.191	0.001
OC	<--- SA	-0.196	0.079	-2.477	0.013

Note. Based on author's Calculation; CR: Critical Ratio; OC: Organizational Commitment; EI: Emotional Intelligence; JS: Job Satisfaction; SA: Surface Acting; DA: Deep Acting; SE: Standard Deviation

As shown in Table 19, H1 tests whether EI significantly influences JS. The dependent variable JS was regressed on predicting variable EI to test hypothesis H1. EI significantly predicted JS, $p < 0.05$, which indicates that EI plays a significant role in shaping JS. The Critical Ratio (CR) (5.467) indicates that an increase in EI is associated with an increase in JS. Estimate (β) indicates the strength and direction of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. $\beta = 0.291$, meaning EI and JS have a moderate positive relationship.

H 2 tests whether EI has a significant influence on OC. The dependent variable OC was regressed on predicting variable EI to test hypothesis H2. EI significantly predicted OC, $p < 0.05$, which indicates that EI plays a significant role in shaping OC. A positive CR values (3.738) indicates a positive relationship, meaning

that an increase in EI is associated with an increase in OC. β indicates the strength and direction of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. $\beta = 0.326$, meaning EI and OC have a moderate positive relationship.

H3 tests whether SA has a significant influence on JS. The dependent variable JS was regressed on predicting variable SA to test hypothesis H3. SA did not significantly predict JS, $p > 0.05$, which indicates that the SA does not play a significant role in shaping JS. A negative Critical Ratio (-1.684) indicates a negative relationship, meaning that an increase in SA is associated with a decrease in the JS.

H4 tests whether DA has a significant influence on JS. The dependent variable JS was regressed on predicting variable DA to test hypothesis H4. DA significantly predicted JS, $p < 0.05$, which indicates that DA plays a significant role in shaping JS. A positive Critical Ratio (3.906) indicates a positive relationship, meaning that an increase in DA is associated with an increase in the JS. β indicates the strength and direction of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. $\beta = 1.185$, meaning DA and JS have a strong positive relationship.

H5 tests whether DA has a significant influence on OC. The dependent variable OC was regressed on predicting variable DA to test hypothesis H4. DA significantly predicted OC, $p < 0.05$, which indicates that DA plays a significant role in shaping OC. A positive Critical Ratio (3.222) indicates a positive relationship, meaning that an increase in DA is associated with an increase in OC. β indicates the strength and direction of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. $\beta = 3.222$, meaning DA and OC have a strong positive relationship.

H6 tests whether SA has a significant influence on OC. The dependent variable OC was regressed on predicting variable SA to test hypothesis H6. SA significantly predicted OC, $p < 0.05$, which indicates that SA plays a significant role

in shaping OC. A negative Critical Ratio (-2.477) (3.222) indicates a negative relationship, meaning that an increase in SA is associated with an increase in OC. $\beta = -0.196$, which means with one unit change in SA, then there is a 0.196 negative change in OC.

Assessment of Moderation Hypotheses

Moderating Hypothesis (7a)

In order to determine how perceived organizational support (POS) affected the link between emotional intelligence (EI) and job satisfaction (JS), a study was conducted. The outcome did not support H7a since it showed no moderating effect of POS on the association between EI and JS ($\beta = 0.0014$, $t = 0.059$, $p = 0.953$). Table 19 provides a summary of the moderation analysis.

Table 20

Result of Moderated Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis	B	R ²	t-Value	P-value	HS
Constant	1.140		1.997	0.047	Yes
EI	0.057	0.464	0.495	0.621	Yes
POS	0.408		3.160	0.002	No
Interaction (EI*POS)	0.001	0.000	0.059	0.953	No

Note. EI= Emotional intelligence; POS= Perceived organizational Support, HS= Hypotheses supported

Moderating Hypothesis 7b

The study examined how perceived organizational support (POS) affected the link between organizational commitment (OC) and emotional intelligence (EI). The outcome did not support H7b since there was no discernible moderating effect of POS on the link between EI and OC ($\beta = 0.037$, $t = 1.204$, $p = 0.229$). The moderation analysis summary is presented in Table 20.

