

THE IMPACT OF GENDER AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE
ON CAREER COMMITMENT AMONG SENIOR UNDERGRADUATE
HOTEL MANAGEMENT MAJORS IN TAIWAN

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Education in the Graduate School
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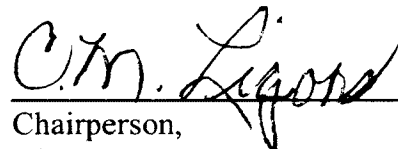
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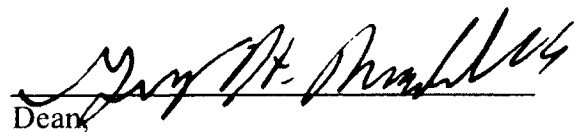
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Extra Abstract and Vita

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Professor Claudette Merrell Ligons, Advisor

Taiwan joins other developed nations in the global village, as a major player in the tourism industry. In response to the needs of the Taiwan tourism industry, colleges and universities have developed hotel management programs to provide the professional workers. Graduates of these hotel programs are expected to make career commitments to the industry. Thus, the preparation of these graduates and their persistence in the industry are important to the preparation institutions and the industry. In addition, competence is essential for work success. It is also important for workers to have job satisfaction and to experience work success. Since demonstrating competence in Emotional Intelligence (EI) has been recognized as one of the most basic work requirements, EI needs to be cultivated, especially for the work that results in stress. Meanwhile, in spite of every effort made by the government, gendered roles are evident in Taiwan. Thus, whether or not the female-dominated hotel career preparation program has truly prepared its graduates to take up challenges from stressful hotel work becomes a main concern of this study.

In this study, a survey of the entire population of fourth-year hotel management students

in Taiwan was conducted to understand the impact of such contexts as gender and EI on their career commitment. The hotel graduates consisted of 38 males and 148 females from three institutions. Results indicated a 58.14% willingness to enter the hotel industry upon graduation and a 64.24% score of EI. In addition, male students showed a significantly higher willingness to make a hotel career commitment upon graduation than their counterparts. Finally, it was discovered that the students who scored the highest on EI scored the highest on hotel career commitment.

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VITA

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my father, who passed away during my study. To my mother, my wife, and my only child: Thank you for always being there and always believing in me. Your support and sharing in the good times and bad times in my life has given me the courage to succeed in the face of triumph and adversity. Though an incredibly long journey, I have finally made you proud of me.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Taiwan joins other developed nations in the global village, as a major player in the tourism industry (Tourism Bureau, 2011). With fundamental developments in transportation and communication, the demand for accommodations as part of the international travel experience has increased dramatically for both business and leisure travelers. To meet the increased demand, the hotel industry all over the world continues to expand efforts. In the mean time, in response to the needs of the Taiwan tourism industry, colleges and universities have developed hotel management programs to provide the professional workers who are needed in the industry. More importantly, in an effort to assure a steady workforce and cultivate quality human capital for the entire hospitality industry, a hospitality-oriented university was established by the Taiwanese government (Ministry of Education, 2008). Accordingly, such matters as the preparation of graduates and their persistence in the industry become priorities to the preparation institutions and the industry that hires these program graduates.

Background of the Study

The hotel business in Taiwan is growing more rapidly than ever because of the government's focused and persistent efforts (Tourism Bureau, 2011). These efforts have resulted in the increasing demand for accommodations even among local travelers (Tourism Bureau, 2011). Business and pleasure tourists from foreign countries alone totaled nearly six million in 2010, reflecting growth of 26.67% in foreign tourists since 2009; a quarter of these were from mainland China due to Taiwan's policies on bridging the political gap between these two countries. The average stay for foreign tourists in

2009 was just over seven days (Tourism Bureau, 2011). As a result of the huge demand for accommodations, both the international hotel chains and the local hoteliers have invested large sums of money to open new hotels. Of these recent well-known hotel projects, the W, the La Meridian, and the Oriental Mandarin are worth noting (Tourism Bureau, 2011).

Graduates of hotel programs are expected to make career commitments to the industry. Graduates' persistence in the industry is especially important to industry recruiters. Being able to employ these well prepared and well trained graduates fresh from these colleges and universities assures quality service to industry customers.

Since a part of career success results from affective commitment toward that career (Poon, 2004), when taking workers' need for career success into consideration, it is inevitable that these graduates should first assume hotel jobs and willingly stay in the jobs in order to achieve success in their careers (Wang, 2005). Thus, how to create a win-win-win situation that will benefit the hotel educators, the hoteliers, and the hotel graduates themselves is now a major concern in Taiwan. Above all, the employee mobility in the hotel industry is so high worldwide that the industry has been characterized as having a "turnover culture" (Birdir, 2002; Lam, Lo, & Chan, 2002). In Taiwan, statistics have shown that in 2004 alone the employee turnover rate of the hotel industry ranked the second highest among the service-inclusive industry across the nation (Executive Yuan, 2008).

This "turnover culture" makes it imperative to investigate the degree of commitment toward a hotel job among graduating hotel majors in Taiwan. It is worth noting that the universal nature of most hotel jobs may deter Taiwan's women from either entering or

staying in the field when encountering work-family conflict (Foundation of Women's Rights Promotion and Development, 2004). The unfavorable conditions include long working hours, requirements for physical strength, heavy workloads, shift work schedules, low pay, and inequitable access to promotions based on gender (Magnini, 2009). In the event that the business functions in an oriental setting, where the influence of Confucianism is pervasive, then fewer women with higher education backgrounds would be found in upper management roles when compared with their male counterparts (Lee, K.J., Um, C. C., & Kim, S., 2004; Lo, S., Stone, R., & Ng, C. W., 2003; Ng, C. W., Fosh, P., & Naylor, D., 2002). In Taiwan, a common perception is that women would be homemakers rather than career professionals (Foundation of Women's Rights Promotion and Development, 2004).

Based on the aforementioned facts, it is important to understand the distribution of men and women who graduate as hotel majors. Also, there is a need to explore whether there is a difference in a sustained career commitment toward the hotel industry, based on gender. It is worth investigating whether or not these hotel graduates are truly prepared for the jobs that they are expected to assume.

Like other countries around the globe, Taiwan's vocational students are meant to move right into the workplace upon graduation (Technical & Vocational Education Commission, 2008). Being able to apply to their work what they have learned in the classroom is considered the first step toward work success. Competence is essential for work success. The curriculum must be linked to the cultivation of competence. This is then imperative to first insure what kind of work competence employees need most (National Youth Committee, 2008). Among a variety of job skills hotel employees need,

cultivating and demonstrating competence in emotional management is the most basic work requirement (104 Job Bank, 2008). In addition to many other forms of people contact, many hotel job duties require direct guest contact. Often, this contact creates work stress (Hu, 2004). As a result, job dissatisfaction and frustration toward the work might develop (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

In the event that job dissatisfaction occurs, affective commitment to the job may not develop (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Without an adequate display of emotional intelligence, the job dissatisfaction may not be overcome (Goleman, 1998). It is important for workers to have job satisfaction and to experience work success. Emotional intelligence then needs to be cultivated, especially for the work that results in stress.

All in all, in spite of the importance of EI to work success, previous studies found Taiwan's vocational college students insufficient in EI (Cheng, 2003; Wu, 2000). Thus, whether or not the female-dominated hotel career preparation program has truly prepared its graduates to take up challenges from stressful hotel work becomes a main concern of this study.

Theoretical Framework

In recent years, interest has grown in the significance of individual differences in career decisions (Gati et al., 2010; Savickas, 2004). Also, there is increased awareness that career decision-making is complex and multidimensional. Additionally, individual characteristics have to be taken into account in order to understand the way in which individuals deal with their career decisions (Gati et al., 2010). From this perspective, emotional intelligence appears to be a particularly vital variable in one's career decision-making process (Di Fabio & Kenny, 2011). Furthermore, theories by Kemper

and Hochschild, establish the importance of gender in career decisions.

This study was primarily grounded in the theoretical frameworks concerning one's personal contexts in one's career decision. The contextualist action theory by Young et al.(1996) helps to link one's contexts where emotions are particularly important to his/her career decision. Furthermore, Kemper's social interactional theory of emotion (1978), Hochschild's normative theory of emotion (1979), and Hochschild's theory of heart management help to link gender-based emotions, status and power to career decisions. Finally, Goleman's theory of emotional intelligence (1998) helps to establish the importance of emotional intelligence in one's career decision.

Theories about Career Commitment

Theories about employees' attitudes toward career vary greatly. Several terms have been used, with differences in forms of measurement and operationalization. These include career motivation (London, 1983), professional commitment (Wallace, 1993), and career commitment (Blau, 1985). Though these terms can conveniently be interchanged for various purposes, their theoretical concepts are quite distinct. Following Hall (1976), who conceptualized career commitment as identification with and involvement in one's profession, Blau (1988) defined career commitment as "one's attitude towards one's vocation, including a profession" (p.295). Incorporating a vocational, as well as professional emphasis, Blau's definition offers a broad, but limited construct representation (Carson & Bedeian, 1994). Blau's definition was, however, recommended for further study because it has greater generalizability and conceptual distinctiveness (Morrow, 1993). Carson & Bedeian (1994) then conceptualized career commitment as one's motivation to work in a chosen vocation.

The contextualist action theory by Young et al. links not only dynamics of a person but contexts to his/her career decision (1996). Young et al. (1996) emphasized that an action explanation accounts for the context in which an action occurs, including culture and gender. In addition, the role of emotions in a career decision was proposed in the light of their action theory, which holds that career is built through everyday actions. The authors argued that emotions are linked to the purposes, projects and needs of every individual. They provided three reasons in support of the importance of emotions in one's career decision: emotions motivate action; they regulate it; and they permit access to and the development of narratives about chosen career paths (Young et al., 1996). Young and Valach (1996) concluded that career decision is closely connected to emotions and that, therefore, the awareness of one's emotions is essential to building his/her career path.

Theories about Careers in the Service Industry

Being a part of the service industry, hotel service needs to be delivered to customers as professionally and personally as possible in order for hotels to be profitable in the competitive market. When utilizing and expressing various emotions for many adaptive purposes, hotel frontline workers also need to manage their work stress during their delivery of the service to the customers. The aforementioned job descriptions are just some of their job requirements. And the workers that carry out these job duties engage in emotional labor, according to Hochschild (1983). Regarding emotional labor in the service industry, Hochschild (1983) stated,

Emotional labor requires one to induce or suppress feeling in order to sustain the outward countenance that produces the proper state of mind in others---in this case, the sense of being cared for in a convivial and safe place. This kind of labor calls for

a coordination of mind and feeling, and it sometimes draws on a source of self that we honor as deep and integral to our individuality...Emotional labor means the mgmt of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display.... Emotional labor is sold for a wage and therefore has exchange value....Like a commodity, service that calls for emotional labor is subject to the laws of supply and demand. Recently the demand for this labor has increased and the supply of it drastically decreased....It suggests what costs even happy workers under normal conditions pay for this labor without a name. (pp.7-8)

Theories about Gender in Career Commitment

According to the contextualist action theory, one's career decision can be explained by not only emotions but his/her culture and gender (Young et al., 1996). Addressing gender as a factor in career, Young et al. discovered that the viewpoints were partly supported by Kemper's social interactional theory of emotion (1978), Hochschild's normative theory of emotion (1979), and Hochschild's theory of heart management (1983). More importantly, the aforementioned theories have specifically claimed not only gender but such social contexts as one's culture and emotions to be critical factors in one's career path.

Kemper (1978) proposed that people in social interaction have positions on two relational dimensions: status and power and that emotions emerge as interpersonal events change or maintain individuals' status and power. According to Kemper (1978), who argued that the quality of these emotions depends on the patterns of social change, affirming someone else's exalted status produces love-related emotions, while increases or decreases in one's own and other's status or power generate specific emotions. Thus,

Kemper (1981) suggested that low-status people generally would experience negative emotions more often, while high-status people would more often experience positive emotions.

Meanwhile, Hochschild (1979) proposed a normative theory of emotion, in which she believed that persons experience emotions that are consistent with socialized gender-specific emotion beliefs. Individuals manage their feelings to produce acceptable displays according to ideological and cultural standards (Hochschild, 1979). She argued that our society establishes emotion rules that regulate individuals' experience and expression of emotions by assuming that men are freer to express anger than women. In contrast, women are freer than men to express sadness due to their subordinate status in society's hierarchy.

Expression of sadness, however, is not acceptable during the delivery of the service to customers. On the contrary, Hochschild (1983) found that women traditionally have a particular relationship to emotion work due to their subordinate position. To the extent that women are dependent upon men for financial support, emotion can become a good that is exchanged in significant relationships (Hochschild, 1983). In addition, women are more likely to be asked to manage their negative emotions, such as anger and aggression; aggression in men, for example, is seen as masculine and positive but in women it is viewed as negative and damaging (Hochschild, 1983). Hochschild (1983) concluded that women are more often employed commercially for emotion work because women are more often the nurses who support rather than the doctors that diagnose and they are more often the elementary school teachers that nurture rather than the professors who conduct research. Be that as it may, social status does differ. Regarding the social status

of women, Hochschild (1983) stated:

When one person has higher status than another, it becomes acceptable to both parties for the bottom [person] to contribute more. Indeed, to have higher status is to have a stronger claim to rewards, including emotional rewards. It is also to have greater access to the means of enforcing claims. The behavior of servants and women---the encouraging smiles, the attentive listening, the appreciative laughter, the comments of affirmation, admiration, or concern--- comes to seem normal, even built into personality rather than inherent in the kinds of exchange that low-status people commonly enter into....Where the customer is king, unequal exchanges are normal, and from the beginning customer and client assume different rights to feeling and display. The ledger is supposedly evened by a wage. (pp.84-86)

Though those days have gone by and social values and traditions may have changed accordingly in the western world, it may or may not be the case in an oriental setting today. This is especially true when one's gender impacts emotions in a service-oriented context. According to Hochschild's definition of commercialization of feeling (1983), one's career decision can be further influenced by gender if emotions are involved. It is believed that all people manage emotion because it is part of their impression management; however, when emotion becomes a commodity so that feelings are bought and sold in the market for emotional labor, the consequences are very different based on gender (Hochschild, 1983). Regarding commercialization of feeling by women, Hochschild (1983) stated:

Of all women working, roughly one-half have jobs that call for emotional labor.

