

**OCCUPATIONAL STRESS AND JOB
PERFORMANCE AMONG SCHOOL
TEACHERS: MODERATING ROLE OF
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND
EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE**

BY

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NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MODERN LANGUAGES

ISLAMABAD

2024

Occupational Stress and Job Performance among School Teachers: Moderating Role of Organizational Commitment and Emotional Competence

By

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M.Sc. Applied Psychology, National University of Modern Languages Islamabad, 2019

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY

In Applied Psychology

To

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY
FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES



NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MODERN LANGUAGES, ISLAMABAD

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THESIS AND DEFENSE APPROVAL FORM

The undersigned certify that they have read the following thesis, examined the defense, are satisfied with the overall exam performance, and recommend the thesis to the Faculty of Social Sciences for acceptance.

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Candidate of **Master of Philosophy** at the National University of Modern Languages do hereby declare that the thesis "**Occupational Stress and Job Performance among School Teachers: Moderating Role of Organizational Commitment and Emotional Competence**" submitted by me in partial fulfillment of MPhil degree, is my original work, and has not been submitted or published earlier. I also solemnly declare that it shall not, in future, be submitted by me for obtaining any other degree from this or any other university or institution.

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ABSTRACT

Title: Occupational Stress and Job Performance among School Teachers:
Moderating Role of Organizational Commitment and Emotional
Competence

The present study was designed to investigate the impact of occupational stress on job performance among school teachers. Data was collected from various schools of Rawalpindi and Islamabad following the convenient sampling technique. Total sample of (N = 500) school teachers including both male (n = 150) and female (n = 350) with age range of 23 to 60 years participated in the study. In this study, teachers occupational stress questionnaire (TOSQ; Shirom, Oliver & Stein, 2009), Organizational Commitment Scale (Mowday, 1979), Emotional Skills and Competence Questionnaire (Taksic, 2001) and Job Performance Scale (Goodman & Svyantek, 1999) were used. The results indicated that occupational stress has significant negative correlation with job performance. Organizational commitment and emotional competence are significantly positively correlated with one another. Organizational commitment and emotional competence have significant positive correlation with job performance. However, significant gender and age related variables emerged on study variables. T- test shows that women experienced much more occupational stress than men did ($p = .001$). It was revealed that there are hardly any mean differences across age groups for the studied variables. The mean differences between organizational commitment and job performance have been found out to be highly significant. Findings of this study will guide the school administration in protecting school teachers from occupational stress and reduced job performance by providing social support in the workplace and trained them to cope up with the difficult situations. Further studies may be conducted to study same relationship in college and university teachers as well.

Keywords: Occupational Stress, Organizational Commitment, Emotional Competence, Job Performance

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

OS	Occupational Stress
JP	Job Performance
OC	Organizational Commitment
EC	Emotional Competence
ERI	Effort Reward Imbalance
P-E Fit	Person – Environment Fit
JDC	Job Demand Control

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Foremost, I owe deep sense of gratitude to, ALLAH ALMIGHTY, the most gracious, the most merciful, the most beneficent, and the Lord and Creator of the entire universe for showering his abundant Grace and providing me with courage and knowledge to complete this task.

It is a genuine pleasure to convey the utmost appreciation to my honorable and devoted Supervisor Dr. Tasnim Rehna to supervise my work. Without her professional guidance, determination, immense knowledge and overwhelming attitude to help her students, this project was impossible to be completed. She not only taught me domain knowledge of Psychology but her sincere advice, incredible conveyance of ideas and recommendations of writing a dissertation prepared me to carry out outstanding research in future. I pay my thanks to the employees too, who took part in the research, understand the nature and purpose of the study and cooperated for the collection of data. I am also thankful to the administrations of the firms for permitting me to conduct the research in their organizations. Most prominently, I pay my heartiest regards and support to my mother and father for their emotional, moral and financial support. It's only because of their inspiration, love, care and encouragement I have done writing my thesis. I would also like to pay a huge thanks to my brother Farrukh Javed for tolerating, supporting and assisting me whenever I was stuck at any point.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is devoted to my beloved parents and my honorable supervisor

“Dr. Tasnim Rehna”

Without whom I would not have had a year to peacefully inspect the new construct

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Context of the study

In a wide range of professions, the occurrence of occupational stress and the search of better performance has attracted much research attention. In the modern world, one of the most serious health issue has been considered as occupational stress (Lu et al., 2003). In different studies, it has been said that one of the stressful occupation is teaching (Borg & Falzon, 1993; Fontana & Abouserie, 1993; Jing, 2008). Mental and physical health can be deteriorated by a prolonged experience of stress in school teachers (Chance, 1992). Meanwhile, occupational stress in school teachers is also problematic due to its consequences on job performance (Jamal, 1984; Dickman & Emner, 1992). Stress is basically the inconsistency between situational and environmental factors in the employee's resources and ability to manage the occupational stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Edworthy, 2000).

In some aspects of his/her work, a teacher finds nervousness, excessive pressure, hindrance in performing a teachers' role and above all, depression and anxiety (Kyriacou, 2001). As a result of technological changes and demand for greater productivity, workplace has become a source of extreme stress (Jahanzeb, 2010). Occupational stress can lead to several negative consequences for the workplace and the individual as well according to various studies (Oginska-Bulik, 2006). People who feels more stress in their occupation might not be contented with the job and hence will not sense or feel satisfied while working in that organization. Meanwhile, it is significant for the employers and employees to identify the tension, stress and anxiety factors that cause undesirable influence (Bhatti et al., 2011).