Table 21
Result of Moderated Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis	B	R ²	t-value	P-value	HS
Constant	2.114		2.905	0.040	Yes
EI	-0.152	0.317	-1.035	0.302	No
POS	0.219		1.331	0.184	No
Interaction (EI*POS)	0.037	0.004	1.204	0.229	No

Note. EI= Emotional Intelligence; POS= Perceived organizational Support, HS= Hypotheses supported

Moderating Hypothesis 8a

The study assessed the moderating role of Perceived Organization Support (POS) on the relationship between Surface Acting (SA) and Job Satisfaction (JS). The results revealed no significant moderating impact of POS on the relationship between SA and JS ($\beta = -0.0288$, $t = 0.784$, $p = 0.309$), not supporting H8a. The moderation analysis summary is presented in Table 21.

Table 22
Result of Moderated Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis	B	R ²	t-Value	P-value	HS
Constant	0.9052		1.918	0.056	No
SA	0.1344	0.4623	0.887	0.376	No
POS	0.5277		6.037	0.000	Yes
Interaction (SA*POS)	-0.0288	0.0021	-1.018	0.309	No

Note. SA=Surface acting; POS= Perceived organizational Support, HS= Hypotheses supported

Moderating Hypothesis 8b

The study evaluated how Perceived Organization Support (POS) affected the link between Organization Commitment (OC) and Surface Acting (SA). The findings did not support H8b since there was no discernible moderating effect of POS on the link between SA and OC ($\beta = -0.0362$, $t = -1.007$, $p = 0.3145$). Table 22 summarizes the moderation analysis.

Table 23

Result of Moderated Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis	B	R ²	t-Value	P-value	HS
Constant	0.979		1.634	0.104	No
SA	0.127	0.3213	0.658	0.511	No
POS	0.516		4.648	0.000	Yes
Interaction (SA*POS)	- 0.036	0.003	-1.007	0.314	No

Moderating Hypothesis 9a

The study assessed the moderating role of Perceived Organization Support (POS) on the relationship between Deep Acting (DA) and Job Satisfaction (JS). The results revealed no significant moderating impact of POS on the relationship between DA and JS ($\beta = -0.012$, $t = -0.362$, $p = 0.718$), not supporting H9a. The moderation analysis summary is presented in Table 23.

Table 24

Result of Moderated Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis	B	R ²	t-Value	P-value	HS
Constant	0.964		1.767	0.078	Yes
DA	0.121	0.465	0.704	0.482	No
POS	0.469		4.469	0.000	Yes
Interaction (DA*POS)	-0.012	0.003	-0.362	0.718	No

Note. SA=Surface Acting; POS= Perceived Organizational Support, HS= Hypotheses supported

Moderating Hypothesis 9b

The study evaluated how Perceived Organization Support (POS) affected the link between Organization Commitment (OC) and Deep Acting (DA). The findings did not support H9b since there was no moderating effect of POS on the link between DA and OC ($\beta = -0.005$, $t = -0.128$, $p = 0.897$). Table 24 displays the summary of the moderation analysis.

Table 25

Result of Moderated Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis	B	R ²	t-Value	P-value	HS
Constant	0.981		1.417	0.158	No
DA	0.140	0.325	0.642	0.522	No
POS	0.409		3.071	0.002	Yes
Interaction (DA*POS)	-0.005	0.325	-0.128	0.897	No

Note. SA=Surface acting; POS= Perceived organizational support, HS= Hypotheses supported.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter presents the summary of findings and a comprehensive discussion of research outcomes. The objective of the study was to examine the moderating role of POS on the relationships between EI, EL, and JS, OC among the full-time faculty members of management colleges. The result of this study is compared with relevant findings from other studies and are discussed, supported by evidence. Additionally, the implications of the results are explored and justified within the academic community. Finally, the critique of this study is presented, highlighting its limitations.

Summary of Findings

The objective of the study is to find the direct effect of EI on JA (JS and OC), EL (SA and DA) on JA (JS and OC) and how POS modifies the associations between EI and JA (JS and OC) and EL (SA and DA) and JA (JS and OC) in the context of full-time faculty members of management colleges in Kathmandu Valley. This chapter discusses the results in reference to evidence and existing theories. It follows with a conclusion, implications, and critiques for future research.

The nine hypotheses were tested using SEM. First, the study found a significant influence of EI on JS and OC based on a direct assessment of the hypothesis. As EI increased, the JS of full-time management faculty members increased as well. The second finding was that EI had a significant influence on OC. The result showed an increase in EI would increase the OC of the full-time management faculty members. Third, SA had no significant impact on JS. As a fourth finding, DA also influences JS. According to the results, an increase in DA would

increase JS among full-time management faculty members. Fifth, DA also has a significant impact on OC. As DA increases, OC increases as well. In the sixth case, SA also significantly influenced OC. The result portrays that an increase in SA decreases OC. Thus, based on these findings, it can be concluded that EI and DA positively impact both JS and OC, while SA only impacts OC negatively. These results provide insight into the relationships between these variables and the job-related outcomes of full-time management faculty members.