Thus this inquiry has special relevance for women, and it probably also describes

more of their experience. As traditionally more accomplished managers of feeling in private life, women more than men have put emotional labor on the market, and they know more about its personal costs. (p.11)

Theories about Emotional Intelligence in Career Commitment

Salovey and Mayer (1990) are credited with coining the term emotional intelligence (EI) and introduced a complete construct. They defined EI as “the ability to monitor one’s own and other’s feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (p.189). Salovey & Mayer (1990) further proposed that EI is a mental process that is conceptually correlated and involving emotion information handling. Due to lack of facilitation of thought, they made a revision to their original theory in 1997 and redefined EI as the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). In other words, EI is classified as a mental ability associated with cognitive operations (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000a).

Stressing the importance of competence over traditional intelligence in the workplace, McClelland (1973) wrote an article entitled “Testing for competence rather than for intelligence”, in which emotional competencies were identified. To further McClelland’s efforts, Goleman (1995) underlined and contextualized the theoretical and applicative relevance of EI in the workplace. Goleman (1995) formulated the best-known theory of EI. Goleman’s explanation of the construct was based on Salovey and Mayer’s (1990) original theory. Among other claims, Goleman theorized that EI is equal to, if not

more important than, IQ as an important indicator of success in one's professional and personal life. Elaborating further on the construct, Goleman (1998) explained that an individual's EI can affect one's work situation. Goleman (2000) further proposed that EI is competence based and consists of a total of twenty competences in four dimensions of general abilities; these dimensions are distinct from cognitive abilities and from each other. Thus, in order for workers to achieve their goal of work success, theorists suggested that EI be considered the core of work competence (Caruso & Wolfe, 2001; Goleman, 1998; Mayer & Salovey, 1993; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Regarding EI, Goldman (1998) explained:

Emotional intelligence is a convenient phrase with which to focus attention on human talent. Even though it is a simple phrase, it incorporates the complexity of a person's capability....Other conceptualizations have labels such as practical intelligence and successful intelligence, which often blend the capabilities described by the other psychologists with cognitive abilities and anchor the concepts around the consequence of the person's behavior, notably success or effectiveness... An integrated concept of emotional intelligence offers more than a convenient framework for describing human dispositions; it offers a theoretical structure for the organization of personality and the linking of emotional intelligence to a theory of action and job performance. (pp.343-344)

Statement of the Problem

Despite the increasing demand for professional workers, researchers have repeatedly discovered that insufficient numbers of students are choosing careers in the hotel industry, after they have completed the preparation program (Career Media, 2008; Chou, 2006;

Chuang, 2006; Lee, 2005) There is no prior research on the impact of such contexts as gender and EI on career commitment for hotel management majoring of fourth-year undergraduate students in Taiwan. Therefore, this study is meant to bridge this knowledge gap by conducting a survey of the entire population of fourth-year hotel management students in Taiwan.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is fourfold. The first intent is to investigate the commitment toward a hotel career among graduating hotel majors in Taiwan. The second is to assess students' career commitment to the hotel industry, based on gender. The third is to measure these graduates' EI and to determine its influence on hotel career commitment. The last intent is to explore the interaction between these students' gender and EI and the impact of this interaction on their career commitment to the hotel industry.

Significance of the Study

The findings from this study will be of value to three key groups. The data could help to inform curriculum improvement decisions in hotel industry preparation programs. Also, hoteliers could gain important information and strategies to make the workplace more employee-friendly. Furthermore, the findings might help the graduating hotel industry students make more informed career decisions and give them a tool to assess their fitness for work in the hotel industry.

Research Questions

1. Is there a difference in the career commitment to the hotel industry among surveyed students based on gender?
2. Is there a difference in the career commitment to the hotel industry among

surveyed students based on Emotional Intelligence (EI)?

3. Is there a difference in the career commitment to the hotel industry among surveyed students based on the interaction between gender and EI?

Operating Definitions

Career Commitment---refers to hotel-majoring fourth-year undergraduate students' obligation to a career in the hotel industry upon graduation. The construct is intended to consist of only one dimension---that is, affective commitment.

Emotional Intelligence (EI)---the EI construct consists of five dimensions. They are: Emotional Self-Awareness, Emotional Management, Self-Motivation, Empathy, and Interpersonal Relationship Handling.

Assumptions

It is assumed that all respondents will answer all survey questions honestly and to the best of their abilities. In addition, the analysis of variance can be presented in terms of a linear model, which makes the following three assumptions about the probability of the responses: 1) independence of observations---this is an assumption of the model that simplifies the statistical analysis; 2) normality---the distributions of the residuals are normal; 3) homogeneity of variances---the variance of data in groups should be the same. Finally, it is assumed that the independent variables in this study are treated as nominal, while the dependent variables are treated as interval variables.

Limitations

The results of this study will only be generalized to the hotel industry as well as the vocation-tracked educational settings with an undergraduate hotel program. In addition, the results of this study cannot be generalized to cultures other than people in Taiwan.

Finally, a problem inherent in this study is the use of self-report data. Reports of behavior may be incongruent with actual behavior displayed, especially in emotionally charged situations. Other concerns regarding the construct of emotional intelligence revolve around using the term intelligence in the affective domain. Unlike cognitive intelligence measures, measures of emotional intelligence lack sophistication and the ability to present tasks and derive a correct answer.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The story of successful services enterprises is one that is largely about people – how they are recruited, how they are managed, how they are trained and educated, how they are valued and rewarded, and how they are supported through a process of continuous learning and career development. (Fáilte Ireland, 2005, p.8)

Introduction

This chapter will provide a background on the interface between the hotel industry and preparation programs for careers in the industry. It will introduce literature on career commitment. Related discussion will focus on work competence and on gender. Then, the discussion will shift to a review of literature on emotional intelligence (EI), which is widely viewed as an essential skill for work competence, especially in the service industry. The final section of this chapter will discuss the interaction of gender and emotions on hotel career commitment.

Background

Tourism is important in Taiwan's economy. Because of the close relationship between Taiwan and China, the number of tourists coming from China alone exceeded 2 million in 2012---ten times the number in 2008 (Executive Yuan, 2012). As a result, Taiwan's hotel industry is more vibrant than ever. More than two billion US dollars have been invested by international hotel chains and local hoteliers for new projects across the nation (Tourism Bureau, 2011). Taiwan's vocation-oriented hotel programs at the undergraduate level were established one after another to satisfy the need for a labor force. Students are sent to the hotels under contract at minimum wages for a one-year

internship in the name of learning from doing. Meanwhile, the hoteliers who employ students from these programs stress the value of practical experience in the industry before graduation.

Hotel Job Responsibilities

In a given hotel property, several operating departments ensure that everything works smoothly. Some of them deal directly with guests and are by tradition referred to as front line or front of the house departments, including operators, room reservations, front desk, bell service, concierge, housekeeping, restaurants, bars, banquet rooms, meeting rooms, sales, and recreational facilities. Others provide indirect services and have become known as back of the house departments, including maintenance, kitchen, laundry, storage, accounting, security, marketing, and personnel (O'Fallon & Rutherford, 2010).

In a successful hotel enterprise, three parties are mutually dependent on each other: the customers, the hoteliers or the owners, and the employees. Among them, the customers are the business' reason-for-being; the aim is to satisfy selected needs of targeted customers and in the process generate the revenues necessary to operate and make it worthwhile for hoteliers and employees. A business is defined by the customers' needs that the business chooses to address. Without sufficient satisfaction of customer needs no business can grow and succeed. As for hoteliers, they create and/or maintain the financial, material, and human resources necessary for the creation of the products and services intended to satisfy the customers' needs. And in regards to the employees, they must provide the human resources and the technical knowledge required to produce and deliver the intended products and services in a way which not only satisfies the needs of

the customers but also of the owners (Chow, Haddad, & Singh, 2007). The hoteliers charge senior management personnel with the responsibility to satisfy the needs of these three players through the appropriate organizational structure and effective leadership (Chow, Haddad, & Singh, 2007).

As aforementioned, the job duties of a hotel worker include the delivery of service requested by either the customers, the hoteliers, or the coworkers through effective and efficient operations, communication and interpersonal relations. Assuring a successful delivery of the service, s/he must demonstrate work competence. In addition, s/he must commit to the work. Considering a hotel clerk's qualifications for the job, Renner (1994) believed that:

S/he is expected to behave "appropriately," treat guests "with delicacy," use "common sense" and "good judgment," "get along" with others, look and act "professionally," and communicate "effectively." (p. 156)

Indeed, to look after guests appropriately requires not just technical skills but the appropriate attitude and demeanor: what are now conceptualized as emotional labor (Lam & Chen, 2012). But it is much more difficult to control and manage attitude than it is to manage behavior, especially under the circumstances of the job demands for physical strength, working overload, overtime and in shifts, and working in other people's leisure space on their leisure time (Chow, Haddad, & Singh, 2007; Enz, 2009). Further, it is made difficult by the ambiguous status of hotel work. In Taiwan at least, it is typically characterized as low-skill, low-paid, feminized work, the type of work people do on a short-term basis or because they have to rather than as a career of choice.

Turning to the nature of service, serving others per se is very stressful. Women

especially are less protected against the abuse from customers than men (Hochschild, 1983; Chen, 2009). Female hotel workers, for instance, will feel stressed when they are required to keep smiling and being polite to guests no matter how badly they are behaving (Guerrier & Adib, 2002; Yu, 2008). Female hotel workers will feel more stressful when they find that a certain amount of sexual banter and fondling by guests is accepted as being a natural part of the work culture (Albano & Kleiner, 2007; Guerrier & Adib, 2002). Thus, hotels may not be seen as a female-friendly working environment. Unless well-prepared both mentally and physically, female hotel students would turn down the hotel job opportunities upon graduation when they could.

Career Commitment

Partly influenced by emotions, career commitment is to be seen as the psychological attachment that persons develop toward membership in their career. It is the strength of a person's motivation to work in a chosen career (Carson & Bedeian, 1994). Career commitment may also consist of enthusiasm and decisiveness about a person's career (Wang & Fwu, 2001). Further, career commitment is a rewarding involvement in a person's work that brings her/him economic security and success. Commitment can be expressed either affectively as emotional attachment or calculatively when considering it an unbearable cost if one is not committed to the work (Taylor & Walsh, 2005).

One's career decision can be affected by his/her contexts (Young et al., 1996) and a positive attitude toward the work often results in a commitment toward that work. Since this attitude later helps persons to achieve career success (Poon, 2004), it is a good idea to have an understanding of the impact of one's contexts on career decision.

Kidd (1998) argued that affect, in addition to cognition, is a critical determinant in

career choice and behavior. Similarly, Caruso and Wolfe (2001) asserted that emotion assumes a crucial role in career development, selection, and the workplace. Based on the historical movement toward contextualized concepts of emotions and intelligence, Young, Valach, and Collin (1996) proposed a contextualist action theory of career development, in which emotion plays a central role. According to this theory, emotions exist within the context of the whole and the whole comprises many interwoven and interrelated parts, all of which are interpreted within the contexts of current events and dynamics of the person. Young et al. (1996) further stated that emotion is related to one's purpose, goals, plans, and needs. As such, they proposed three reasons for the importance of emotion in explaining and understanding the construction of career: (1) emotion motivates and energizes action; (2) emotion controls and regulates action; and (3) emotion is able to access, orient, and develop narratives about careers.

Commitment is also described as a display of affirmation and confidence in ideas that are consistent with other beliefs and behavioral manifestations (Yu,2012). As related to the career domain, commitment to career choice refers to certainty and self-confidence about one's choice and a positive outlook regarding one's career future (Cheng, 2005). Career commitment also refers to identification with and involvement in one's occupation (Yu,2012) and is characterized by the development of and commitment to career goals (Cheng,2005). In a series of studies, Blau (1985/1988/1989) developed and demonstrated the discriminant validity and generalizability of a career commitment measure; and, he defined career commitment as one's attitude toward one's vocation or field.

Poon (2004) also believed that people who are able to perceive and understand their own feelings should be able to better assess their job skills and interests, set appropriate

career objectives, develop realistic career plans, and obtain the developmental experiences needed to take advantage of career opportunities. That is to say, people with a high degree of emotional intelligence will recognize that a commitment toward their chosen career will enhance the opportunity of career advancement. Wang (2005) also indicated that interpersonal relations, pleasure of work, and achievement of job are the most advantageous factors in career commitment. In addition, emotional intelligence will enable people to keep their career decisions in harmony with their needs and values and, consequently, experience career satisfaction and career success (Poon, 2004). However, people tend to hesitate in assuming a job that requires much of a person but rewards them inadequately for the work. As aforementioned, most working conditions of a hotel job tend to drive away prospective applicants because of heavy workloads, overwhelming job duties, long working hours, and insufficient financial returns (Cheng, 2005; Kim, Mummann, & Lee, 2009), when compared to other professional lines of work. For instance, in a study of career commitment toward the law profession and medical profession, respectively, about 77% of law students and 99% of medical students reported that they intended to practice their professions for their entire working lives (Cavenagh, Dewberry, & Jones, 2000).

Regarding work-related commitment, it was Becker (1960) who first believed that commitment is just the tendency to engage in “consistent lines of activity” (p.33) because of the perceived cost of doing otherwise. Then, Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian (1974) expanded the idea by describing commitment as “the strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (p.604). Later, Meyer and Allen (1984, 1991; Allen & Meyer, 1990) used the terms affective and continuance

commitment to distinguish different views of commitment. In the mean time, they introduced a third component of commitment, normative commitment, which reflects the perceived obligation to remain with the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). To further clarify the distinction between affective commitment and normative commitment, Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) revised the normative commitment scale.