It was hypothesized for several years that stress helps to motivate a person and escalate focus and concentration to the job. Thus, resulting in improvement in job performance but nowadays, this tendency is rapidly fluctuating and beyond a certain optimal level of stress, job performance starts reducing (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1980). Job performance basically denotes to either employee's distinct behaviors or activities or their organizational values (Kocak, 2006). In several studies, it has been showed that with the increasing level of stress, performance has been decreased whether it has been measured by organizational opinions of efficacy, job performance or supervisor ratings on work-associated investigations (Jamal, 1984; Motowidlo, Pakard, & Manning, 1986).

Teacher's job performance is basically the measurement of degree of success or failure of teachers on the basis of different assignments, tasks or responsibilities that they have to perform in order to achieve the school objectives (Cheng & Tsui, 2006). Borman & Motowidlo (1993) postulated that job performance might be clustered in two types i.e. task performance and contextual performance. In a particular organization, task performance states that those accomplishments that are somehow associated to maintenance and implementation of practical method. Meanwhile, those events that add to organizational effectiveness in such ways that form the social, psychological, and organizational environment can be concluded as contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

Organizational commitment improves job performance (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Rich et al., 2010). Organizationally committed personnel demonstrates an extensive range of self-motivated performances that increases collaborative team effort leading to certain goals in the organization (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Bakker et al., 2006). Later, these collaborative efforts lead to increased employee's job performance (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008; Bakker et al., 2008).

These determinations and performances are basically the reason behind the ability of organizationally committed employees to relocate their feelings throughout the organization (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Mullen & Copper, 1994; Bakker, 2009). Researches suggests that extremely committed employees are not only emotionally and cognitively connected to their efforts, but also pursue their role-related objectives (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Committed employees work in collaboration with their colleagues, try to contribute to their organizational objectives and goals, and take responsibility of their tasks (Baumruk, 2004; Miles, 2001). Rather than non-committed employees, committed employees concentrate more fully on their work (Rich et al., 2010). Suggestions for having strong impact on job performance is basically commitment to the organization (Rich et al., 2010; Saks, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

If organization is providing a good working environment, health and other benefits, and satisfaction with the organization then the employee becomes more committed to his organization and feels it dangerous to leave the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Among all these factors, behavior and attitude of school teachers depends on their emotional competence (Luthans et al., 2007). Emotional competence has an impact on the behavior, attitude and job outcomes of teachers. Also, the psychological, physical and professional achievements of teachers also depend on emotional competence (Luthans et al., 2014). At the workplace, individuals' satisfaction depends on the level of their organizational commitment. Those school teachers who have high level of emotional competence might be able to balance personal life and occupational stress (Rego & Pina-e-Cunha, 2008). This study aims to measure the influence of occupational stress and job performance among school teachers whereas the organizational commitment and emotional competence indirectly influences job performance.

1.2 Rationale of the Study

Although there are some researches on the association between occupational stress, job performance and organizational commitment (Hang & Xiaoli, 2007; Huang et al., 2007), many other changes in the education environment were observed. School teachers face many new challenges, and the situation is difficult in Pakistan. Despite the fact that occupational stress in teachers has become a popular study issue, factors relating to demographics and occupations have not gotten enough systematic consideration (Iwasaki et al., 2004; Liu et al., 2005). Demographic variables and levels of stress are most affluently predicted by absenteeism of employees, poor job performance, and job dissatisfaction and these factors are basically negative outcomes (Duyiliemi, 1992; Liu et al., 2008). In determining levels of stress, occupational stress is increasingly focused on job related and demographic factors (Duyiliemi, 1992; Liu et al., 2008).

The above-mentioned studies are from western literature. There aren't many studies in this field that are done outside of the West (Leithwood, 2007). Teaching has been observed as one of the demanding occupations in developing nations like Pakistan for a variety of causes, comprising employees pay structure, position or their status in school, audits, workload, stressful working conditions and school environment (Naheed et al., 2000). In addition to Hanif and Pervez's (2003) comparison of female school teachers (primary and secondary), other research has been done to determine the association between job performance and occupational stress (Dua, 1999; Imam, 1990). Studies have consistently established a negative relationship between stress levels and performance, as evaluated by authorities' ratings, managerial views of effectiveness, or work performance on job-related exams (Jamal, 1984; Motowidlo et al., 1986). Although research on the detrimental impacts of occupational stress on teachers' job performance is very extensive in

the context of western nations, less is known about these consequences internationally (Chang, 2007).

A lot of the research on emotional competence in the workplace makes the assumption that it inevitably leads to improved performance, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship, and transformative leadership (Abraham, 2003). Performance is crucial among these results since a company's ability to compete depends on the effectiveness of its staff. However, prior empirical investigations of different studies have discovered that emotional competence only slightly improves performance as a whole (Murensky, 2000; Wolff et al., 2002; Wong & Law, 2002).