The moderating hypotheses 7a, 7b, 8a, 8b, 9a and 9b were tested using Process Macro. The moderating hypotheses 7a, 7b, 8a, 8b, 9a, and 9b, which examined the moderating effect of POS on the relationships between EI, SA, DA, JS and OC, were not supported. Despite the anticipation that POS would moderate the relationships between the variables, the data did not support these hypotheses. These findings indicate that POS did not significantly impact the relationships between EI and JS, EI and OC, SA and JS, SA and OC, DA and JS, and DA and OC. Based on these findings, it can be inferred that POS does not significantly moderate the relationships between EI, SA, DA, JS, and OC among the full-time faculty members of management colleges.

Discussion

The objective of the research is to examine the moderating effect of POS on the relationship between EI and JA (JS and OC); and between EL (SA and DA) and JA (JS and OC) among the full-time faculty members of management colleges of Kathmandu Valley. The findings of the study demonstrated the importance of EI and EL in enhancing JS and OC. Both EI and EL have a significant impact on JS and OC. However, SA does not have a significant impact on JS. On the other hand, there is a positive relationship between DA and JS and OC. This suggests that a higher EI level

and effective emotional labour management positively contribute to employees' JS and OC. To achieve the stated objective, the researcher discussed several objectives.

The first objective was to investigate how faculty members' EI affects their JS and OC. This study confirmed that EI directly affects JS and OC, as reported in previous studies. Many studies have confirmed the findings of this study (e.g., Cobb, 2014; Locke, 1976; Psilopanagioti et al., 2012; Mousavi, 2012; Shooshtarian et al., 2013; Yin et al., 2013). Similarly, to the study done for call centre employees, bankers, senior managers, football coaches, physicians, and nurses, where EI positively impacts JS, this study confirmed the same for full-time faculties in management colleges. It implies that emotionally intelligent faculty members are more satisfied with their job. Faculty members with high EI are likely to have better communication skills, empathy, stress management, understanding of their students and conflict management abilities. All these characteristics can lead to positive outcomes in their teaching efforts and can enhance job satisfaction. Thus, faculty members with high EI are more likely to effectively manage their emotions and navigate emotional situations with students, colleagues, and administrators. This ability to handle affective events positively and constructively can contribute to higher JS, aligning with the core principles of AET. Thus, the result aligns with the findings that JS increases as EI increases (Thompson & Phua, 2012), as stated in the AET theory.

The second objective was to investigate how faculty members' EI affects their OC. Regarding the influence of EI on OC, the study findings are also consistent with previous research (e.g., Aghdasi et al., 2011; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Nikolaou & Tsaousis, 2002; Rathi & Rastogi, 2009). This study contributes to the existing literature by confirming the positive impact of EI on OC among full-time faculty

members in management colleges. The emotionally intelligent individuals in these different professions exhibit a higher level of OC in their work and organizations, as Gio et al. (2020) reported, for example, Dhungana and Kautish (2020) for Nepalese bankers, Carmeli (2003) for senior managers, and Guleryuz et al. (2007) for nurses. Thus, the study findings support the direct effects of EI on JS and OC among full-time faculty members, aligning with the previous research conducted in various contexts and professions. The implication is emotionally intelligent faculty members are more committed to their management college due to their ability to establish strong relationships, engage in positive interactions, demonstrate adaptability, and align with the college values. AET also suggests that employees' emotional experiences in the workplace influence their job attitudes, including OC. In addition, EI enables individuals to manage emotions, cope with demands, and contributes to a higher level of OC. This finding aligns with the JD theory too. Thus, EI enhances faculty members' overall JS and deepens their OC for management colleges.

The third objective was to examine the influence of emotional labour (EL) on job satisfaction (JS) and organizational commitment (OC) among full-time faculty members. According to this study, SA did not directly affect the JS of the full-time faculty members. This means that the act of displaying emotions on the surface, without genuinely feeling them, did not significantly impact the job satisfaction of the faculty members. The study findings are inconsistent with some previous research. Bhave and Glomb (2013) reported a negative correlation between surface acting and job attitudes, suggesting that surface acting may harm overall JS. However, the relationship between EL and JS has shown inconsistent results in different studies (Dormann & Zapf, 2001). The relationship between surface acting and job satisfaction seems to vary across different professions. For example, the study on nurses found no

significant relationship between surface acting and job satisfaction, while deep acting (DA) showed a positive relationship with job satisfaction (Yang & Chang, 2008). In the case of hotel employees, EL and JS are positively associated (Nuriplik, 2014).