To define these three components of organizational commitment, Meyer & Allen (1991) wrote:

Affective Commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement with the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they want to do so. Continuance Commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to do so. Finally, Normative Commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organization. (p.67)

To further make distinctions among these three components, Meyer & Allen (1991) stated:

Affective, continuance, and normative commitment are best viewed as disguisable components, rather than types, of attitudinal commitment; that is, employees can experience each of these psychological states to varying degrees. Some employees, for example, might feel both a strong need and a strong obligation to remain, but no desire to do so; others might feel neither a need nor obligation but a strong desire,

and so on. The “net sum” of a person’s commitment to the organization, therefore, reflects each of these separable psychological states. (p.4)

To understand a person’s commitment toward his/her work, countless studies have first examined the components of organizational commitment, and then many conceptualizations and measures have been proposed and tested. Since a person can transfer his/her commitment toward the organization to the commitment toward the work, or the other way around, many researchers tried to explain a person’s occupational commitment as well.

Occupational commitment refers to a positive attitude toward one’s occupation or profession reflecting a strong sense of identification with and involvement in that occupation (Blau, 1985). Occupational commitment is also defined as one's attitude, including affect, belief and behavioral intentions, toward her/his occupation (Blau, 1985) or one's belief in and acceptance of the values of his chosen occupation or line of work, and a willingness to maintain membership in that occupation (Yu, 2012).

Since a person’s occupation can be turned into a career, the notion of career commitment is viewed as the extension of occupational commitment. Although such terms as “career commitment,” “occupational commitment,” “organizational commitment,” and “professional commitment” are frequently interchanged by researchers in different areas of disciplines, all terms are generally agreed to refer to a person’s commitment toward work (Wallace, 1993; Yu, 2008).

According to Cheng (2005), career commitment consists of intrinsic attitudes toward one’s work and consequently, it results in a set of extrinsic behaviors reflected in the work. Researchers found that individuals high in career commitment tend to develop and

pursue their personal career goals (Goulet & Singh, 2002); out of loyalty, they identify with and value their work and tend to invest more time and effort to acquire relevant knowledge relating to their work. This process was termed “professionalism” (Hall, 1976). Empirically, Aryee and Tan (1992) reported that individuals who are highly committed to their careers tend to spend more time in developing work-related skills.

As for measures for one’s commitment, while Becker (1960) believed one’s commitment toward a profession has something to do with his/her personal experiences, Ritzer and Trice (1969) argued that commitment should be examined only through psychological approaches. Later, Aranya and Ferris (1984) concluded that professional commitment can be examined through both attitudinal and behavioral approaches; Blau (1985), however, believed that commitment toward a profession results from positive attitudes. Yu (2012) explained that committed professionals identify with the roles in relation to the norms of a profession. Blau (2003) further argued that occupational commitment is measured by the following four dimensions: affective commitment, normative commitment, sunk costs, and limited choices.

Originally for the purpose of measuring organizational effectiveness such as performance, turnover, absenteeism, tenure, and organizational goals, Meyer, Allen, and Smith’s (1993) inclusive views on work-related commitment are mainly based on the support of a study by Wiener and Vardi (1980). Wiener and Vardi (1980) reported positive relationships between organizational commitment and work commitment and career commitment, respectively.

As for past empirical studies on gender difference in commitment toward a career in the hospitality industry, Chuang (2006) found that Taiwan’s male college students show

higher career commitment scores than their female counterparts do. In a similar study, however, Chang (2004) found that there are no significant differences between male and female college students in their commitment toward a career in the hospitality industry.

Gender Considerations

In Taiwan, gender might be a factor in continuing employment in the hotel industry (Li, 2012). If frequent and heavy work-related pressures are common during the internship, female hotel students in particular, might choose not to enter the hotel industry, upon graduation (Li & Leung, 2001; Yu, 2012). Unfortunately, their doing so will not only tip the balance against them in the workplace but jeopardize their personal development in a career. This early exodus may help explain the organizational phenomenon in the hotel field that illustrates that the higher the positions, the fewer the number of female employees (Executive Yuan, 2012).

Cultures in most countries of East Asia are influenced by Confucianism. Under this influence, one might have inner thoughts but can never act on those thoughts. For the women in particular, they are required to act in accordance with the social norms, which include the obedience to their father, husband, and son, respectively as their lives move forward. For centuries in these countries, family seemed to be the center of their lives. And across cultures and over time, with few exceptions, females still retain major responsibility for home and family regardless of their involvement in paid and unpaid work outside of the home. Women continue to spend more time than men on housework, whether they are employed or not; they continue to do more of the work involved in caring for children and to take more responsibility for that work. As a result of this imbalance in time allocation, women's commitment toward anything other than their

home and family becomes questionable (Chen, 2009; Chen, 2006; Hsu, 2008; Li & Leung, 2001). At the appropriate time, mothers will ask their daughters to embrace this tradition and pass it on to their daughters. Should they resist, they could sometimes be viewed as antisocial members of the society.

Taiwan's women seem to have been struggling with this difficult situation; in a most recent large-scale survey (104 Job Bank, 2008) conducted in Taiwan, nearly 40% of surveyed married women responded that they would not get married if they were single again. From the same study, it is not surprising to discover that 68% of the surveyed businesses do not encourage the employees to balance their work and family.

Should they choose to stay in the workplace, it is discovered that women often fail to promote themselves as their male counterparts do. They more frequently demonstrate self-limiting behaviors as a result of their lower self-confidence in their ability to perform their job (Chen, 2006). In addition, women are often willing to accept the "dirtier", less glamorous, forms of work (Dickerson and Taylor, 2000). Thus, in a culturally imbedded, often unconscious manner, both men and women foster gender stereotypes about feminine and masculine-oriented work (Chen, Cheung, & Law, 2012). As a result of the unfair work assignments, women's psychological or affective attachment toward the organization and the work is affected to some extent in a negative way (Ni, 2005). Moreover, a male-dominated environment often requires women to imitate male traits to develop their careers (Kuo, 2007; Ni, 2005); for instance, Bierema and Opengart (2002) noted that the expectation for and acceptance of emotional expression differ for men and women. In the mean time, Taiwan's women's rights to work have been impacted because the labor laws, for example, conditionally restrict women from working at midnight for

the sake of safety and maternity (Hsu, 2008). Thus, a very stressful work environment then is formed.

Finally, living in such a challenging environment, women are almost three (2.8) times more likely than men to suffer depressive disorder. The World Health Report (2012) of the World Health Organization indicated that more women than men experience a depressive episode in a twelve-month period.

All in all, though gender alone may be a factor on his/her career decision, whether or not such career-related work competence as emotional ability has been acquired is another career-affecting part of the contexts that need to be examined, according to Young et al. (1996).

Work Competence

Because of the main purpose of vocational education, vocational students upon graduation are expected to start and be loyal to their careers in the fields they have been studying at school (Horng & Lu, 2006). As a result, whether or not they will be able to succeed in the future in these chosen careers becomes a great concern for their teachers and career counselors. The same is true for job recruiters. When selecting from a large number of new job applicants, recruiters need to make sure they are hiring the “right” persons for the jobs---that is, hiring the ones who can demonstrate not only the required knowledge and skills but the enthusiasm and decisiveness on the jobs for which they applied. In other words, the “rightness” of a job candidate consists of his/her competence and commitment, both of which are basic requirements for one’s career success. The “rightness” is especially important for the hotel industry in that turnover is one of the most prevalent, longstanding concerns in the hotel industry. As to vocational graduates,

before starting to seek job opportunities, they need to examine whether future success in the chosen career is attainable. The expectation of success can motivate one to fully apply one's competence to the career and make further commitment toward it.

As aforementioned, there are many contributors leading to a person's career success and the person's work competence is one of them (Goleman, Boyatzis, & Mckee, 2004). For the above-mentioned stakeholders, they need to closely evaluate a job candidate to see if s/he has the competence required in the job for which they are being considered. Competence has a link to work performance; good work performance that leads a person to career success can be influenced by well-managed emotions (Poon, 2004). Thus, emotions-handling ability falls under the category of work competence. As such, it is reasonable to believe that the ability to manage one's emotions has an impact on his/her career success. And Goleman (1998, 2001) contended that this kind of ability is actually a kind of work-related competence.

It is recognized that work plays a central and pivotal role in persons' lives. Before persons actualize their career potential for future success, first, they need to examine themselves to understand to what extent they demonstrate the competence required for the work. In addition to professional knowledge and technical skills required for the work, work competence includes attitude, a psychological state that is heavily affected by emotions such as motivation and determination (Goleman, 1998). In the field of human resources management, a self-evaluating formula of $C=(K + S)A$, where C refers to competence, K stands for knowledge, S is skills, and A, the attitude, is frequently used to help job applicants understand to what extent they demonstrate the work competence.

In the U.S., a job applicant's Knowledge, Skill, and Attitude (KSA) are carefully

screened and evaluated to assess their qualifications for federal jobs. Recruiters from private business even claim that they are just hiring for attitude and will be training for skills. McClelland (1973) long before suggested that business select job applicants by their traits and attitude rather than by professional knowledge and skills for those emotions-related characteristics cannot be improved through training. Later, for the purpose of evaluating a person's competence, Spencer and Spencer's (1993) Iceberg Model further supports the idea of paying more attention to work attitude. This model, appearing like an iceberg, displays two parts separated by the sea; the tip of the iceberg floats above the water, representing one's knowledge and skills, which are visible and trainable and thus termed "surface competencies," and the remainder of the iceberg is hidden under the water, representing one's traits and attitudes, which are unseen and not easily touched or even changed and thus termed "central competencies." One's central competencies are useful in predicting one's surface competencies, which in turn, are useful in predicting one's work performance. Based on their research, Spencer & Spencer (1993) further developed a Competence Dictionary, which includes six categories with twenty competencies. Of these competencies, interpersonal understanding and self-control are considered highly related to emotions (Wu & Cheng, 2006).

Despite a general agreement of the impact of work attitude on future career success for job applicants, Goleman (1998) argued that the traits and attitudes being influenced by emotions should be treated as competence that can be improved and enhanced through teaching and training. If so, there is a desperate need for vocational instructors and curriculum developers to understand the extent to which their graduating students have been prepared for the future workplace, at least in part, based on emotional competence.

It is also suggested that job recruiters have a thorough understanding of an applicant's competence by examining his/her attitudes toward future work and personal traits. Researchers (Cherniss, 2000; Goleman, 1998, 2001, 2004) believed that doing so could not only help assure the company's success but the job applicant's success at the company as well. Finally, these researchers suggested that there is a link between job success and success in various other life activities (Cherniss, 2000; Goleman, 1998, 2001, 2004).

Emotional Intelligence

When dealing with people, let us remember we are not dealing with creatures of logic. We are dealing with creatures of emotion, creatures bustling with prejudices and motivated by pride and vanity. (Carnegie, 1936, p.29)

Emotional Intelligence (EI) started its journey to prominence in 1920 when Thorndike formulated the concept of "social intelligence". This concept of social intelligence is one of three groups of intelligences (abstract, concrete, and social) identified by psychologists of that time. Thorndike (1920) defined social intelligence as "the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls, to act wisely in human relations" (p.228). Later, Wechsler, a student of Thorndike's and developer of one of the first IQ measurement instruments – the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale – recognized the importance of studying non-cognitive factors. Wechsler (1940) estimated that 30 to 50 percent of the factors deemed important in determining success are unaccounted for by cognitive intelligence alone. Thus, Wechsler (1940) proposed that non-intellective abilities are crucial in predicting one's ability to succeed in life, and pointed out that measure of total intelligence cannot be completed without including

some measures of the non-intellective factors.

After Thorndike, many psychologists tried to further clarify the concept of social intelligence and began to develop measures on social intelligence. However, the proliferation of conceptual definitions has been accompanied by a comparable number of operational definitions, few of which have met with success (Hedlund & Sternberg, 2000). Unable to distinguish adequately social from academic intelligence, many researchers became discouraged and moved on to other endeavors. Yet, a number of researchers still continued to stress the notion that intelligence comprises more than IQ (Neisser 1976; Sternberg, 1985; Marlowe, 1985).

In the meantime, other theories challenging traditional IQ-based views of intelligence gradually came to the center stage, including most notably Gardner's (1983) theory of multiple intelligence. Gardner (1983) argued that one's success in life cannot be predicted by traditional intelligence alone. And more importantly, intelligence is a multifaceted concept instead of a single construct. In his theory, Gardner (1983) acknowledged the role of social, or what he called interpersonal, intelligence and defined it as understanding others and acting on that understanding. Intrapersonal intelligence, in Gardner's (1983) theory, is the ability to understand oneself – to know how one feels about things, to understand one's range of emotions, to have insights about why one acts the way one does, and to behave in ways that are appropriate to one's needs, goals, and abilities. Although later Salovey & Mayer (1990) stated that EI deals more with intrapersonal intelligence, it is recognized that many recent EI-related researches involve both intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences proposed by Gardner (1983).

Salovey and Mayer (1990) are credited with coining the term emotional intelligence

and introduced a more complete construct. They defined EI as “the ability to monitor one’s own and other’s feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (p.189). Salovey & Mayer (1990) further stated that EI is a mental process that is conceptually correlated and involving emotion information handling. This process consists of three parts: (1) Appraisal and expression of emotions: It involves the awareness of one’s emotions that can be expressed both verbally and non-verbally. On the other hand, it also deals with the awareness of other’s emotions, which is known as one’s empathy; (2) Management of emotions: One is able to regulate his/her emotions subjectively and consciously in order to maintain his/her positive mood and to repair his/her negative mood. In addition, one is able to help others regulate their emotions; (3) Use of emotions: It deals with one’s ability to use his/her emotions for better outcomes. When facing frustration, one is able to increase self-confidence and to solve problems. One is also able to concentrate on urgent issues and to set priority.

Salovey & Mayer’s (1990) first EI construct, however, focused mainly on the perception and regulation of emotions without facilitation of thought. Therefore, they made a revision to their original theory in 1997 and redefined EI as the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). In other words, EI is classified as a mental ability associated with cognitive operations (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000a). By this new definition, EI is subdivisible into four branches, often referred to as Four-Branch

Model (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000a; Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008): (1) emotional perception involves recognizing and inputting information from the emotion system; (2) emotional facilitation of thought; (3) emotional understanding involves the further processing of emotional information with an eye to problem solving; and (4) emotional management concerns emotional self-management and the management of emotions in other people.