Emotional competence, according to Bar-on (2002) and Chang (2007), is basically a set of talents and abilities that can be learned and honed through practice. There are numerous training programs that aid in the growth of teachers' emotional competence at various stages of development (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Despite this, it's critical to determine the emotional competence of teachers as a first step and the connection between this trait and job performance in the classroom. It is clear from the study of the literature that many researches have looked at different aspects impacting teachers' job performance, but few of these studies have looked at the influence of psychological factors (Costa, 2009).

By identifying gaps in the literature that has been discussed above, the current study is conducted to offer the underlying mechanism of emotional competence and understanding of concepts. Meanwhile, the study is designed to further provide knowledge on how interactively organizational commitment and emotional competence play a moderating role in the effects of occupational stress on job performance of school teachers. Investigating the occupational stress and job performance among Pakistani school teachers is significant for several reasons. Firstly,

without any kind of data or information, defining interventions, preventions and research needs would be problematic for any society. Unfortunately, there are hardly any or few valid and reliable data accessible about school teachers' emotional competence and the fundamental mechanisms in Pakistan. However, some of the researches have already been organized on school teachers, but only few studies deal with school teachers' emotional competence (Loona, 2012; Syed and Hussein, 2009). That's why, the recent or current study was conducted to discover the vital features of school teachers' emotional competence along with organizational commitment and study their moderating role on occupational stress and job performance.

1.3 Research objectives

1. To investigate the relationship between occupational stress, organizational commitment, emotional competence and job performance among school teachers.
2. To explore the impact of occupational stress, organizational commitment and emotional competence on job performance among school teachers.
3. To study the moderating role of organizational commitment and emotional competence in relation between occupational stress and job performance among school teachers.
4. To explore the demographics related differences (Age, Gender, Family system, Income level and Marital status) on study variables.

1.4 Research Questions

Q.1: Does the occupational stress affect the job performance among school teachers?

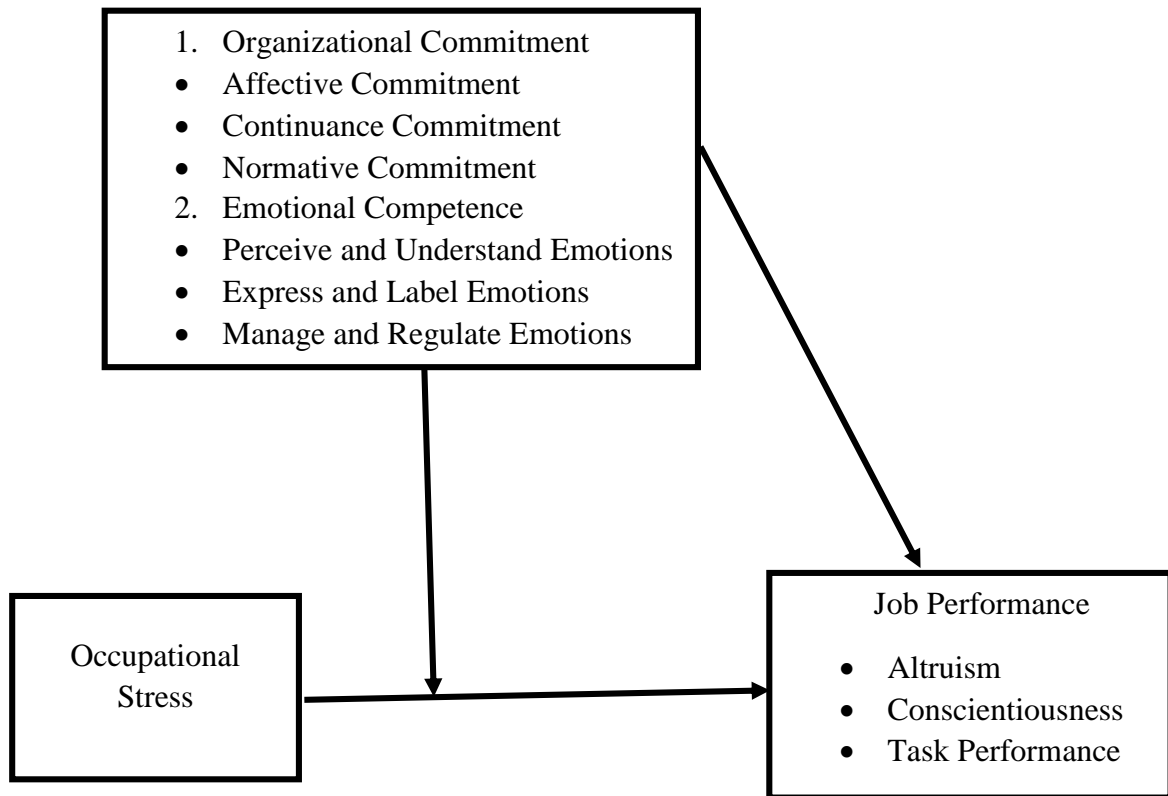
Q.2: Does organizational commitment and emotional competence have impact on occupational stress and job performance among school teachers?

Q.3: Does the occupational stress affect organizational commitment and emotional competence among school teachers?