On the other hand, among physicians, a negative correlation was found between SA and JS (Psilopanagioti et al., 2012), and among university employees, EL and JS had a negative relationship (Pugliesi, 1999). Most studies on EL have shown that SA has a negative relationship with JS (Bhave & Glomb, 2013). However, this study fails to show that SA has a significant relationship with JS for full-time management faculty members. It implies that those faculty members who do SA conceal their true emotions without it significantly affecting their overall JS.

The study findings, which DA positively influences JS, align with previous findings of Bono and Vey (2005); Grandey (2003); Mahoney et al. (2011); Yang and Chang (2007), and Zhang and Zhu (2008) have reported positive influence of DA on JS. This consistency across studies suggests that engaging in genuine emotional experiences and expressing emotions can lead to a more positive perception of one's job and overall job satisfaction. The implication is that full-time faculty members who engage in DA rather than SA or suppress their true emotions may experience higher levels of JS. AET posits that employees' emotional experiences in the workplace influence their JS. In the context of DA, the significant relationship suggests that when employees genuinely experience and express emotions that align with their job requirements, they are more likely to experience positive emotional events. Accordingly, the JD-R Model indicates that when employees engage in DA, which requires effort and emotional regulation, they are better equipped to cope with emotional demands. Employees may experience a sense of control and mastery by aligning their internal emotions with job requirements, contributing to higher JS.

According to the study, DA influenced OC positively, confirming the findings of previous studies such as Bogdan et al. (2010) and Yang and Chang (2008). This suggests that when faculty members do DA, it positively impacts their OC. It is interesting to note that the findings of this study were inconsistent with some previous studies conducted by Mahoney et al. (2011), which claimed that DA does not influence OC. These discrepancies highlight the complexity of EL and its effects on OC, emphasizing the importance of considering contextual. Aligning with JD-R theory, DA enables employees to effectively manage emotional demands and regulate their emotions, which may reduce the potential negative impact of EL on their well-being and foster a positive work environment. As a result, employees may develop higher levels of OC, driven by their positive emotional experiences and the resources they possess to handle emotional demands effectively.

SA had a negative influence on OC, aligning with the results of other studies (Lartey et al., 2018; Wang & Chang, 2007; Yang & Chang, 2008). This implies that when faculty members engage in SA without truly feeling them, it can negatively affect their level of OC. The negative relationship between SA and OC implies that surface acting as a form of EL can have detrimental effects on employees' emotional well-being and commitment to the organization. The SA requires employees to suppress their authentic emotions and present a false emotional display, which can create emotional dissonance and lead to negative emotional experiences. These negative emotional events can diminish employees' sense of connection and loyalty to the organization, resulting in lower levels of OC, as stated by AET theory.

These findings provide several insights into the relationship between EI, EL, JS, and OC among full-time faculty members. Firstly, the study confirms the expected positive relationship between EI and JS, supporting the research conducted by Cobb

(2004) and Gardner (2005) in the teaching profession. Overall, the study findings emphasize the importance of EI in the workplace, particularly for full-time faculty members. Understanding and managing emotions effectively can contribute to higher JS and OC. The results of the present study suggest that SA is not a significant predictor of JS among full-time faculty members. The study findings align with many previous studies by indicating that DA has a positive and significant influence on JS and OC. Engaging in deep acting involves genuinely experiencing and expressing emotions, adapting to unique workplace situations, and modifying emotions to align with client expectations (Grandey, 2003). It is noteworthy that while there has been substantial research on EI, EL, and JA in various professions, there seems to be a research gap when it comes to investigating the impact of EI and EL on JS and OC, especially among full-time faculty members in management colleges. This study tried to fill the gap by shedding light on the relationship between EI and EL on JA and OC of full-time faculty. The findings contribute to understanding the emotional dynamics and experiences within the management colleges, particularly among full-time faculty members. They highlight the importance of EI and the effective management of emotions in fostering JS and OC. It is worth noting that these conclusions are specific to the study sample of full-time faculty members, and further research may be necessary to validate these findings in other contexts and professions.