Comparing the initial three-part construct of EI by Salovey & Mayer with the revised four-branch construct, it is evident that these researchers have gradually shifted from a more all-encompassing model of EI to a more restrictive one. Initially, Salovey & Mayer (1990) related EI to personality variables such as warmth and outgoingness. But later, they argued that EI should be distinguished from personality factors and defined more strictly as an ability, specifically the ability to recognize the meanings of emotions and to use that knowledge to reason, solve problems, and enhance thought (Hedlund & Sternberg, 2000; Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008).

Emotional Competence

From the aforementioned performance-based point of view, perhaps the most influential article stressing the importance of competence over traditional intelligence in the workplace was published by McClelland (1973). In his article entitled "Testing for competence rather than for intelligence", McClelland (1973) proposed, instead of testing people for their IQ, technical skills, or personality, first studying employees who were already outstanding performers in that job and systematically comparing them with those who were just average at it. That analysis yields not just the threshold abilities for the position but, more importantly, the distinguishing competencies: abilities that the

outstanding performers exhibited that the average performers did not. Based on that finding, McClelland (1973) further suggested that employers should select people who have those same competencies or help existing employees develop those strengths. A then-graduate student of McClelland's, Goleman confirmed that most of his competence research base stems from this pioneering work done by McClelland (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2004).

As specific capabilities at work have been successfully identified by this "competence" approach to improve job performance, Goleman and his colleagues smartly related competence to EI and grabbed the public's attention once again. They presented a model of EI with twenty-five competencies arrayed in five clusters (Boyatzis, 1982; Goleman, 1998): (1) the Self-Awareness cluster, including emotional awareness, accurate self-assessment, and self-confidence; (2) the Self-Recognition cluster, including self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, and innovation; (3) the Motivation cluster, including achievement orientation, commitment, initiative, and optimism; (4) the Empathy cluster, including understanding others, developing others, service orientation, leveraging diversity, and political awareness; and (5) the Social Skills cluster, including influence, communication, conflict management, leadership, change catalyst, building bonds, collaboration and cooperation, and team capabilities.

Goleman's (1998) EI framework was later redesigned on the basis of factor, cluster, and reliability analyses of the data on the first version of the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI), developed by Goleman and his colleagues (Boyatzis, 1982; Goleman, 1998; Boyatzis, Goleman, & Hay-McBer, 1999). In this new EI model, twenty-five competencies are reduced to twenty and five domains to four: Self-Awareness,

Self-Management, Social Awareness, and Social Skills (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000). With this new EI model came the description definition of emotional competence: emotional intelligence is observed when a person demonstrates the competencies that constitute self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and social skills at appropriate times, in appropriate ways and in sufficient frequency to be effective in the situation (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000). Later, these four domains were divided into two dimensions: self-other and recognition-regulation, and the social skills domain was renamed as relationship management (Goleman, 2001). To further stress the EI concept in leadership, Goleman et al. (2004) reduced the twenty competencies to eighteen that focused on upper-level leadership and management roles, versus the twenty competencies that reflect those needed by typical employees.

There are other researchers who take emotional intelligence as competence but from a different perspective. Saarni (1999), for example, took a social-personality developmental perspective and illustrated emotional competence with the results of research undertaken with children and adolescents. Saarni's (1999, 2000) definition of emotional competence is the demonstration of self-efficacy in emotion-eliciting social transactions. Self-efficacy is used to mean that the individual believes that s/he has the capacity and skills to achieve a desired outcome (Saarni, 2000). When self-efficacy is applied to emotion-eliciting social transactions, it describes how people can respond emotionally, yet simultaneously and strategically apply their knowledge about emotions and their emotional expressiveness to relationships with others, such that they can negotiate their way through interpersonal exchanges and regulate their emotional experiences toward desired outcomes or goals (Saarni, 2000).

Furthermore, Saarni (2000) proposed eight skills of emotional competence: (1) awareness of one's emotional state; (2) skill in discerning others' emotions based on situational and expressive cues; (3) skill in using the vocabulary of emotion and expression terms commonly available in one's subculture; (4) capacity for empathic and sympathetic involvement in others' emotional experiences; (5) skill in understanding that inner emotional state need not correspond to outer expression, both in self and in others; (6) skill in adaptive coping with aversive or distressing emotions by using self-regulatory strategies; (7) awareness that the nature of relationships is in part defined by both the degree of emotional genuineness of expressive display and the degree of reciprocity with the relationship; and (8) capacity for emotional self-efficacy, in which the individual views himself/herself as feeling, overall, the way he/she wants to feel.

Some other researchers also confirmed EI to be the most important non-cognitive factor for success in life, such as Bar-On's (1997) definition of EI, which incorporates a broad array of factors. Building on a series of research findings including his own since 1980's, Bar-On (1997) defined EI as "an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures" (p.14). In addition, Bar-On (1997) proposed a model of non-cognitive intelligences that includes five broad areas of skills or competencies, and within each, more specific skills that appear to contribute to success. These include intrapersonal skills (emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-regard, self-actualization, independence), interpersonal skills (interpersonal relationships, social responsibility, empathy), adaptability (problem solving, reality testing, flexibility), stress management (stress tolerance, impulse, control), and general mood (happiness, optimism). Perhaps the

best-known contribution made by Bar-On is his measure instrument of EI, Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i).

In addition to Bar-On, Cooper (1997) began to construct his EQ Map with five attributes including current environment, emotional literacy, EQ competencies, EQ values & attitudes, and EQ outcomes, and defined EI as the ability to sense, understand and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, trust, creativity, and influence (Cooper, 1997). Davies, Stankov, and Roberts (1998), over three separate studies, also suggested a more restrictive definition of EI as “the ability to perceive emotional information in visual and auditory stimuli” (Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998, p.1001).

All in all, these fruitful endeavors on EI have directed attention not only to the role of emotion at home, in schools, and at the workplace but also to how the effects of emotion may ripple through groups and society (Barsade 2002; Barsade et al., 2003; Ciarrochi et al., 2006; Elias et al., 1997; Izard, 2002; Matthews et al., 2007). The pairing of the words “emotion” and “intelligence” or, “emotion” and “competence”, implies that individuals vary in the degree that they are able to use emotional information for adaptive purposes (Emmerling & Cherniss, 2003). A view of emotions as potentially intelligent or competent also implies that such abilities can be measured and are predictive of meaningful outcomes (Emmerling & Cherniss, 2003). Therefore, a basic understanding of available measures of EI is essential.

Measures of Emotion Intelligence

The development of measures for EI synchronized with that of theories on EI. Since the first scale measuring an aspect of emotional intelligence was reported (Mayer,

DiPaolo, & Salovey, 1990), there has been an explosion of measures of EI.

In Taiwan, there are also several measures that are statistically valid and reliable and are widely recognized by local researchers, including Wu's (2000). Among these researchers, Wu's EI measure on college students adapted Goleman's five-cluster EI model and is based on the theory of Mayer & Salovey. A list of some selected EI measures is illustrated in Table 1-1.

Test Name	Test Source	Test Approach	Test Components
EQ-i	Bar-On (1997)	Self-Report	Intrapersonal Interpersonal Stress Management Adaptability General Mood
EQ Map	Cooper (1997)	Self-Report	Current Environment Emotional Literacy EQ Competencies EQ Values & Attitudes EQ Outcomes
ECI	Boyatzis, Goleman, & Hay-McBer (1999)	Informant	Self-Awareness Social Awareness Self-Management Social Skills
MEIS	Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey (1999)	Ability	Emotional Perception Emotional Facilitation Emotional Understanding Emotional Management
MSCEIT	Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso (2002)	Ability	Emotional Perception Emotional Facilitation Emotional Understanding Emotional Management
Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for College Students	Wu (2000)	Self-Report	Self-Awareness Self-Regulation Self-Motivation Empathy Social Skills

Table 1-1: A List of Some Selected EI Measures

Despite of the continuing research interests in EI, two opposing groups of views have emerged (Hedlund & Sternberg, 2000). One group indicated that EI includes almost

everything related to success that is not measured by IQ (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995b, 1998), whereas the other argued for a more restrictive view of EI as the ability to perceive and understand emotional information (Mayer et al., 2000b; Davies et al., 1998). The former group of models and concepts is often considered use of a Mix Model, and the latter use of a Mental Ability or Integrative Model (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000a; Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008). Each of these two models has had its advocates over the years, and it is expected that the debate over what EI actually is will continue.

Gender and Emotional Intelligence

People are born different. The prediction of gender difference in emotions was established long ago by Parsons's functional theory of gender (1955). Later, from the angle of sociology, Hochschild's theory (1979) assumed that men should express anger more than women due to men's superior status, while women should express sadness more, due to women's subordinate status in a society's hierarchy. As aforementioned, this may be even truer in the Oriental society. Be that as it may, the gender difference in emotions is a topic to discuss in consideration of competence, which is related to performance and success.

Many empirical studies claimed that female college students are generally found to be more emotionally intelligent than their male counterparts (Bastian, Burns, & Nettelbeck, 2005; Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Brackett, Waner, & Bosco, 2005; Ciarrochi, Dean, & Anderson, 2002; Feldman, 2003; Parker, Taylor, & Bagby, 2001). However, Wu (1999, 2000) reported differently with Taiwanese college male students having higher scores in Emotional Management than their female colleagues.

Using a measure of emotional skills that was developed by Nelson and Pierce in 1988, Nelson and Nelson (2003) discovered that gender is a significant factor with females reporting significantly higher skills in Rapport, Empathy, and Anger Control and males reporting higher skills in Problem solving. In addition, Brody and Hall (1993) also reported that gender has an impact on one's emotional awareness, regulation, and management. Considering various contexts, Taiwanese female hospitality-majoring college students' emotional self-awareness was found to be higher than that of their male counterparts (Tsai, 2005).

To sum up, women appear to have stronger interpersonal skills than men, but the latter have a higher intrapersonal capacity, are better at stress management, and are more adaptable. More specifically, women are more aware of emotions, demonstrate more empathy, relate better interpersonally, and act more socially responsible than men; on the other hand, men appear to have higher self-regard, are more independent, cope better with stress, are more flexible, solve problems more effectively and are more optimistic than women. Similar significant differences related to social responsibility, interpersonal relationship, and stress tolerance between men and women have been observed in almost every other population sample that has been examined with the EQ-i around the world to date (Bar-On, Brown, J.M., Kirkcaldy, B.D., & Thome, E.P., 2000).

In the mean time, men's deficiencies in interpersonal skills, especially in the realm of empathy and social responsibility, could possibly explain why psychopathy is observed much more frequently in men than in women (American Psychiatric Association, 1994). On the other hand, significantly lower stress tolerance among women may possibly explain why they suffer more from anxiety-related disturbances than men (American

Psychiatric Association, 1994).

As for more of empirical evidences of regulations and expressions of emotions, being examined of the psychometric properties, women were found to be more aware of emotions (Bar-On, 1997) and more emotionally expressive (Tamres, Janicki, & Helgeson, 2002). Finally, women tend to experience more emotions, experience them more intensely (Tamres, et al., 2002), and experience or express certain emotions more often than men (Shields, 2000).

EI in Taiwan

In Taiwan, ensuing a graduate's future success in his/her professional career by cultivating work-required competence is a very important task for vocational curriculum developers and teachers in that the accomplishment of this task relates to not only the attainment of their educational goals and purposes but the security of funding. In other words, the government's performance-tracking systems for the educational preparation institutions is linked to the proportion of graduates working in the "meant-to-be" industries and the success the graduates report in the career they are pursuing. The effectiveness of programs in these educational institutions will be correlated with positive feedback from program graduates as well as their career success. Each of these factors impacts program funding and institutional investments from the government (Ministry of Education, 2008).

Only recently have Taiwanese people started to pay attention to the growth of emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence was not even a topic of conversation until the publication of a popular book titled "EQ: Emotional Intelligence" by Daniel Goleman in 1995. Emotional intelligence started to gain Taiwanese people's attention in 1999,

when Goleman was invited to Taiwan to communicate his thoughts of emotional intelligence with local academics. During his stay, Goleman urged the Taiwanese people to stress the importance of emotional intelligence for their wellbeing and for the effectiveness of the workplace. As expected, the idea about how one's emotional intelligence can affect his/her work has positively influenced Taiwanese workers and employers all over. And the influence is still evident. According to a current survey (104 Job Bank, 2008) in Taiwan, over 80% of the employers would choose to overlook the insufficiency in a job applicant's professional knowledge and technical skills, but they would ask for demonstrations of such emotional abilities as stress management, effective communication and teamwork. Furthermore, this survey indicated that current workers who were born between the year of 1981 and 1990 in Taiwan were found by their employers to be lacking in stress-handling ability (62%), lacking in sense of responsibility (48.6%), and not willing to cooperate (29.6%). In this survey, 63.8% of the surveyed employers reported that their employees do not have a good attitude toward their work; 44.4% of the surveyed employers believed that their employees do not possess work competence.

According to a Taiwanese government report (National Youth Committee, 2008) of an investigation on the employability of the Taiwanese college graduates, eight core competences have been deemed crucial for them to carry out their job duties successfully and, six of these were recognized to be closely related to emotional competence. Similarly, emotional ability has also been taken by the Australian government (Commonwealth of Australia, 2002) as a core indicator of employability which enhances one's likelihood of being employed (Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004). For this,

Maynard (2003) discovered that motivation as well as social and communication skills are associated with perceived entry-level employability among college students.

These facts and findings coincide with previous studies that found emotional intelligence to be highly related to one's work performance and career success (Cherniss, 2000; Gardner, 1983; Goleman, 1998, 2004). That is to say, vocation-tracked students upon graduation must be assured to be fully equipped with emotional competence because this is essential for success in the workplace.

Due to the fact that Taiwan's Technical and Vocational Education's (TVE) main goal is to provide the professional and technical workforce for the nation's economic development (Ministry of Education, 2008a), the hotel-majoring vocational students at undergraduate level are bound to the hotel industry upon their graduation. Because Hochschild (1983) was the first to term those who perform service-related job duties as "emotional labors" after considering the nature of and requirements for the jobs, hotel workers are viewed as emotional labors in that they always experience tremendous emotional encounters at work---that is, people and stress arising from people and work. In other words, stress can result from high demands for responsiveness and emotional control in customer service (Hochschild, 1997) as well as social norms that are linked to the importance of "face time" (Munck, 2001). In fact, the hotel business is regarded as a "people business," and its workers have to be "people friendly" for the delivery of service (Hu, 2004). Since stress often comes along with interaction with people, it is important for hotel workers to be emotionally intelligent at all times (Lam & Chen, 2012). With such intelligence as an addition to other work competence, they will be able to provide their guests with satisfying service at all times, even under work pressure.