1.5 Research Hypotheses

1. Occupational stress is negatively related to job performance among school teachers.
2. Occupational stress is negatively related to organizational commitment and emotional competence among school teachers.
3. There is positive relationship between organizational commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment), emotional competence (perceive and understand emotions, manage and regulate emotions, and express and label emotions) and job Performance (altruism, conscientiousness and task performance).
4. Occupational stress decreases job performance (altruism, conscientiousness, and task performance) among school teachers.
5. Organizational commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment) positively predicts job performance among school teachers.
6. Emotional competence (perceive and understand emotions, express and label emotions, manage and regulate emotions) positively predicts job performance among school teachers.
7. Organizational commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment) buffer the effect of occupational stress on job performance of school teachers.
8. Emotional competence (perceive and understand emotions, express and label emotions, manage and regulate emotions) buffer the effect of occupational stress on job performance among school teachers.
9. Female school teachers experience more occupational stress as compared to male school teachers.

1.6 Conceptual Model of the Study



1.7 Significance of the Study

The present study will be considerably struggling in prominence of the factor of occupational stress in school teachers. Occupational stress leads to the reduced job performance in school teachers. So, it is important to educate school teachers about the organizational commitment and emotional competence that helps to lessen occupational stress and escalate job performance in school teachers.

Therefore, the major goal of the present study is to observe and explore the relationship between occupational stress, organizational commitment, emotional competence and job performance among school teachers. Regarding existing study, it is important to study the important factors of occupational stress that reduces job performance in school teachers. Findings

of the current study will help the school teachers to improve their occupational stress factors, their commitment to their organization and emotional competency and will also help school teachers to find out the different aspects of increasing job performance.

1.8 Operational Definition

Occupational Stress

Occupational stress can be defined as the harmful physical and emotional responses that occur when the requirements of the job do not match the capabilities, resources, or needs of the worker, which lead to poor health and even injury (Rehman, 2008). The participants who scored higher in the Teacher Occupational Stress Questionnaire (TOSQ) depicts high occupational stress and those participants who scored lower on Teachers Occupational Stress Questionnaire (TOSQ) depicts less occupational stress.

Organizational Commitment

There are various definitions of organizational commitment one been as the desire on the part of the employee to make high efforts for the good of the institution, longing to remain in it and accept its main objectives and values (Porter & Lawer, 1965). Another widely accepted definition is that of Greenberg and Baron (2008) who define organizational commitment as the degree to which employees identify with the organization where they work, the degree of commitment they show and whether they are willing to leave it. The teachers who scored higher on Organizational Commitment Questionnaire demonstrates that the teachers have high organizational commitment and those teachers who scored lower on Organizational Commitment Questionnaire have low organizational commitment.

Affective Commitment

Affective commitment is defined as the emotional status when employees have a strong identification with and attachment to their organization's goals and values (Kim et al., 2016). The employees who have affective commitment want to devote their lives to the organization. The persons who scores higher on affective commitment are highly committed with their organizations.

Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment refers to the tendency to stay in current organizations for fear of losses or costs brought by turnover (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Along with affective and normative commitment, they indicate the effectiveness of organizational acts on retaining their employees (Meyer et al., 2002). The participants who shows low scores on continuance commitment are basically those who are afraid of losses or costs.

Normative Commitment

Normative commitment refers to the totality of normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests (Wiener, 1982). Those who were having high scores on sub domain of organizational commitment shows that they are having normative commitment.

Emotional Competence

Emotional competence (EC) can be understood as a group of generic skills that can be applied to many types of emotion-related skills (Garner, 2010). The ability to identify and discriminate emotions is especially important in youth development (Ciarrochi & Scott, 2006) and may be influenced by a person's initial orientation to his/her emotion-related problems. When an individual has an ineffective orientation, he/she will try to avoid thoughts and feelings related to

the problem (Frauenknecht & Black, 1995). In such a case, he/she may fail to identify emotions and thus be less able to resolve emotional problems in constructive ways and less likely to accept his/her own feelings. The participants who scored higher on Emotional Competence Inventory depicts that they are more emotionally competent and the participants who scored lower on Emotional Competence Inventory depicts that they are emotionally non-competent.

Perceive and Understand Emotions

Perceive and understand emotions is basically awareness of one's emotional state, including the possibility that one is experiencing multiple emotions, and at even more mature levels, awareness that one might also not be consciously aware of one's feelings due to unconscious dynamics of selective intuition (Saarni, 1997). The participants who scored higher on this sub domain shows that they are well aware of their own emotions and understands others as well.

Express and Label Emotions

Express and label emotions is basically the ability to use the vocabulary of emotion and expression terms commonly available in one's (sub-culture) and at more mature levels to acquire cultural scripts that link emotion with social roles. Moreover, it is an ability to realize that inner emotional state need not correspond to outer expression, both in oneself and in others, and at more mature levels the ability to understand that one's emotional expressive behavior may impact on another and to take this into account in one's self-presentation strategies (Carpendale, 1997). Those individuals who are having high scores means that they can express their emotions.

Manage and Regulate Emotions

Emotion regulation concerns how people manage emotional experience for personal and social purposes. It is a complex and multifaceted process, and is developmentally important because it is central to social competence, psychological wellbeing, and risk for affective psychopathology (Thompson & Jochem, 2008). The participants who showed high scores can easily manage and regulate their emotions.