The study examined the potential moderating effect of Perceived Organizational Support (POS) on the relationship between EI and JA, as well as EL and JA. However, the study results did not support the moderating hypothesis. Contrary to the study prediction, POS did not moderate the relationships between EI and JS, EI and OC, SA and JS, SA and OC, DA and JS, and DA and OC. Therefore,

the study rejects Hypothesis 7a, 7b, 8a, 8b, 9a, and 9b, which proposed that POS would moderate these relationships.

In explaining the unexpected outcome, several factors warrant consideration. One potential factor pertains to measuring POS. The utilized scale's modification, involving the removal of reverse-coded items and an additional item, could have compromised the scale's accuracy in capturing the intended construct. This alteration impacted the scale's validity, potentially influencing the observed non-moderating role of POS. The items of the scale were developed for capturing POS in the Western context which may not be applicable to capture in Nepali context.

Furthermore, the distinctive characteristics of the academic sector, particularly in Nepalese management colleges, could contribute to this unique result. The Nepalese academic context may mitigate the influence of POS due to the nuanced nature of teaching professions and the distinctive factors driving job attitudes. The faculty members in academia may prioritize intrinsic factors over extrinsic factors such as POS, while examining the relationship between emotional construct and JA. Chapagain (2021), and Ssesanga and Gerrett (2015), also attributed the relationship to the intrinsic factors and rewards of teaching. Thus, the faculty members put more value to the intrinsic factors such as intellectual growth, autonomy and control over their work (research topic, teaching method and schedule), joy of discovery, the satisfaction of mentoring students, teaching itself etc.

The study results suggest that faculty members with EI who engage in DA can predict their JS and OC without POS having a significant moderating effect. Chapagain (2021) and Ssesanga and Garrett (2015) attributed this finding to the intrinsic factors and rewards of teaching.

A specific analysis of POS dynamics within the Nepali academic industry, particularly in management colleges, is crucial, as socioeconomic contexts and institutional factors vary (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Faculty members' job attitudes are relatively uninfluenced by POS, which is aligned with the understanding that their satisfaction is primarily determined by intrinsic factors such as teaching practices, student interactions, course structure, and the recognition and respect they receive from students.

According to the study, EI predicts JS, OC, and emotional management enhances JS and OC regardless of the moderating role of POS. This indicates that faculty members with EI can find fulfilment and happiness in their jobs even without solid organizational support. Their commitment and job satisfaction are significantly influenced by their intrinsic motivation and passion for teaching. Chapagain (2021) suggests that intrinsic factors contribute to job satisfaction among Nepalese academicians. This is consistent with the idea that the teaching profession, particularly in the academic industry, is motivated by a sense of purpose and fulfilment derived from contributing positively to society. The intrinsic aspects of teaching are strong predictors of teacher satisfaction (Ssesanga & Garrett, 2015). Intrinsic motivators must be considered when studying JS and OC in management colleges in Nepal. Researchers will be able to gain a deeper understanding of JS, OC, and POS within the academic context by further exploring these factors.

Implications of the Study

The study provides valuable insights for researchers and managers to understand EI, EL, JS, and OC and that contributes to the existing body of knowledge by providing insights specific to the given population and context. Since this is the

first study of its kind for this population, it has both theoretical and practical implications.

Theoretical Implications

The study adds to the theoretical understanding of the relationships between EI, EL, JS, OC, and POS in the academic sector. By examining these variables within the Nepali context, the research expands the literature and provides insights into the factors influencing faculty members' job satisfaction and commitment.

The study contributes to our understanding of how EI and EL influence the job attitudes of full-time faculty members. Specifically, it highlights the positive relationship between EI, JS, and OC. These findings suggest that faculty members with higher levels of EI experience greater JS and OC in their job roles. Additionally, the study reveals that DA is positively related to JS and OC, while SA is negatively related to OC. These results emphasize the importance of genuine emotional experiences and expressions in fostering JS and OC among faculty members. The data also suggest that gender affects EL practices, especially in DA, highlighting the need for further investigation into the reasons behind this gender difference. The study reveals variations in SA levels among faculty members across different universities, with full-time faculty at Tribhuvan University displaying the highest SA. However, no notable differences exist in EI or DA across university groups. These findings offer insights into the academic landscape, suggesting potential differences in EL practices. Further research could investigate the underlying factors driving these SA differences.