In summary, Goleman (1995) believed that IQ contributes only 20 percent to the factors that are deemed important in determining success, which also suggests that 80 percent of the influence upon success is unaccounted for by intelligence alone. He further explained that as a learned skill, emotional intelligence is a better predictor of life success than intellectual attainment or technical ability (Goleman, 1995). Thus, Goleman (1998) concluded that emotional intelligence is a more effective predictor of success in the workplace than IQ.

Dries and Pepermans (2007) also identified workers with high potential by measuring their emotional intelligence. They discovered that a worker with high potential would display high levels of career commitment (Dries & Pepermans, 2007). Provided that EI can be acquired through professional preparation, researchers stressed the importance of cultivating positive emotions at work in that emotional intelligence is found to be positively related to retention of work (Dries & Pepermans, 2007). Thus, assessing a job applicant's emotional intelligence before employment may help stabilize a business's operation in terms of human capital.

Since emotions play such an important role in a person's career development, the ability to manage emotions adaptively will become a critical skill necessary to deal with a rapidly changing career landscape. Thus, to be truly successful in whatever career-related activities s/he is engaged in, the person needs to be emotionally intelligent or emotionally competent.

All in all, EI has been a popular topic for the general public and yet a diversified concept for researchers because of the varieties and differences among authors regarding which abilities EI is thought to entail (Goleman, 1995; Mayer & Salovey, 1993; Mayer,

Roberts, & Barsade, 2008), and the question whether a theoretically sound conceptualization of EI should be identified still remains unanswered (Locke, 2005). Nevertheless, there is no doubt that the major overlap of the various EI concepts involve intrapersonal and interpersonal factors (McCallum & Piper, 2000) and EI is clearly considered by its advocates as a multidimensional construct and it is linked to success in various life activities (Bar-On, 2000).

Taiwan's Technical and Vocational Education

Considering both the students and the curricula, a few phenomena occur in the field of Taiwan's education, particularly in technical and vocational education (TVE) field. First, despite of the fact that the Taiwan's government has proposed a series of educational reforms for bettering the overall quality of TVE, the general public and laymen still view TVE as "a choice for students with poorer academic performance," ---simply put, "TVE is a second-class education" (Kuo, 2003). It is believed that most of Taiwan's vocational students are those who do not excel in school work and who do not think high of themselves (Wu, 2000). As a result, vocational college students see themselves as inferior when being compared to their counterparts studying at comprehensive colleges or universities (Wu, 2000). As for the career decision, it is also believed when one does not have a positive self, s/he hardly has an intention to dedicate herself/himself to work that s/he believes would be stressful, demanding, and frustrating; thus, without a doubt s/he will be hesitant in making an affective career commitment toward it (Chang, 2004; Brown, George-Curran, & Smith, 2003). This phenomenon could be even more obvious for female students in that being a good student is central to many girls' identities and failing a course may be particularly harmful to girls' emotional

distress levels (Frome & Eccles, 1998). In addition to the positive relationship between self-concepts and commitment attitude (Chung, 2002), persons' self-concepts are also found positively related to emotional abilities (Mueller, 2006). As a result of having a negative self-concept all along, vocational students' emotional intelligence and commitment toward their future careers could have been inadequate to some extent (Chen, 2005).

And secondly, in order for Taiwan's TVE students to be able to secure both an internship job and even immediate employment upon graduation, the hotel curriculum developers and teachers, for example, have been encouraged by the hoteliers to place much more emphasis on professional knowledge and technical skills that are related to the daily first-line hotel operations (Ministry of Education, 2008). In addition to the requirement of a period of one-year practical experience in the hotel field, the already cognition-biased, theories-filled, and operations-emphasized curricular have left little or no room for learning content in the affective domain, let alone an extra focus on the subject of emotional intelligence.

As aforementioned, this special kind of vocational curriculum is termed "industry-based curriculum" (Technical and Vocational Education Commission, 2008) and is sometimes smartly and strategically packaged with research-oriented curriculum for students wishing to further their study. There are reasons why more and more vocation-tracked college students upon graduation choose graduate study rather than the "vocation" (Ministry of Education, 2008). One reason is that admission to graduate school is becoming easier than ever before (Ministry of Education, 2008b). Because of the impact and popularity of the view of no marriage and no child among adults in

Taiwan, schools from kindergartens through colleges are facing the challenge of closure. It was estimated that by 2020 one third of the colleges and universities in Taiwan will be closing their doors for lack of students (Ministry of Education, 2008b). For survival, Taiwan's higher education, the vocational and the comprehensive universities alike, which used to be highly selective in admissions, is now beginning to turn into a kind of "compulsory" education. That is, those who wish to go to college can go straight into a college merely through a "nominal" college entrance exam, originally meant to serve as a control point for quality (Ministry of Education, 2008).

Accordingly, the vocational fourth-year students have options upon graduation. Although some wish to be bona fide competitors in the job market after securing a graduate degree, most of them wish to just find a place to take time to figure out their future career as they seek admission to graduate school. As a result of these phenomena, the so-called "industry-based curriculum" may have become less meaningful. And, the development of TVE students' emotional intelligence may have become less important as well.

Gendered Emotions in Taiwan

As aforementioned, for one's career success it is important to begin with making a career commitment. But, many factors affect one's career commitment. In regard to the affective commitment, there are distal determinants such as one's personal characteristics and proximal determinants such as work experience. People differ in regard to personal characteristics. And, there is also difference between genders in expression of emotions (Yang, 2004). With respect to the ways that women express emotions, the reviews in this section reveal the possibility that some Taiwan's women hotel student could display

emotional incompetence at work. The reviews also indicate that an emotionally incompetent woman student could lose her enthusiasm to pursue a hotel career upon graduation.

Although the idea that people, men and women alike, should not only try to value their managed heart but to manage their heart is generally accepted by the public (Hochschild, 1983), Socrates' dichotomy between reason and emotion long before created a belief that emotion threatens reason so the former needs to be regulated for the very survival of the latter (Solomon, 1993). This explains why one's reasonable behavior can be socially acceptable, while it may not be the case when his/her behavior is deemed emotional. However, Hochschild (1979) argued that society, in fact, abides by emotional rules that regulate individuals' experience and expression of emotions by proposing that individuals manage their feelings to produce acceptable displays according to ideological and cultural standards. She further presented a normative theory of emotion which states that we experience emotions that are consistent with socialized gender-specific emotion beliefs (Hochschild, 1979). Thus, she believes that women express sadness (an emotion associated with powerlessness) more than men, due to women's subordinate status in society's hierarchy (Simon & Nath, 2004).

Meanwhile, Kemper (1978) proposed that people in social interaction have positions on two relational dimensions---that is, status and power. Kemper (1978) believed that emotions emerge as interpersonal events change or maintain individuals' status and power, that increases or decreases in one's own and other's status or power generate specific emotions, and that his/her quality depends on the patterns of change. He also echoed Hochschild by stating that low-status people generally experience negative emotions

more, while high-status people experience positive emotions more (Kemper, 1981). Thus, when women in a society are granted a far lower status than men, women experience negative emotions more frequently than men, while men experience positive emotions more often (Simon & Nath, 2004). Also, their thoughts on the display of emotions seem to be much more valid when applying their theories to the context of the oriental society. Confucianism has spread the idea that men, who are solely responsible for making a living for their family, take priority over women. This belief shapes the lives of people in most of East Asia, including China, Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, Singapore, and Taiwan.

Men and women in Taiwan are not equal because even today people's everyday conduct is still deeply influenced by Confucius's viewpoints on the set roles of the family and of the workplace. These views persist, in spite of the recent legislation and the social awareness regarding gender equality. In this section, the reports and statistics may shed some light on the inequality between gender groups in Taiwan that many choose to ignore.

First of all, a recent study (Huang, 2010) indicated a significant gender difference in parents applying for college loans for their children in Taiwan. It shows that parents are more willing to pay tuition for their sons than for their daughters. Therefore, daughters have no choice but to take out loans and pay their own way. It may seem that male and female students are given equal opportunity for higher education, but eventually female students have more of a burden on their shoulders to get to the same starting point as their counterparts.

Next, according to the Report on Living Status Quo of Taiwanese Women in 2011 conducted by the Ministry of Interior, working mothers in Taiwan are still the main care

takers of the family for the elderly and the young. In addition, among the 8.67 million women surveyed, nearly 80 % of them are responsible for household chores (Ministry of Interior, 2011). As a result, the gender stereotype regarding the role of working women continues to be a critical issue.

Further, according to the Ministry of Finance (Ministry of Finance, 2013), from 2009 to 2012, the number of women voluntarily waiving their inheritance is nearly twice of that of men. By the same token, when it comes to parents' giving family fortunes to children, during the past three years, more sons than daughters are reported to be the recipients (Ministry of Interior, 2013). These facts indicate that sons are still the major beneficiaries, and daughters, on the other hand, are dispensable and they are expected to make way for the greater good of the family.

As far as the recent statistics concerning workplace, according to the gender statistics reported by Council for Labor Affairs in 2010, the average monthly salary of women is only 82% of that of men. Another statistic showed that over 42% of the women who are qualified for the workforce chose not to work due to the given responsibility of taking care of family members (Council for Labor Affairs, 2013). In addition, Taiwan's male labor participation rate is nearly 10% lower than those in Japan, Korea, and US, indicating that Taiwanese men enter the labor market later, yet exit the labor market earlier than their counterparts (Council for Labor Affairs, 2013). It can also be said that Taiwanese men have been traditionally over-protected not only in the educational opportunity mentioned earlier but in the duration of their working careers.

Finally, in the country reports on human rights practices revealed by the US Department of State in 2010, it was said that violence against women, including rape and

domestic violence, remained a serious problem. Because victims were socially stigmatized, many did not report the crime, yet another implication of the Confucian influence. The Ministry of Interior estimated that the total number of sexual assaults was 10 times the number reported to the police (US Department of State, 2013).

On the other hand, although sexual harassment in the workplace is a crime, women's groups complained that, despite the law and increased awareness of the issue, judicial authorities remained dismissive of sexual harassment complaints. Women's advocates also noted that although women made up 50 percent of the service industry workforce and the total workforce, women continued to be promoted less frequently, occupied fewer management positions, and worked for lower pay than did their male counterparts (US Department of State, 2013).

To reflect their powerless, lower and subordinate status, working women in Taiwan may choose to emotionally express themselves, and maybe in a more negative way when dealing with male associates, superiors, and customers. When considering work stress, women tend to suffer more from anxiety-related disturbances than men due to women's significantly lower stress tolerance (American Psychiatric Association, 1994). And stressful situations often come from such workplaces as hotels, that are also considered to be "people" businesses. This is so because of the high degrees of guest contacts. Along with such jobs, come a great number of stress-producing occasions. In addition, feeling shorthanded due to extremely high employee turnover rates, heavy workloads, labor requirement, working on shifts, working overtime, working at midnight, low pay, and low respect from the general public often result in stress (Li & Leung, 2001). Further, the rigid regulation of workers' emotions is required at all times for the maintenance and

delivery of quality service (Hochschild, 1983). As a result, hotel employees feel additional tension and stress at work.

Thus, given the choice of many expressions of emotions, an emotionally incompetent female worker in very stressful situations may be bewildered between the social norms and company standards; in other words, she may not be able to successfully transfer her emotions from private interaction to commercial display (Hochschild, 1983). As a result, her poor job performance in expressing emotions will lead to her job dissatisfaction and frustration. Also, the dissatisfactory working experience could further prompt her to have turnover intention, change her career attempt, and even withdraw from the workplace (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

To further illustrate the phenomenon, a scenario for the frontline service at a hotel restaurant is set forth as followed. An overwhelmed female intern server is crying in front of an angry male customer because she just accidentally spilled coffee on him. The negative emotion this server expresses may be in accordance with the social norms to show her lower status and her powerlessness. The way she expresses the emotions, however, cannot be accepted as part of quality service by the hotel. The consequences from such a display might cause her to choose another career upon graduation. Even if she chooses to return to the work in the hotel industry upon graduation for reasons other than enthusiasm, she would eventually perceive that she may not perform her job duties as well as her male counterparts or experience the kind of career success that her male colleagues could expect.

One study reported that males are better in coping with stress, more flexible, better in solving problems, and more optimistic (Bar-On, 1997b). Thus, if emotionally

competent male workers take full advantage of social norms regarding emotions, they would express more positive emotions at work and thus would be rewarded for good job performance. Then, by going through the same process, good job performance would lead to their job satisfaction and the satisfactory work experience would further foster their idea of staying in the same business with enthusiasm (Meyer and Allen, 1997).

In summary, whether being looked at from the viewpoint of physiology, psychology, or sociology, women as emotional laborers tend to express such negative emotions as low self-esteem and self-efficacy, inferiority, sentimentality, passivity, and weakness (American Psychiatric Association, 2013; Bar-On, 1997; Hochschild, 1979; John Tung Foundation, 2008; Kemper, 1978; Kemper, 1981; Saarni, 1999; Simon & Nath, 2004). Thus, it is postulated that after Taiwan's female hotel students have gone through the internship, the interaction between gender and EI could cause them not to pursue a career in the hotel industry upon graduation.

Based on the aforementioned reviews, it seems a Taiwan female hotel student must work harder in developing EI and pursuing enthusiasm than her male counterparts for the purpose of her career progress or ultimate career success in the hotel business. Enthusiasm or positive affection is originally generated from one's self-efficacy (Saarni, 1997). One's self-efficacy is strongly and positively affected by his/her EI (Saarni, 1997), with which one will be able to demonstrate emotional competence and have outstanding job performance (Goleman, 2001). In other words, if Taiwan's female hotel-majoring students plan to make a career commitment toward the hotel industry upon graduation, they need to develop the expected ways of understanding, managing and expressing job-related emotions. This can be achieved through the joint efforts of the aforementioned

stakeholders as they support students in expanding the emotional intelligence that is essential for career success.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the study's research methods and procedures. It includes the research questions, hypotheses, statistical methods, surveyed population, and the instruments used. It also reports on the validity and reliability of the instruments. Finally, it describes some of the questions asked in the study instruments.