Job Performance

Job performance has been defined by Motowidlo (2003) as the quantity of the predictable value to the organization of the distinct social occurrences that a person engages in over a determined length of time. The teachers who scored higher on Job Performance scale by their supervisors depicts that they are performing well in their job and those teachers who have got low scores by their supervisors on their job performance scale depicts that they are not performing up to the mark in their job.

Altruism

Altruism is the unselfish concern for other people—doing things simply out of a desire to help, not because you feel obligated to out of duty, loyalty, or religious reasons. It involves acting out of concern for the well-being of other people (Barragan R & CS., 2014).

Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness is the personality trait of being responsible, careful or diligent. Conscientiousness implies a desire to do a task well, and to take obligations to others seriously. Conscientious people tend to be efficient and organized as opposed to easy-going and disorderly.

They tend to show self-discipline, act dutifully, and aim for achievement; they display planned rather than spontaneous behavior; and they are generally dependable. Conscientiousness manifests in characteristic behaviors such as being neat, systematic, careful, thorough, and deliberate (tending to think carefully before acting) (Thompson, 2008).

Task Performance

Task performance can be defined as the effectiveness with which an employee performs activities that contribute to the organization's technical core, either directly by implementing a part of its technological process, or indirectly by providing it with needed materials or services (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Occupational Stress

Stress is the insufficient coping with workplace environment that leads to the negative consequences on employees' psychological and physical health, due to negative emotions (Fiabane et al., 2012). Occupational stress leads to high dissatisfaction with work, low enthusiasm and high absenteeism as a result of its harmful effects on person's health (Damle, 2012). When a person experiences low levels of stress, it does not affect that much but when an individual experiences great level of stress over an extensive era of time, then it definitely affects their mental and physical health and stimulates negative emotions and a person might feel pressure, anxiety, depression, loss of appetite, lack of sleep, irritability, deteriorated mental and physical health and finally bad performance at work (Petek, 2018). Stress exists in different forms according to different researches; it might be job related, social, emotional, occupational and psychological. As most of the people spend a lot of time at the workplace, as a result of this, occupational stress has been emerging as a growing concern over the past few decades. According to Blix et al., (1994), among the ten leading work-related health problems, occupational stress is one of them.

WHO defined occupational stress in 2003 as; when people face different pressures or come across with different demands at their workplace that are unknown to them and then test their capability for coping. Over the years, stress has been defined in different ways. Earlier, it was thought that it is a pressure that is coming from the outside world but then it was realized by the researchers that it is a pressure that is coming from the individual itself (Amjad & Khan, 2008).

Stress is a blend of psychological and physical reactions to challenging situations or inspirations (Selye, 1964; Fevre, 2003).

One of the other definition of occupation stress concludes that it is basically an emotional imbalance in a person's behavior and attitude that occurs as a state of confusion at work (Nwadiani, 2006). Moreover, occupational stress proceeds when resources of an individual are inadequate to fulfill their demands of the context. Therefore, stress varies from person to person and situation to situation (Michi, 2002). According to Seyle (1956), who was quoted by Sengupta (2007), stress from innovative, thrilling and effective labor is productive as compared to that stress that results from failure, shame, or contamination is harmful. Habs Seyle (1956) distributed stress in two separate categories further; Eustress and Distress

a) First category that is eustress is considered as pleasurable, or relaxing stress. Furthermore, behavior is more likely to be improved by this kind of stress. Other sources of eustress concludes those events that had somehow a motivating impact on the individuals and could be helpful in developing the personality.

b) The second category of distress is considered as harmful stress. One's ability to concentrate and perform is affected by distress. Generally, this kind of stress leads individuals less interested and less motivated to their work.

Also, it was learned that how an individual took a stimulus and respond to it determined either it was distress or eustress. A person's response to satisfying or pleasurable stress and being aware of stress results in eustress, while a negative perception of stress emerged as distress. In order to differentiate between the two principles of eustress and distress, it has been realized that

perception and understanding of the stimulus is equally important as the level of demand is (Fevre et.al.,2003).

Since those employees who have either less or no control on their working conditions and also finds themselves at lower levels of organizational hierarchy are more likely to experience stress (Nazarian & Beheshti, 2013). Meanwhile, the employees are more likely to worry about losing their jobs therefore, they experience more stress during stable reformation (Colquitt et al., 2011). During organization restructuring, reduced output is expected as a result of stress which is challenging for employees. Low productivity of employees results when they react depressingly to the adjustments and finds it difficult to keep calm and less stressed out (Jones et al., 2008)

Extreme demands and pressures causes inadequate work design, insufficient work design and poor management that results in occupational stress (Mukhalipi, 2014). Leka et al. (2003) state that taking insufficient opportunities for extra education and training, rare opportunities for promotion and other aspects that disturb job security can be causes of occupational stress. Workplace stress can be reduced by having a special bond with one's colleagues. Due to poor relationships with seniors, subordinates, and colleagues, occupational stress may occur (Bickford, 2005). When workers feel themselves under pressure to work or perform in certain conditions, stress may be intense and the consequences might become more conflicted. Moreover, there are extraordinary anticipations associated with extended hours, huge volumes, or apparent stress from management.