The study enriches our comprehension of the impact of EI and EL on the JA (JS and OC) of full-time faculty members. Notably, it underscores the favourable connection between higher EI levels, increased JS, and OC. This suggests that faculty members with stronger EI tend to enhance JS and OC in their roles. Furthermore, the

investigation highlights the affirmative association of deep acting (DA) with JS and OC while indicating a negative correlation between SA and OC. These outcomes underscore the significance of genuine emotional engagement in fostering positive job attitudes, emphasizing the importance of authentic emotional experiences in cultivating JS and OC among faculty members.

Additionally, the study outcomes in the Nepalese setting validate prior research from Western contexts. This affirms the cross-cultural consistency in the connection between emotional elements (like EI and EL) and job attitudes (JS and OC), underlining the universal nature of these associations. This cross-cultural confirmation extends the relevance of prior findings to Nepal and bolsters our grasp of these constructs.

In the service sector, EI and EL have been identified as influential factors for organizational outcomes like JS (Psiloanagioti et al., 2012). While previous studies have investigated these variables in roles like flight attendants, bank tellers, and hotel employees, college professors remain an underexplored group (Mahoney et al., 2011). This study bridges this gap by affirming similar relationships among full-time faculty members in management colleges. It indicates that EI and EL wield substantial influence over job attitudes across diverse professions within the service sector.

In summary, this study advances the theoretical understanding of how EI and EL influence JS and OC in full-time faculty at management colleges. The results validate cross-cultural trends, shedding light on the importance of these factors in the service sector, notably academia. The study reveals that perceived organizational support (POS) did not significantly moderate the relationships between EI and job attitudes (JA) and between EL and JA in full-time faculty of management colleges. This contrasts with prior research in Western contexts across diverse service roles.

As seen in this study, the non-moderating role of POS in the EI-JA and EL-JA links is consistent with the perspective supported by Riggle et al. (2009) meta-analysis. The analysis indicated that while POS greatly influences job attitudes, its primary moderating impact lies in enhancing employee performance rather than affecting job attitudes. Notably, the study confirmed the reliability of scales for the independent and dependent variables, yet the POS scale yielded non-significant outcomes. This may stem from the distinctive nature of the teaching domain and the specific context of full-time faculty in management colleges. The predominant factors shaping teachers' job attitudes often revolve around intrinsic teaching elements, as highlighted in Ssesanga and Garrett (2015) research. Faculty members' job attitudes may be significantly shaped by factors internal to their role and positive impact on students, possibly outweighing external factors like POS.

Managerial Implication

Leaders and managers in management colleges will find the study practical implications helpful in developing strategies to enhance full-time faculty members' job satisfaction (JS) and organizational commitment (OC). Specifically, the research underscores the emotional nature of teaching, aligning with Yin et al. (2013) perspective on teaching as an emotional job. By acknowledging teaching emotional dimensions, leaders can create a supportive environment that caters to faculty members' emotional well-being.

Work hours, compensation, development, leadership, the environment, job role, and infrastructure all shape job attitudes. Beyond these, leaders should integrate EI and EL as key aspects, as Heimerl (2020) advises. By including these factors in broader strategies, JS and OC among faculty can improve. Tailored support, feedback, and mentorship aid faculty in thriving and fostering JS and OC.

Also, management college leaders and managers should prioritize hiring decisions with EI. By emphasizing EI during recruitment, leaders can identify candidates with the emotional competencies essential for excelling as educators, consultants, and researchers. Jaworska et al. (2014) noted that teaching involves intricate dimensions, and attitudes significantly impact educational success. Prioritizing candidates with robust EI ensures faculty possess the right attributes and capabilities for their roles. Furthermore, educators' attitudes are pivotal (Adval, 1979). By reinforcing the value of EI and effective EL management, leaders can enhance faculty JA. This can involve offering training, resources, and guidance to bolster emotional intelligence and help faculty navigate the emotional aspects of their responsibilities. Interventions can include training programs that focus on developing emotional intelligence, increasing emotional awareness, coping with the emotional demands of their roles, and providing strategies for effective emotional labour management. By providing faculty members with the necessary tools and skills, they will be better equipped to handle the emotional challenges they encounter in their teaching, consulting, and research roles.