Research Design and Methods of Analysis

The main purpose of this study was to provide research-based information and recommendations to the concerned stakeholders. These findings presented comparisons of the differences in career commitment toward the hotel industry based on students' gender and their levels of emotional intelligence (EI). Study participants were the hotel-majoring 4th-year college students in Taiwan. Zikmund (2000) suggests that surveys provide a quick, efficient, and accurate means for gathering information about a population of interest. Thus, a self-administered survey research technique was utilized for collecting data for this study.

This study surveyed the whole population of interest. The research process was comprised of finalization and distribution of a research questionnaire, data collection, data entry, and data analysis. Then, the research findings were reported and discussed. Finally, the study concluded with recommendations based on the discussions. In addition to surveyed students' demographic description through reports of percentage and frequency distribution, their levels of EI were determined. As a dependent variable, surveyed students' career commitment toward the hotel industry was measured for mean and standard deviation and compared by their gender and the levels of EI, respectively.

According to the need for the studied variables and the proposed hypotheses, SPSS12.0 was used for statistical analyses.

In addition to descriptive statistics for the surveyed students' career commitment and EI, the t-test was used to determine the influence of gender on career commitment. As for the influence of EI on career commitment, one-way ANOVA was used by first treating EI as a nominal variable through calculation and categorization of 73% of its highest scorers, 27% of the lowest scorers, and the remainder left in the middle. According to Lys and Sabino (1992), test power is maximized when the two extreme groups each contain 27% of the sample.

Finally, two-way ANOVA was used to understand the influence of the interaction between gender and EI on the surveyed students' career commitment, provided that EI was once again treated as a nominal variable by being categorized into 73% of its highest scorers, 27% of the lowest scorers, and the remainder left in the middle.

Research Questions

Based on the research literature, the following questions were raised:

1. Is there a difference in the career commitment to the hotel industry among surveyed students based on gender?
2. Is there a difference in the career commitment to the hotel industry among surveyed students based on Emotional Intelligence (EI)?
3. Is there a difference in the career commitment to the hotel industry among surveyed students based on the interaction between gender and EI?

Hypotheses

Based on the aforementioned research questions, null hypotheses were proposed as

follows:

Ho1. There is no statistically significant difference in the surveyed students' career commitment toward the hotel industry by gender.

Ho2. There is no statistically significant difference in the surveyed students' career commitment toward the hotel industry among high-, mid-, and low-score level on EI.

Ho3. There is no statistically significant difference in the surveyed students' career commitment toward the hotel industry with respect to the interaction between gender and EI.

Research Participants

Due to the purpose of this study, it focused only on the hotel management-majoring students who were in the last year of their study at a four-year college or university in Taiwan. Students from other closely related academic majors such as hospitality management, hotel and restaurant management, food and beverage management, culinary arts, travel services, recreation and tourism were excluded from the study population.

According to Taiwan's Ministry of Education (2008), there was a total of 221 hotel-majoring seniors graduating in 2009 from two vocational universities and one vocational college in Taiwan. This population was comprised of 47 males and 174 females. Breaking down the numbers, there were 15 males and 41 females graduating from Jinwen University of Science and Technology (JUST), 23 males and 89 females from Minghsin University of Science and Technology (MUST), and 9 males and 44 females from National Kaohsiung Hospitality College (NKHC), respectively (Ministry of Education, 2008).

Finally, through kind arrangements by these institutions' administrators, direct access to participants' classes for administering surveys was granted. This access was essential to the success of this study.

Instruments

To achieve the purpose of this study, two statistically valid and reliable instruments were used to collect data from the population that was studied.

Emotional Intelligence

The surveyed students' emotional intelligence (EI) was measured by Wu's (2000, 2004) Emotional Intelligence Scale, which is the version containing 25 items in traditional Chinese. Response alternatives to each item are coded from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), summed, and then averaged so that the greater the score, the greater the emotional intelligence.

The construct of Emotional Intelligence Scale consists of five dimensions and five items were used to tap each of these dimensions: These are self-awareness, managing emotions, self-motivation, empathy, and handling relationships. Among them, self-awareness is the ability to recognize and identify a feeling; an item such as, "I am aware of it when I am in a bad mood" gauges self-awareness. Managing emotions is the ability to handle anger, fear, sadness and anxiety, or pervasive worrying in appropriate ways; an item such as, "I often maintain emotional stability" can be used to gauge the managing of emotions. Self-motivation is channeling emotions in the service of a goal with emotional self-control and delaying gratification and stifling impulses; an item such as, "When I begin to do something, I will set goals in advance" is useful for gauging self-motivation. Empathy is the recognition of and sensitivity to others' feelings and

concerns and taking their perspective by appreciating the differences in how people feel about things; an item such as, “When someone is distraught, I feel very sorry for him/her” can be used to gauge empathy. Finally, handling relationships or using social skills helps one to interact more effectively with others; an item such as, “I make friends easily” is effective in gauging one’s handling of relationships.

As to the construct validity and reliability of this measure, Wu reported 55.2% for the total explained variance and .81 for the Cronbach’s alpha, respectively (Wu, 2004). A copy of Wu’s Emotional Intelligence Scale for this study is presented in Appendix A.

Career Commitment

The surveyed students’ career commitment toward the hotel industry was measured using Chang’s (2004) measure for professional commitment, which contains seven (7) items in traditional Chinese. Response alternatives to each item are coded from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), summed, and then averaged so that the greater the score, the greater the career commitment.

Based on viewpoints of Aranya et al (1984), Blau (1989), and Chuang (2002), Chang (2004) developed the measure that gauges only surveyed subjects’ attitudinal commitment toward their profession. According to Chang (2004), the factor loadings of each one of the following seven (7) items tapping the attitudinal dimension were: .880 for “I will be able to bring out the best in myself if I am engaged in a career in hotel industry;” .872 for “I believe that a career in hotel industry suits me;” .863 for “If I were given the second chance, I would still choose the hotel management as my major;” .839 for “I am willing to work harder to have the hotel profession recognized by the general public;” .810 for “Even if I have some other job opportunities, I still won’t be leaving the

hotel industry for them;” .790 for “I always tell my friend that the hotel profession is worth being engaged in;” and .680 for “I do very much mind the public’s critiques about the hotel industry.”

As for the measure’s reliability, Chang (2004) reported .918 for the Cronbach’s alpha. A copy of Chang’s measure of hotel-majoring students’ career commitment toward the hotel industry for this study is presented in Appendix B.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter describes the sample and reports the results of descriptive statistics and hypotheses testing. In addition, suitable tables are arranged to illustrate the statistical results.

Description of the Sample

According to the statistics from Taiwan's Ministry of Education (2008), there was a total of 221 hotel-majoring seniors graduating in 2009 from two private vocational universities and one public vocational college in Taiwan. This population was comprised of 47 males and 174 females. Breaking down the numbers, there were 15 males and 41 females graduating from Jinwen University of Science and Technology (JUST), 23 males and 89 females from Minghsin University of Science and Technology (MUST), and 9 males and 44 females from National Kaohsiung Hospitality College (NKHC), respectively (Ministry of Education, 2008).

Table 4-1 presents the gender distribution of the sample included in this study. Of 221 graduating seniors, 186 agreed to participate in this study; the responding rate was 84.16%. In terms of gender, these surveyed graduates consist of 38 males and 148 female students.

Table 4-1

Gender and Educational Institutions Distribution of the Sample (N=186)

Institutions	<i>n</i>	Gender	
		Male	Female
JUST	44	10	34
MUST	93	19	74
NKHC	49	9	40

Descriptive Statistics

Table 4-2 describes hotel students' average scores for their career commitment toward the industry. The results revealed that the surveyed hotel graduates showed a slight willingness to enter the hotel industry upon graduation ($M=3.3257$) and that the SD was .79, indicating a relatively large difference in career commitment among the surveyed students according to a range of 1 through 5.

Table 4-2

Means for Career Commitment

Variable	N	Range	M	SD
Career Commitment	186	1-5	3.33	.79

Table 4-3 reports hotel students' average scores for their emotional intelligence (EI). The results revealed that the surveyed hotel graduates average showed moderate intelligence in their emotions ($M=3.5697$) and that the SD was .41, indicating a mild difference in EI among the surveyed students according to a range of 1.16 through 4.80.

Table 4-3

Means for Emotional Intelligence

Variable	N	Range	M	SD
Emotional Intelligence	186	1.16-4.80	3.57	.41

Table 4-4 compares the mean and SD of EI across the different internship programs. The results indicated that there was a significant difference in students' EI across the different internship programs, $F(2,183)=11.284, p<.05$. The mean for students working in the Front Office was 92.52, compared to 84.38 for those students working in Housekeeping and 89.52 for those in Food & Beverage. In addition, the SD for students working in the Front Office was 9.40 and 7.07 for students in Food & Beverage, while 12.11 for students in Housekeeping, indicating a relatively large difference in EI among them.

Table 4-4

One-Way Analysis of Variance Summary for Differences of Internships in Emotional Intelligence (N=186)

Internships	<i>n</i>	Range	M	SD	<i>F</i> -value
Front Office	77	60-120	92.52	9.397	11.284*
Housekeeping	55	29-110	84.38	12.110	
Food & Beverage	54	72-104	89.52	7.065	

Note. *= $p < .05$

Table 4-5 reports post hoc comparisons, in which *Scheffe* procedures were used to determine which pairs of means of the internship programs differed significantly. The results indicated that the mean difference between the Front Office and the Housekeeping was 8.138 and 5.137 between the Housekeeping and the Food and Beverage; both pairs' mean differences were significant ($p < .05$).

Table 4-5

Post Hoc Multiple Comparisons Using Scheffe for Internships

Internships	Mean	Mean Differences		
		1.	2.	3.
1. Front Office	92.52	.000		
2. Housekeeping	84.38	-8.138*	.000	
3. Food & Beverage	89.52	-3.001	5.137*	.000

Note. *= $p < .05$

Table 4-6 compares the mean and SD of EI across the different institutions. The results indicated that there was no significant difference in students' EI across the different institutions, $F(2,183)=1.661, p > .05$. The mean for students attending JUST was 86.80, compared to 90.06 for those students at MUST and 89.88 for those at NKHC. In addition, the SD for students at MUST was 7.92 and 7.72 for students at NKHC, while 15.57 for students at JUST, indicating a relatively large difference in EI among them.

Table 4-6

One-Way Analysis of Variance Summary for Differences of Institutions in Emotional Intelligence (N=186)

Institutions	<i>n</i>	Range	M	SD	<i>F</i> -value
JUST	44	29-120	86.80	15.574	1.661
MUST	93	72-110	90.06	7.922	
NKHC	49	73-105	89.88	7.715	

Table 4-7 reports the mean and SD of EI between male and female students. The results indicated that there was no significant difference in students' EI between male and female students ($t=-.507, p>.05$). The mean for male students was 88.16, compared to a mean score of 89.52 for females. The SD for male students was 16.02, indicating a relatively large difference in EI among them. The SD for female students was 8.19, indicating a mild difference in EI among them.

Table 4-7

T-test Summary for Differences of Gender in Emotional Intelligence (N=186)

Gender	<i>n</i>	Range	M	SD	<i>t</i>
Male	38	29-110	88.16	16.021	-.507
Female	148	64-120	89.52	8.187	

Table 4-8 compares the mean and SD of career commitment across the different institutions. The results indicated that there was no significant difference in students' career commitment across the different institutions, $F(2,183)=1.681, p>.05$. The mean for students attending JUST was 22.68, compared to 22.91 for those students at MUST and 24.51 for those at NKHC. The SD for students at JUST was 6.19, 5.53 for students at MUST, and 4.81 for students at NKHC, respectively.

Table 4-8

One-Way Analysis of Variance Summary for Differences of Institutions in Career Commitment (N=186)

Institutions	<i>n</i>	Range	M	SD	<i>F</i> -value
JUST	44	7-35	22.68	6.194	1.681
MUST	93	11-35	22.91	5.532	
NKHC	49	13-35	24.51	4.805	

Table 4-9 compares the mean and SD of career commitment across the different internship programs. The results indicated that there was a significant difference in students' career commitment across the different internship programs, $F=5.375, p<.05$. The mean for students working in the Front Office was 24.66, compared to 21.55 for those students working in Housekeeping and 23.07 for those in Food & Beverage. In addition, the SD for students working in the Front Office was 5.26 and 4.81 for students in Food & Beverage, while 6.14 for students in Housekeeping.

Table 4-9

One-Way Analysis of Variance Summary for Differences of Internships in Career Commitment (N=186)

Internships	<i>n</i>	Range	M	SD	<i>F</i> -value
Front Office	77	14-35	24.66	5.258	5.375*
Housekeeping	55	7-35	21.55	6.140	
Food & Beverage	54	11-32	23.07	4.805	

Note. *= $p < .05$

Table 4-10 reports post hoc comparisons, in which *Scheffe* procedures were used to determine which pairs of means of the internship programs differed significantly. The results indicated that the mean difference between the Front Office and the Housekeeping was 3.117, indicating a significant difference ($p < .05$).

Table 4-10

Post Hoc Multiple Comparisons Using Scheffe for Internships

Internships	Mean	Mean Differences		
		1.	2.	3.
1. Front Office	24.66	.000		
2. Housekeeping	21.55	-3.117*	.000	
3. Food & Beverage	23.07	-1.588	1.529	.000

Note. *= $p < .05$

Hypotheses Testings

Three hypotheses were posed in accordance with the research questions. The T-test was first employed to test Ho1---There is no statistically significant difference in the surveyed students' career commitment toward the hotel industry by gender.

Table 4-11 of *t*-test reveals that the null hypothesis should be rejected ($t=3.280$, $p=.001 < .05$), indicating that there was a significant difference between genders in students' career commitment toward the hotel industry upon graduation; the mean for male students was 25.84, while the mean for their counterparts was 22.62. The SD for male students was 6.15 and 5.19 for female students.