External controls from superiors are another source of stress at work (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2006). For instance, if a chief commandment has decision-making authority, then he or she may create stress to a member of his/her organization. Lack of organizations' top-down approach also brought stress in employees because they consider themselves as the pillars of the organization but

when it comes to decision-making, they are not the ones who are involved or give any opinion while making the main or important decisions about the organization. Meanwhile, the employees feel after this kind of injustice as if their rights are being disrupted because this will result in incapability to support their families, and delay in salary also causes stress in employees. Occasionally, contribution and control are mentioned as autonomy. It is a situation in which the employee lacks control (Bickford, 2005).

Characteristics of teachers' occupational stress mainly include poor health, job dissatisfaction, low morale and job turnover (Wirefield, 2014). In schools, different stress contributing factors negatively influenced teachers' job performance, thus resulting in low or poor individual and organizational productivity. Among these, certain other factors of occupational stress also include large number of classes and students' strength, working environment, promotional delay, pressure by authorities and parents (Jack & Punch, 2005).

Almost every profession and industry has stressors; Chapman (2006) divides them in two groups: acute and chronic. Acute stresses are the result of the fight-or-flight response to an immediate threat, such as loud noise, crowding, bullying, or harassment. Chronic stressors include stresses including continual work pressure, interpersonal issues, loneliness, and chronic financial worries that continue even after the urge to flee or fight has been stifled. Working conditions that expose employees to work overload like teachers, police, managers, and prison guards, main causes of occupational stress and burnout arises such as role ambiguity, conflicts between workers and management, difficult interpersonal relationships, social support, locus of control and job autonomy according to studies by Chapman (2006).

Self-centeredness, hate, concern, guilt, anger, envy, oversensitivity, grief, resentment, jealousy, fear, frustration, and the need for approval are some of the stressors listed by Willis

(2005). He went on to list additional life events, such as divorce, death of a spouse, personal injury or illness, marriage, sex difficulties, pregnancy, a new family member addition, financial obligations (loan, mortgage), problems with in-laws, problems with bosses, changes in work conditions, changes in schools, and slight infractions of the law, which all contribute to excessive stress. As stated by Chapman (2006), the characteristic of stress at workplace include maltreatment or harassment, not involved in determining one's own responsibilities, feeling helpless, constant unreasoning performance expectations, conflict resolution and lack of effective communication. Furthermore, insufficient job security, extended hours of working, an exceeded amount of time away from family, workplace conflict and staff politics, feeling of having reward that is not adequate with his/her responsibilities, working hours responsibility, and lack of job security (diet, exercise sleep and rest, family time) also contributes in occupational stress.

Minimum one-third teachers experience significant occupational stress and burnout according to Kenny, 2000. One of the research findings showed that instructors' reactions to stress were caused by workload, although participant self-efficacy views, principal support, and the usage of effective coping mechanisms decreased those experiences (Van Dick & Wagner, 2001) Negative features of teaching include discipline issues, students' disinterest, crowded classrooms, forced transfers, inadequate pay, and a lack of administrative support, according to Tomic and Brouwers (2005).

According to Hezberg and Paice (2002), high self-expectations in the field, obtaining funding for research, a lack of advancement, an inadequate salary, document preparation, are the main factors that lead to stress among academic staff. Moreover, inconsistent job demands, role overload, a lack of progress in career advancement, regular interruptions, and protracted meetings are considered as stress factors in academic staff (Hezberg & Paice, 2000). Idris (2010) is

particularly apprehensive about school teacher stress due to the numerous harmful consequences. Workplace stress and burnout, according to Williams and Gersch (2004), had a significant influence on the psychological and physical health of employees.

Teachers who are under stress at work are more likely to experience turnover, absenteeism, job dissatisfaction, reduced productivity, lowered mental and physical health than their less stressed colleagues. When a teacher is under stress at work, the students they educate are badly impacted because they may not have positive interactions with teachers and they may fail crucial exams, which compromises their possibilities for the future (Ngeno, 2007 & Kitenga, 2009). According to Bachkirova (2005), it is significant to lessen the harmful consequences that the occupational stress may have on school teachers. As a result, he believes that there is a requirement to focus more attention on the epidemic of occupational stress among teachers, which is constantly spreading.

The circumstances identified by Hakanen et al., (2006) as contributing to teachers' susceptibility to occupational stress include swarming lecture halls or classrooms that pressurizes the student-teacher ratio, preparing exams, invigilation and marking, preparation of reports and work load in terms of activities and lessons per week. As a result, lesson plans have had to deal with the human supply shortage, particularly in public primary schools. Certainly, this results in work stress for both class teachers and school administrators, with the former experiencing an increased workload and the latter dealing with an even greater administrative burden. These factors all contribute to work stress and burnout among the affected teachers (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2006).

In agreement with these views, Ngeno (2007) and Kitenga (2009) found that inadequate pay, a high workload that causes burnout, and a lack of promotion possibilities were additional factors linked to teacher stress. These are complicating factors since they might result in low

morale among the already overworked teachers. As a result of any part of their job as a school teacher, they feel stress when they may experience unfriendly, negative emotions including worry, tension, anger, frustration, or sadness. The quantity of stress and strains placed on an individual, as well as the degree of incompatibility between those demands and that individual's capacity to handle them, can all contribute to teacher stress. Strain is a response to stress and burnout that is basically a state of emotional, physical, and attitudinal weariness, can result from teacher stress (Kyriacou, 2001).