Faculty members should grasp the significance of genuine emotional engagement through DA rather than SA. Leaders can highlight the benefits of DA and offer strategies and support for effective implementation. This entails fostering empathy, providing emotional well-being resources, and promoting open dialogue about emotional hurdles. Through ongoing learning opportunities, management colleges can cultivate an environment of EI and adept EL management among faculty. This, in turn, enhances JS, OC, and overall well-being. Teaching demands substantial emotional labour, involving interactions with diverse stakeholders like students, parents, corporate representatives, and the community

(Truata, 2013). Considering the significance of EI and skilful EL management here, integrating an EI and EL session into the orientation program for new faculty members holds logic and value. Organizations should also consider gender-specific EL strategies, particularly for DA, to better manage EL among their employees.

Due to the fact that teaching is considered an emotionally demanding occupation and requires intensive interpersonal interaction (Yin & Lee, 2012), incorporating EI and EL into the orientation program showcases the organizational dedication to bolstering faculty members emotional well-being and career development. This initiative lays crucial groundwork for new faculty, arming them with essential tools to navigate emotional hurdles inherent to their teaching roles. Nepalese college leaders should explore the reasons behind the absence of POS, moderating the connections between EI and JA and between EL and JA. This inquiry offers valuable insights into the unique factors and dynamics within the Nepalese context.

The realm of EI and EL is relatively nascent in Nepal, underscoring the continued research and exploration requirement. College leaders and managers have a pivotal role in cultivating a culture that prioritizes emotional well-being and aids faculty in handling their roles' emotional demands. The study's theoretical and practical implications enrich our understanding of EI, EL, JS, OC, and POS concerning full-time faculty in Nepalese management colleges. It also sparks prospects for future research in Nepal, urging deeper exploration of EI and EL's influence on faculty job attitudes. This could involve probing potential moderating factors and examining the implications of these variables on other organizational outcomes.

Critique of the Study

The findings of this study have significant implications and contribute to the literature by shedding light on the role of EI and EL strategies in increasing JS and OC of full-time faculty members in management colleges in Nepal. A significant aspect of the study is that it is the first of its kind in Nepalese management colleges, emphasizing the importance of considering faculty members' emotions when evaluating their job attitudes. While the study results support the positive relationship between emotional constructs and job attitudes among full-time faculty members, it is important to acknowledge the study limitations.

One such limitation is the focus on the relationship between emotional constructs and specific job attitude variables (JS and OC) without exploring other attitudinal and behavioural factors such as job stress, job involvement, job engagement, organizational citizenship behaviour, absenteeism, turnover, and deviant workplace behaviour. Future research could examine the broader impact of EI and EL on these additional factors to provide a more comprehensive understanding of their influence on faculty members' experiences.

This study findings contradict previous research on the moderating effect of POS. POS may not moderate the relationship between emotional constructs and job attitudes among full-time faculty members, as the intrinsic rewards and satisfaction derived from teaching may be more influential than external support. The work of Pink (2009) highlighting the importance of autonomy, mastery, and purpose aligns with the satisfaction experienced by faculty members who find joy in seeing students learn and possess a strong desire for continual learning. The sense of pride, dignity, respect, and control over their classrooms and time are crucial aspects that contribute to the JS of faculty members (Covey, 2008; Friedman, 2014). The insights provided

by the study contribute to understanding the unique dynamics within the teaching profession and emphasize the significance of intrinsic factors and individual fulfilment in shaping faculty members' JA. When designing strategies and interventions to enhance faculty members' JS and OC, it is essential to consider their specific needs and values.

Other limitations include using convenient sampling techniques, a small sample size, potential selection bias, and self-report bias among the participants. These factors can restrict the validity and generalizability of the study results. The use of convenient sampling may limit the samples representativeness and affect the findings' generalizability to a larger population. Furthermore, the study small sample size may limit its statistical power and ability to detect more nuanced relationships between variables. The study only focused on full-time faculty in management colleges, excluding other disciplines. This limited perspective restricts understanding of the academic industrial emotional constructs and job attitudes. A diverse sample including various disciplines could provide broader insights.

While the study quantitative methods offer valuable insights, employing a mixed-methods approach—combining qualitative and quantitative data could have deepened the understanding of faculty experiences. Given these limitations, it is vital to interpret findings cautiously and acknowledge the call for more research. This research should address limitations, encompass a diverse sample, and consider a longitudinal design.