Table 4-11

T-test Summary for Differences of Gender in Career Commitment (N=186)

Gender	<i>n</i>	Range	M	SD	<i>t</i>
Male	38	11-35	25.84	6.149	3.280*
Female	148	7-35	22.62	5.192	

Note. * $p < .05$

As to Ho2---There is no statistically significant difference of the surveyed students' career commitment toward the hotel industry among high-, mid-, and low-score level of emotional intelligence (EI), one-way ANOVA was used. To execute one-way ANOVA, the surveyed hotel students were divided into three groups based on their EI score. According to Lys and Sabino (1992), test power is maximized when the two extreme groups each contain 27% of the sample. The top 27% students, with a score of 95 and above on EI, were then assigned to the top group; the bottom 27% students, with a score of 84 and below, were assigned to the bottom group; and all the other students receiving scores in between were assigned to the in-between group.

Table 4-12 compares the mean and SD of career commitment across the different EI groups. The results indicated that there was a significant difference in students' career commitment across the different EI groups, $F=14.286$, $p=.000 < .05$. The mean for students in the top group was 26.22, compared to 23.08 for those in the in-between group

and 20.85 for those in the bottom group. In addition, the SD for students in the top group was 4.97 and 5.16 for students in the in-between group, while 5.40 for students in the bottom group.

In addition, EI can explain 12.6% (ω^2) of the variance of the surveyed graduates' hotel career commitment; thus, the strength of association between these two variables is considered moderate according to Cohen (1988).

Table 4-12

One-Way Analysis of Variance Summary for Differences of Emotional Intelligence (EI) in Career Commitment (N=186)

EI	<i>n</i>	Range	M	SD	<i>F</i> -value	η^2	ω^2
Top	51	14-35	26.22	4.965	14.286*	.135	.126
In-between	80	11-32	23.08	5.158			
Bottom	55	7-35	20.85	5.400			

Note. *= $p < .05$

Table 4-13 reports post hoc comparisons, in which *Scheffe* procedures were used to determine which pairs of means of the EI groups differed significantly. The results indicated that the mean difference between the top group and the in-between group was 3.14 and 5.36 between the top group and the bottom group; both pairs' mean differences were significant ($p < .05$).

Table 4-13

Post Hoc Multiple Comparisons Using Scheffe for Emotional Intelligence (EI)

EI	Mean	Mean Differences		
		1.	2.	3.
1. Top	26.22	.000		
2. In-between	23.08	-3.14*	.000	
3. Bottom	20.85	-5.36*	-2.22	.000

Note. *= $p < .05$

As to Ho3---There is no statistically significant difference of the surveyed students' career commitment toward the hotel industry with respect to the interaction between their genders and emotional intelligence (EI), two-way ANOVA was used. To execute two-way ANOVA, the surveyed hotel students were divided into three groups once again based on their scoring on EI with the aforementioned method for division, that is, the top 27% students, with the score of 95 and above on EI, were assigned to the top group; the bottom 27% students, with the score of 84 and below, were assigned to the bottom group; and all the other students receiving scores in between were assigned to the in-between group. Table 4-14 describes the means for interaction of gender and EI. The results indicated that the mean for males in the top group of EI was 29.53, while females 24.83; the mean for males in the in-between group was 24.25, while females 22.87; the mean for males in the bottom group was 22.55, while females 20.43.

Table 4-14

Means for Interaction of Gender and Emotional Intelligence (N=186)

Gender	Emotional Intelligence		
	Top	In-between	Bottom
Male	29.53(15)	24.25(12)	22.55(11)
Female	24.83(36)	22.87(68)	20.43(44)

Table 4-15 reveals that the interaction between the surveyed students' gender and their EI on their career commitment toward the hotel industry upon graduation was not significant ($F=1.226, p=.296>.05$). However, the interaction effect between gender and EI could explain 16.4% (ω^2) of the variance of the surveyed students' hotel career commitment; thus, the strength of association among these variables is considered moderate according to Cohen (1988).

For gender's main effect, the male students' mean score for commitment toward hotel career upon graduation ($M=25.84$) was significantly higher than their counterparts' ($M=22.62$); the result ($F=8.556, p=.004<.05$) matches the previous findings, as described in Table 4-11.

Lastly, for EI's main effects, the students' mean score for hotel career commitment from the top group ($M=26.22$) was significantly higher than their counterparts' from both the bottom group ($M=20.85$) and the in-between group ($M=23.08$), respectively; the result ($F=12.717, p=.000<.05$) also matches the previous findings, as described in Table

4-12; however, due to the difference of the standard errors, the students' mean score for hotel career commitment in the in-between group was found significantly higher than the ones' in the bottom group ($p=.046<.05$); this result was quite contrary to the previous finding, reporting no significant difference between them ($p=.052>.05$).

Table 4-15

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects on Career Commitment

Variable	SS	df	MS	F	η^2	ω^2
EI	652.308	2	326.154	12.717*	.187	.164
Gender	219.438	1	219.438	8.556*		
EI*Gender	62.863	2	31.432	1.226		

Note. $*=p<.05$

Summary

The surveyed hotel graduates consisted of 38 males and 148 females from three institutions in Taiwan. The average showed 58.14% willingness to enter the hotel industry upon graduation and 64.24% score of intelligence in emotions. The emotional intelligence (EI) of students who worked in Housekeeping for their internship scored the lowest, compared to their counterparts in Front Office and Food & Beverage, respectively. In addition, there was no significant difference in students' EI across the study institutions and between genders. As to students' hotel career commitment upon

graduation, there was no significant difference across the different institutions, either. However, the hotel career commitment of students who worked in Front Office for their internship was significantly higher than their counterparts in Housekeeping. Male students also showed a significantly higher willingness to make a hotel career commitment upon graduation than their counterparts. Comparing the differences of hotel career commitment across three groups of EI, the students who were from the top group scored the highest. Finally, although the interaction effect between the surveyed students' gender and EI on their career commitment toward the hotel industry upon graduation was not significant, the strength of association among these variable was moderate.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter, discussion about the statistical results is first made and implications resulting from the discussion are presented thereafter. Finally, recommendations for stakeholders and for future study as the result of the implications are proposed to conclude this study.

Discussion

Based on the order of the statistical results in the previous chapter, corresponding discussions are presented. These follow:

First, regarding the uneven proportion of surveyed female and male hotel students in Taiwan, the males have constantly been outnumbered roughly 4 to 1 by the females in spite of the fact that Taiwan's booming tourism has fostered fast-paced development of the hotel industry; as a result, the need for human resources in the area of hotel management has become greater than ever. Even though more and more institutions offering hotel-related programs have become available during the most recent years according to the statistics of the Ministry of Education (2013), the uneven gender distribution still remains the same in undergraduate majors such as hospitality and hotel management. It postulates that one of the reasons to explain this phenomenon is the effect of gender roles.

Second, as to the average 58.14% willingness to enter the hotel industry upon graduation, many studies have similar results. It postulates that unsatisfactory and inconsiderate hotel working conditions may be to blame. Thus, how to reach the hardly met vocational educational goal simply by boosting the percentage of hotel graduates'

willingness to make career commitment toward the industry would not resolve the problem. Unless the hotels' working conditions are improved, most of them will leave the industry eventually. Changing the perception of a "turnover industry" would require implementation of comprehensive strategies to retain the workforce that has already been prepared for the hotel industry. Resolving this issue has become a very urgent matter for both the hotel academics and the hoteliers.

Third, as to the average 64.24% of the emotional intelligence (EI) the surveyed hotel graduates demonstrated, the score was found lower than that of their counterparts at comprehensive universities in Taiwan, compared to the findings of the study by Wu, using the same EI instrument as this study used. Since EI has been taken as a critical determinant of career commitment and career success, which is important to worker in pursuit of self-achievement, it is not only a requirement for the hotel academics and the hoteliers but for the hotel students themselves to get completely involved with the development of EI.

Fourth, as to the lowest EI score for students who worked in Housekeeping for their internship, it postulates that their job duties did not require frequent guest contacts during employment. This resulted in fewer opportunities to enhance their EI. Alternatively, these students could have long been troubled with low EI before the employment. Therefore, they would seek jobs that required less guest contact such as Housekeeping for their internship. Either way, it is imperative for the hotel academics and the hoteliers lay special emphasis on those who either have worked for or are currently working in Housekeeping for the sake of their EI development.

Fifth, as to the finding that there was no significant difference in EI among these

three institutions, it postulates that the quality and quantity of EI-related education these institutions had been offering were evenly in need of change.

Sixth, regarding no significant difference in EI between genders, it postulates that the selection of the instruments on EI could affect the results since findings of some studies support this result while some do not. Be that as it may, assuring both genders under the vocational educational system of the development of EI is a must for both the hotel academics and the hoteliers.

Seventh, as to no significant difference in surveyed students' hotel career commitment across these three different institutions, it postulates that the education design and the learning environment of these institutions would not significantly affect the students' intention of making a hotel career commitment upon graduation. Thus, the administrators, the teachers, and even the students themselves of these institutions should join together to ask the hoteliers for improvement of the working conditions for the sake of their students' development of EI and hotel career commitment.

Eighth, regarding the lowest willingness to go back to the hotel industry for a career upon graduation of the students who worked in Housekeeping for their internship, it postulates that in addition to the gender factor to consider the job duties of a housekeeper could hinder their intentions based on the requirement of physical strength and the generally inconsiderate working conditions. As aforementioned, lower EI of these students may have resulted in lower intention to reenter the industry. Thus, for the wellbeing of these students, more emphasis should be placed on both the development of EI and the improvement of working conditions by the hotel academics and the hoteliers.

Ninth, similar to the above mentioned discussion about the lowest willingness to

reenter the hotel industry upon graduation, the finding that the surveyed female students had lower intention of making hotel career commitment upon graduation than their counterparts deserves more attention from both the hotel academics and the hoteliers when considering the uneven gender distribution stated at the very beginning of this chapter. Thus, in addition to the need to redefine the deeply rooted gender roles in an oriental society, plans on the further development of EI and the improvement of working conditions need to be made.

Tenth, regarding the findings that significantly higher willingness to reenter the hotel industry for students with the highest EI than that of their counterparts and that the moderate strength of association between EI and career commitment have all contributed to EI's effect on career commitment. Thus, how to increase hotel students' EI in order to raise their hotel career commitment upon graduation is an urgent matter for both the hotel academics and the hoteliers.

And finally, although the interaction effect between gender and EI on hotel career commitment was not significant due to gender's uneven distribution of the sample, the finding of the moderate strength of association among these variables may have explained why there is an immediate need for both the hotel academics and the hoteliers to lay special emphasis on female students with lower EI concerning their development of EI and hotel career commitment.

Implications

In this section, the implications of gender, emotional intelligence (EI), and career commitment of Taiwanese hotel graduating students are presented in sequence.

The Expectations of the Female Hotel Graduates Unmet

It occurs as a result of cultural schema that has explained gender roles or gender essentialism that has limited career choices of both genders. Judging from the number of the surveyed graduating hotel students by gender, both genders are out of proportion with female students outnumbering their counterparts 4 to 1 according to the statistics of the Taiwanese Ministry of Education. Presumably dictated by gender roles, female students in an academic context are largely seen in the field of social science, including arts, education, administration and management, whereas males mostly in natural science.

For the part of the females, it is postulated that most females would naturally turn to the field of social science for both academic majors and career opportunities when they are asked by their parents to do so. Often, they find that they have not been encouraged to select academic majors or careers in natural science. More often, based on the gender norms they have been socialized to accept, females are apt to engage in activities that are highly service-oriented. Consequently, when at college level, some of them choose majors that are either in the management of areas that are relatively service-oriented or hospitality-related areas. One typical academic major is home economics. Students of home economics are able to learn how to care for their family and serve visiting guests in accordance with their gender role.

Due to the fact that hotels have been opening one after another during the past ten years in Taiwan, college graduates are attracted to hotel careers more than ever before. When a female student chooses her academic major with a focus on management of hotels, she specifically hopes to be able to apply what she has learned about caring for people to a hotel place, where the guest takes it as a home away from home. Thus, it would be quite a disappointment for them to be forced to give up an opportunity to apply.

In fact, they leave the industry because of work-family conflicts as well as unfavorable working conditions.

As for Taiwanese male students, most of them would have chosen their academic areas in natural science in accordance with their gender role. More often, they do so in order to obey their traditional parents because they serve a purpose in this oriental society. Thus, when a Taiwanese male decides to go for an academic major or a career that is not included in the realm of natural science, there is a good chance that he is doing it out of his interest with or without his parents' consent and support. And therefore, his commitment toward his choice may be expected.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, females have more or less been taken as the second sex in all Confucian countries, including Taiwan. Often bewildered by the trendy idea of no marriage and no children, Taiwanese couples considering giving birth to children will give priority to boys without a doubt. They do so because they deeply believe that only their sons will take good care of them when they get old and that only their sons are fit for such high-paying jobs as medical doctors, engineers, and scientists. Thus, when deemed necessary, with such medical help as abortion, couples wishing to have their own children choose to give birth to boys. And in the case of Taiwan this has further turned to a national matter of deep concern to the future development when considering that Taiwan's birth rate is frequently ranked either the lowest or second to the lowest in the world.

Once they have met these family goals, they will start investing time and money, heavily, in their sons in the hope of a future return. Thus, Taiwan's newborn rates by gender always rank the top ten in the world in proportion of 109 males to 100 females as

opposed to 106 males to 100 females in a normal distribution. The results have earned Taiwan the 5th spot in the world regarding quality of mathematics and science education and the availability of scientists and engineers, respectively, according to the Global Competiveness Report, 2011-2012 by World Economic Forum (WEF). Coincidentally, recent statistics about the member countries in the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) have also indicated the popularity of gender bias. As a result of it, equal rights to education and work have been affected for both genders to some extent.

Findings such as these indicate not only a huge loss to the industry but a terrible waste of education resources. Equal rights to work and education remain unsolved for both men and women. Therefore, it is an urgent matter for the stakeholders to attend to gender career choices and to support female students' hotel career commitment before they graduate.