According to Kyriacou (2001), the main causes of school teacher's occupational stress varies depending on the nation and its educational framework. He adds that job happiness is a complicated topic since, "even in the context of overburdened feeling, in a valued area of work, taking on extra duties need not create greater stress, and may rather boost job satisfaction". According to Kyriacou (2001), central sources of teacher's occupational stress are teaching those students who are least motivated, maintaining discipline, management of time or restrictions and workload, dealing with change and coworkers, being evaluated by others such as colleagues or coordinators, status and self-esteem, administration and management, ambiguity, role conflict and poor working conditions.

2.2 Job Performance

Job performance is an essential construct that has received significant attention in the domains of human resource management and organizational psychology. Job performance is defined as person's capacity to complete tasks successfully while utilizing tools offered at work (Jamal, 2007). Contrarily, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) suggested that the definition of job performance encompasses both task and contextual performance. The latter emphasizes how

critical social skills are in predicting work achievement. The efficiency with which job holders carry out tasks that advance the technical foundation of their organization is termed as task effectiveness (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997).

Griffin (2005) stated that an individual's performance is determined by three factors: the work environment, motivation, and capacity to accomplish the job. Chandrasekar (2011), who claimed that the office environment has a significant impact on employee morale, productivity, and job performance, provides support for this. Employees will become demotivated and perform at a lower level if they do not enjoy the working environment. For instance, unplanned work schedules, unsuitable authority or responsibilities, absence of acknowledgement, and a deficiency of the opportunities for making independent decisions would all contribute to employee unhappiness. Such restrictions would put pressure on workers, which would have a negative effect on how well they performed their jobs.

According to Obilade (1999), teacher performance has been defined as the duties and tasks accomplished by instructors over a fixed period of time in accordance with the educational system's organizational objectives. An employee's level of participation in a variety of daily activities affects how well they accomplish their work in their particular organizations or instructions (Peretemode, 1996). In addition, instructors must perform organizational duties that are not part of their job requirements.

The effectiveness of the instruction that teachers provide to students in the classroom is measured by the way they perform their jobs, which is how the school will successfully accomplish what it set out to do. The extent to which a teacher fulfils a specific role duty in line with predetermined standards is referred to as a teacher's job performance, according to Nayyar (2009). A teacher's performance is defined as their conduct that adapts to their surroundings in such a way

that when a specific task is provided, they successfully carry it out (Chen & Tsui, 2005; March, 2007; Medlay, 2012). Dibia (2008) measures the effectiveness of teachers primarily in terms of his pupils' capacity to pass or fail exams (internal and external).

Dibia (2008) observed that students' academic achievement is a very important indicator of how well teachers are able to impart knowledge, skills, concepts, values, and the like to students at all levels of the school. According to Adeyemi (2010), a teacher's ability to incorporate pertinent contributions for the improvement of the learning and teaching process is a key component of their job performance. It is also referred to as the tasks carried out by instructors at a specific time in the educational system to accomplish organizational objectives. A teacher's job performance is the extent of the desired outcomes for teachers who have been given a specific task or set of responsibilities to complete, which may lead to the achievement of the school's objectives (Adebule, 2004). It is the extent of a teacher's work accomplishment in a school that leads to the production of high-quality students who will be useful and functional to society after school.

Igukor (2008) asserts that teachers' performance is a gauge of students' performance. Teachers with the goal of attaining the school's objectives. It is connected to the how much a teacher employs desirable skills, how well pupils perform on tasks, and their academic level achievement in the exam. Three categories of the teachers' performance can be made in general. Principal categorizations, including task, contextual and adaptive task performance is actually the outcome of task performance (Bakker & Bal, 2010; Cai & Lin, 2006). Technological conduct and tasks related to the employment of the employee (Griffin and Neal, 2008). Here, the ability of the worker (teacher) to carry out technical tasks is discussed such as educational system design, data gathering and analysis, and research and data analysis are typically put to the test (Borman & Brush, 2008).

From the viewpoint of a teacher, task performance refers to a series of regulated job behaviors that they can exhibit. The teaching value, teacher-student contact, and effectiveness are all components of how well teachers do their tasks (Cai & Lin, 2006). Organizational goals are followed by those employees who maintain the social, organizational and psychological environment but those goals do not directly add to the technical core are mentioned as contextual performance (Borman & Brush, 2008). It consists of professional ethics, commitment to one's work, support, and collaboration between teachers (Cai & Lin, 2006). According to Pulakos et al. (2005), adaptive performance is a new paradigm in performance in which learning plays a significant performance role. This new definition of performance marks a shift from earlier conceptions in which learning was seen as a requirement for performance. The learning process itself is viewed under the adaptive performance as a component of the performance that ought to be viewed as a performance aspect. According to Pulakos (2005), the adaptive performance includes aspects like dealing with emergencies, managing work-related stress, finding innovative solutions to difficulties, exhibiting interpersonal adaptability, and displaying physically oriented adaptation.