To conclude, this study advances scholarly literature by investigating how EI and EL impact the job attitudes of full-time faculty in Nepalese management colleges. It is one of the first studies to address this aspect, specifically in Nepalese management colleges. The study exploration of POS moderation offers additional

insights. Contradictory POS moderation outcomes pave the way for researching socioeconomic and cultural influences on POS perceptions, as suggested by Eisner et al. (1986) and Baren et al. (2012). Furthermore, the findings prompt further investigation into how POS shapes faculty attitudes and behaviours. This study lays the groundwork for future research to delve into faculty perceptions of POS in Nepal, together with EI and EL's impact on these perceptions, importance of intrinsic factors on the relationships and their variations across industries. Understanding these dynamics can provide meaningful insights for academic institutions to create supportive environments, enhancing faculty job attitudes.

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APPENDIX I

Questionnaire

I am conducting this research entitled *Emotional Intelligence, Emotional Labour and Job Attitude: Moderating Role of Perceived Organizational Support* as the partial fulfillment of my MPhil Degree at KUSOM. The objective of this research is to examine the relationship among emotional intelligence, emotional labour and job attitude among the faculty of business colleges and how the relationship is moderated by the POS of the organization. Please follow the instruction before filling up the questionnaire and this research is purely for academic purposes. Confidentiality will be maintained for the response obtained. Your responses are essential for the completion of this study. It will take around 15 minutes to fill in the questionnaire. Your participation is greatly appreciated. Thank you.

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Part-I Main Questionnaire

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the statements given below by checking one of the appropriate boxes at the right side of each statement. (1=Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3 =Neither Agree or Disagree, 4= Agree, 5=Strongly Agree)

S.N.	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
1	I resist expressing my true feelings.					
2	I pretend to have emotions that I don't really have.					
3	I hide my true feeling about a situation.					
4	I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display to others.					
5	I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show.					
6	I really try to feel the emotions that I have to show as part of my job.					
7	My organization strongly considers my goals and values.					
8	Help is available from my organization when I have a problem.					
9	My organization really cares about my well-being.					
10	My organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part.					
11	My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favour.					
12	If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me.					
13	My organization shows very little concern for me.					
14	My organization cares about my opinions.					

Part-II Main Questionnaire

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the statements given below by checking one of the appropriate boxes at the right side of each statement.

(1= Completely Unsatisfied, 2= Unsatisfied, 3= Neither Satisfied nor unsatisfied, 4= Satisfied, 5 =Completely Satisfied)

S.N.	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
1	All in all, how satisfied are you with the persons in your work groups?					
2	All in all, how satisfied are you with your supervisor?					
3	All in all, how satisfied are you with your job?					
4	All in all, how satisfied are you with this organization?					
5	Considering your skills and the effort you put into your work, how satisfied are you with your pay?					
6	How satisfied do you feel with the progress you have made in this organization up to now?					
7	How satisfied do you feel with your chance of getting ahead in this organization in the future?					

Part-III Main Questionnaires

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the statements given below by checking one of the appropriate boxes at the right side of each statement.

(1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3= Somewhat disagree, 4=Neither agree nor disagree 5= Somewhat agree, 6=Agree, 7=Strongly agree)

S.N.	Statement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.							
2	I have a good understanding of my own emotions.							
3	I really understand what I feel.							
4	I always know when I am happy.							
5	I always know my friends' emotions from their behaviour.							
6	I am a good observer of others' emotions.							
7	I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.							
8	I have a good understanding of the emotions of the people around me.							
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.							
13	I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.							
14	I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.							

S.N.	Statement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.							
16	I have good control over my emotion.							
17	I am quite proud to tell people who it is that I work for.							
18	What this organization stands for is important to me.							
19	I work for an organization that is incompetent and unable to accomplish its mission.							
20	I feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization.							
21	I feel like part of the family at his organization.							
22	The people I work for do not care about what happens to me.							
23	This organization appreciates my accomplishments on the job.							
24	This organization does all that it can recognize employees for good performance.							
25	My efforts on the job are largely ignored or overlooked by this organization.							

Part-IV Demographic Questionnaire

Name (Optional)
<i>Please make a circle in front of your choice.</i>
1. Which University is your college affiliated to? a. Tribhuvan University b. Kathmandu University c. Pokhara University d. Purbanchal University e. Foreign University
2. What is your age? a. Below 30 years b. 30-40 years c. 41-50 years d. Above 50 years
3. What is your gender? a. Male b. Female b. Others
4. What is your educational qualification? a. Bachelors b. Masters c. MPhil or above
5. How long have you been in the educational sector? a. Less than 5 year b. 5-10 year c. 10-15 years d. More than 15 years