Higher Emotional Intelligence Needed

Described in the previous chapter, emotional intelligence (EI) refers to the ability to perceive, access, and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions, and to regulate emotions so as to promote better emotion and thought (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). More importantly, EI has been taken as a critical determinant of many important outcomes in life, including career success (Goleman, 1995, 1998). Thus, it could be safely presumed that the higher the EI, the happier one would feel about himself/herself and the more successful career s/he would enjoy. Unfortunately, compared with previous findings on EI of the students from research-oriented universities, it was found that the EI of these surveyed hotel graduating students is on average lower. Thus, a particular

enhancement of EI is suggested for them in spite of the finding of no significant difference between genders in EI. Additionally, considering the facts that the emotional labor's work goes beyond physical or mental duties, that the emotional element in service excellence has been widely recognized by previous studies, and that Chinese people are notable for their endurance, the emphasis on EI cannot be stressed too much for Taiwanese students who plan to work in a service industry.

More importantly, EI helps promote career commitment. The rationale is people who are more self-aware emotionally are more likely to pick a career that matches their needs, values, and interests. Consistent with the person-organization fit literature (Ni, 2005), career commitment should occur when there is a person-career fit.

Finally, regarding the development of EI, the study's statistical results also revealed that students' work experience in interacting with hotel guests through direct and frequent contacts as a front desk clerk or a restaurant server helps facilitate one's growth of EI. Thus, it is worth the stakeholders' investment to look into this matter in terms of work assignments.

Higher Hotel Career Commitment Required

One final important determinant of career success is career commitment. Career commitment refers to the identification with and involvement in one's occupation (Cheng, 2005). It is postulated that people who are committed to their careers should experience more career success than those who are less committed. The rationale is people high on career commitment will likely persist in pursuing career goals even in the face of obstacles and setbacks (Cheng, 2005). Such effort and persistence should result in more career advancement. In addition, people who are more committed to a career should also

be more willing to make such significant investments in their careers as putting forth more effort and developing their work-related skills. Thus, such investments should have positive effects on career success.

The study found that the surveyed hotel graduating students showed little interest in going back to the industry, though they had completed internships, successfully. There may be some other undiscovered reasons behind these findings but, both gender and EI are two statistically significant determinants, as described previously. In the mean time, specific attention to the development of each of five components that comprise EI could help foster increased career commitment.

First, as to emotional awareness, since most of the hotel students are females, who typically have lower status than males in Taiwan's social status, it is suspected that they might find awareness of emotions meaningless. They have been told since childhood to just let loose their negative emotions such as crying or weeping in dealing with situations that require immediate presence of weakness or helplessness.

It is also pointless for those who are working as emotional labors to be aware of their own emotions. Aforementioned, in the hotel industry, whether greeting guests with smiles or being confronted by a difficult guest, employees need not know how exactly they feel. They must often conceal their real emotions and just deliver company-required emotions whenever and wherever they serve guests on the premises. Consequently, emotional dissonance occurs when the employee feels one set of emotions but must display another set for the purposes of the job. In the event of failure to display the required emotions or feeling uneasy about showing the approved emotions, either frustration about the job or avoidance of the job would eventually occur.

Based on the above mentioned theories, it is postulated that Taiwanese female emotional labors are more easily victimized on the job than their male counterparts on the job. Thus, for the purpose of promoting personal mental health and hotel career commitment, there is a great need to design and deliver sound curricular in feminism and emotional awareness for Taiwanese hotel students.

Second, emotions need to be managed properly once an individual becomes well aware of them. In the case of hotel service, because it is important for an emotional labor to have the ability to deliver smiles with courtesy whether in anger or in sadness, the know-hows for managing to express adaptive emotions in accordance with both the hotel's guest-serving guidelines and one's discretion should be the main topic of emotions training for hotel students.

Third, as to motivation, based on the career commitment theory aforementioned, neither students' affective commitment nor normative commitment toward the hotel industry can be generated without the support of their own self-motivation. In other words, less self-motivated hotel graduating students don't think they want to reenter the industry, nor ought they to reenter the industry. More importantly, Taiwanese vocation-tracked college students were found significantly less self-motivated and self-efficacious by past studies than their counterparts at comprehensive universities. Thus, all stakeholders have a duty to alter these trends.

Fourth, regarding empathy, the ability to understand how someone else might feel in a given situation and to experience some type of shared response to that same given situation, it is very important in the development of one's moral character (Chang, Lin, & Yeh, 2010). It is also suggested that empathy is key in the development of social

understanding and prosocial behavior (Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2004). In other words, if empathy is taught, one's morality be enhanced, one might have a better understanding and appreciation of others, and one might act in positive way toward others and in society in general. Empathy is not only a courtesy to people but a crucial part of hotel service; thus, emphasis on empathy cannot be stressed too much by all stakeholders.

Last but not least, social ability, a facilitator in interpersonal relations, is a must for career success in hotel business, where all kinds of people are closely interrelated. It is absolutely necessary for all the aforementioned stakeholders to strengthen social education.

In conclusion, now is the time for action through three-way collaboration in both satisfying Taiwanese female hotel students' needs for a more beneficial curriculum and instruction from academics and a more employee-friendly working environment from the hoteliers. These are imperatives in order to develop all hotel students' overall EI with a particular emphasis on each and every aspect of EI. The intent is to boost students' overall hotel career commitment upon graduation. Until the basic essential are met, stakeholders will not be able to enjoy the benefits derived from innovations that are implemented in preparation programs and internships. Recommendations on the actions are then proposed in the following section.

Recommendations for Stakeholders

In response to the aforementioned implications, recommendations in relation to issues on Taiwanese hotel students' gender, EI, and hotel career commitment are proposed for the following stakeholders.

For the Hotel Academics

As to hotel students' development of EI, researchers found that it is important to provide hospitality undergraduate students with training to enhance their EI skills prior to graduation (Scott-Halsell, Blum, & Huffmann, 2011). They also verified that hospitality undergraduate students do not have a sufficient level of EI to be successful leaders; therefore, it is imperative that hospitality programs integrate some level of EI training in the classroom to better prepare future hospitality leaders (Scott-Halsell, Blum, & Huffmann, 2011). However, it is difficult to just add EI training as an additional course in the already tight curriculum due to constraints mentioned in a previous chapter. It is suggested that hospitality academics teach their students with the purpose of ensuring that their students will be able to display some level of EI in the workplace. Because the hotel business is a part of the hospitality industry, the same would be true for all hotel academics.

Before teaching EI, teachers need to make sure that the students are ready to learn and that the learning content is related to their context. As to course selection, Scott-Halsell, Blum and Huffmann (2011) recommended that:

Management, leadership and human resource courses are a good fit for EI inclusion. Emphasis could be placed on emotional insight into self, ability to express emotions, as well as social insight and empathy. Case studies and role playing would be good methods for students to critically think about scenarios and how they would respond appropriately. Goal orientation and motivation could be emphasized in any number of hospitality related courses that incorporate projects as an assessment device. Requiring students to provide action plans and

status reports can present opportunities for instructors to provide feedback for improvement. Numerous text books and publications offer EI applications for students, although not always labeled as such, that faculty and instructors can incorporate in coursework to provide a solid framework for students to build up these necessary EI skills. (pp.10-11)

If using the Ability Model to teach EI, teachers will first teach students how to evaluate situations that they might encounter. Then, teachers will ask their students to make and act up to their own decisions (Caruso, Mayer, & Salovey, 2002). In fact, teaching using the Ability Model is somewhat like applying Transformative Learning Theory to teaching. To set up a learning environment to promote transformation, Cranton (2002) identified seven facets:

1. An activating event that typically exposes a discrepancy between what a person has always assumed to be true and what has just been experienced, heard, or read.
2. Articulating assumptions, that is, recognizing underlying assumptions that have been uncritically assimilated and are largely unconscious.
3. Critical self-reflection, that is, questioning and examining assumptions in terms of where they came from, the consequences of holding them, and why they are important.
4. Being open to alternative viewpoints.
5. Engaging in discourse, where evidence is weighed, arguments assessed, alternative perspectives explored, and knowledge constructed by consensus.
6. Revising assumptions and perspectives to make them more open and better

justified.

7. Acting on revisions, behaving, talking, and thinking in a way that is congruent with transformed assumptions or perspectives. (p. 66)

Alternatively, applying Problem-based Learning Theory to teaching EI, Brownell and Jameson (2004) found that students have become more aware of how their own biases, personal styles, cultural backgrounds and ethical foundations affect their team members after they are asked to videotape their meetings, write reflection papers, practice such skills as active listening and withholding judgment, and learn to manage humor.

As to the enhancement of students' hotel career commitment upon graduation, the hotel academics are encouraged to consider the following:

1. Reconsider the duration of their internship in that some researchers suggested one-year of internship could be too long for intern students to obtain any more challenging works from their supervisors. Thus, reducing the length of the internship could be considered as an alternative for indirectly prompting students' career commitment upon graduation.

2. Follow other institution's success stories in enhancing EI with the help of proper EI curriculum design, as suggested above.

3. Offer counseling sessions on careers to help students make wise career decisions.

4. Begin to attend to various issues on genders---starting from the very beginning of their enrollment and the recruitment of the prospective students.

5. Assure the students of the importance of the role model so that they can seek for career advice upon graduation.

6. Emphasize the importance of hidden curriculum for the development of EI.

7. Insist on the attainment of the mission statements that abide by the goal of the vocational education

8. Ask the industry to redesign the intern's job assignments for the purpose of their learning.

9. Ask the government to pay attention to the goals of the vocational education and the regulations pertaining to labor's working rights so that the hoteliers would not have any opportunity to abuse the intern's labor.

10. Focus at least on education of a whole person, if obtaining little support from the government and the hoteliers.

For the Hoteliers

As to the enhancement of hotel graduates' career commitment upon graduation, the hoteliers are encouraged to consider the following:

1. Recognize the philosophy that employees are assets instead of expenses to the hotel business.

2. Display initiatives in operating the business, especially based on the fact that the industry is a booming industry in Taiwan. Just because the Taiwanese government does not care about the infamy for the world's longest working hours contributed by an average worker does not mean the hotel's working condition and everything should be kept in line with all other businesses.

3. Follow Marriott's success story (2007) in getting rid of the infamy that the hotel industry is a turnover industry by appreciating the worth of the females and truly acting on the principle that employees are assets, male and female alike.

4. Aware that today's workplace is mainly constructed in accordance with males'

gender roles, capabilities, and needs according to Hochschild (1997). In this case, the pitfall that the work design caters only to the males needs to be discovered and overcome. In addition, they need to be aware that if the laboring conditions are not improved in time, they will be facing impacts as results of both the fierce competitions for business as well as the scarce labor force resulting from Taiwan's frequent lowest new born rate in the world.

5. Offer orientation and on-the-job training to reinforce interns' development of EI.

6. Be prepared for the effects as results of both the fierce competitions for business as well as the scarce labor force resulting from Taiwan's lowest new born rate in the world.

7. Help create labor unions to address overlooked human-related problems.

8. Appreciate students' constantly seeking for growth opportunity through challenging works even during their internship.

9. Have managers available, from whom students can learn during their internship.

10. Consider more valued extrinsic rewards for their interns.

For the Hotel Students

To facilitate their hotel career decision, the hotel students are encouraged to consider the following:

1. Understand their own personality and reexamine their own career interests.

2. Truly understand and appreciate the essence of EI to their life and career.

3. Fully recognize the context of the hotel industry.

4. Be fully prepared to adjust themselves to the not-so-female-friendly society and workplace. It is more important for the females to be prepared.

5. Make choices in advance between career, life, and family.
6. Set career goals with the help of career counselors.

Recommendations for Future Study

To foster hotel students' career commitment toward the industry, the following recommendations are proposed for follow-up studies:

1. Investigate other distal determinants on hotel career commitment such as parents' social status, personality types, and age of the students; in addition, such proximal determinants as students' part-time job experience, GPA, hotel companies where they worked during the internships, and experience in extracurricular activities could be included to establish the relationships with career commitment.
2. Determine the relationships between the above mentioned independent variables and the career commitment and decide the predictors.
3. Compare the differences of and investigate the effects of the components of EI on career commitment.
4. Compare the study results with different choices of instruments on EI, whether self-reported or skill-based.
5. Consider different disciplines and cultures.
6. Reexamine the interaction effects of gender and EI on career commitment in more gender-balance samples to prevent the skewed results.

Appendix A: Emotional Intelligence Scale

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	No Comment	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	I am aware of it when I am in a bad mood	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	I understand if I'm in a good or bad mood now.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	I can sense my current state of emotions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	I can tell if I'm in fear or in anger from my physical reactions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	I'm a person who doesn't have feelings for anything.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	I always keep myself in a good mood.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.	My emotions are easily affected by my surroundings.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.	I tend to be sentimental.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9.	I often maintain emotional stability.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10.	I feel depressed when things don't go my way.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11.	When I begin to do something, I will set goals in advance	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12.	I'll seriously carry out my work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13.	In the face of pressure I always choose to deal with it rather than avoiding it.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14.	I'll withhold my enjoyment before achieving my goals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15.	To achieve my goals, I'll resist any temptations.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16.	When someone is distraught, I feel very sorry for him/her	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17.	I feel angry if I see someone get picked on.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18.	I am joyful whenever I see someone get a birthday present.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19.	I'll help deal with my friend's problem with all my heart.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20.	I feel sympathetic when I see lonely senior citizens.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21.	I make friends easily.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22.	I don't like to go anywhere near people.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

23.	I like chatting with a bunch of people.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24.	I like cooperating with others to get the job done.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25.	I love social activities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix B: Measure of Hotel-Majoring Students' Career Commitment toward the Hotel Industry

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Certain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1.	I will be able to bring out the best in myself if I am engaged in a career in hotel industry	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	I believe that a career in hotel industry suits me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	If I were given the second chance, I would still choose the hotel management as my major.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	I am willing to work harder to have the hotel profession recognized by the general public.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	Even if I have some other job opportunities, I still won't be leaving the hotel industry for them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	I always tell my friend that the hotel profession is worth being engaged in.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.	I do very much mind the public's critiques about the hotel industry.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

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