2.3 Organizational Commitment

In industrial – organizational psychology literature, the concept of organizational commitment has gained popularity (Cohen, 2003). O'Reilly (1989) defined the term of organizational commitment as a person's psychological link to the organization, encompassing an intellect of work participation, belief and constancy in the organization's principles. According to this perspective, organizational commitment is demonstrated by employees' willingness to their acceptance of organizational goals hence on behalf of the organization, they put forth effort (Miller & Lee, 2001).

An employee's proof of identity with and involvement in the organization was referred to as organizational commitment (Porter et al., 1974). Shared ideals, a desire to remain a member, and a readiness to put up work on behalf of the organization are characteristics of committed people. Schools may experience committed teachers who are emotionally invested in their students, subject areas and school (Firestone & Pennell, 1993). A number of researches have shown a connection between teachers' work attitudes, job performance, intention to leave their profession and the organizational commitment of the school (Imran et al., 2014; Jing & Zhang, 2014; Wang, 2010). According to Fresko et al. (1997) and Louis (1998), school teachers' organizational commitment has a significant influence on the efficacy and efficiency of their job and is linked to their level of job contribution and enthusiasm (Emami et al., 2013).

Organizational commitment was initially seen by Meyer & Allen (1984) as having two dimensions: affective and continuance. The first aspect of commitment is described as positive feelings of empathy with, attachment to, and association in the work organization that is referred to as affective commitment, while the second aspect of commitment is described as the extent to which employees may experience commitment to their organization by distinction that they feel are related with leaving and this aspect of commitment is referred to as continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1984). A third aspect of normative commitment has been added by Allen and Meyer (1990) after doing additional study. Allen and Mayer (1990) described normative commitment as the feelings of obligation of an employee to continue with the organization. Since affective, continuation, and normative dimensions all play a role in organizational commitment, it is classified as a tri-dimensional term (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Organizational commitment has been considered as an important clairvoyant for some negative and positive outcome variables as shown by previous two decades of research (Meyer et

al., 2002). The employees having higher level of affective commitment perform higher as compared to those employees who have lower level of affective commitment. Meanwhile, commitment to the organization is negatively related with absenteeism, turnover and stress and along with that, it is positively associated with job satisfaction of employees, motivation, and job performance (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Individuals who are not committed to their organization are supposed to have the lowermost level of acceptance about their organizational values and also felt withdrawn from that organization (Scarborough & Somers, 2006).

Moreover, organizational commitment is a main issue in the field of human resource management. At individual and organizational levels, employee commitment towards the organization may lead to significant positive outcomes. Allen and Meyer developed the central model of commitment that comprises three dimensions of normative, affective and continuance. While recent representations involve two more aspects including attitude to work and organizational behavior. Organizational commitment possesses both extrinsic and intrinsic dimensions.

In an organization, tough external motives are important. Meanwhile, the inner belief is more even and reasonable because it is entrenched in one's own beliefs. Through effective educational interventions, it is essential to highlight those factors that affect organizational commitment (Ahola et al., 2014). In all dimensions, for the growth of society, general education system and schools can provide the suitable context. School teachers' serves as the main actors in training and development of different qualities of human resources are the key elements in the qualitative development of education (Zhou, 2015). In the education system, every reform or reconstruction is destined to failure without active contribution of school teachers and their commitment towards their organization. Some of the factors in the affective commitment includes

human relations and well-being, job satisfaction, work outcomes, burnout, employee's physical health, organizational health and stress reduction (Nagar, 2012).

Those employees who are organizationally committed experience less burn out and more satisfaction in the organization. Along with the different consequences like honesty, personal growth, trust, increased creativity and development, there are evidences that denotes a relationship between commitment and spirituality (Li & Yi, 2010).

O'Reilly (1989) defined different phases of organizational commitment as compliance, internalization and identification. Through remuneration or promotion, compliance focuses around the employees who accept the guidance of others that mainly serves to provide benefit from them (O'Reilly, 1989). In the very first stage, behaviors and attitudes are implemented to gain particular rewards not on the basis of shared beliefs. The nature of organizational commitment is somehow associated to the continuance dimension commitment in the compliance stage, in which the employee is decisive in the organization with the prerequisite to stay while assessing the rewards (Beck & Wilson, 2000).

Employees accept the influence of others in order to maintain a self-defining and satisfying relationship with their organization and this phase is called as an Identification stage (O'Reilly, 1989). As part of their self-identity, employees may consider the roles they have in the organization as well as they feel honored to be part of that organization (Best, 1994). In this phase, organizational commitment is centered on the normative dimension (Allen & Meyer, 1997). When an employee is directed by duty and sense of loyalty towards their organization, he or she stays in the organization.

When the employee finds out that the values of the organization are fundamentally rewarding and hence constant with his/her personal values then internalization stage takes place (O'Reilly, 1989). At this level and at this stage, organizational commitment is based on the affective dimension and employee develops the sense of belongingness along with the passion to fit in the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1997).

Organizational commitment is shaped by the variety of factors such as employment opportunities, personal characteristics, job-related features, organizational structure, management styles and positive relationships. At this individual level, organizational commitment is an important job-related consequence which may have an influence on other work-related consequences including turnover rate, absence, job role, job effort and job performance (Randall, 1990). Those job roles that are confusing may lead to the deficiency of organizational commitment, meanwhile advertising opportunities of the organization can also improve or reduce the commitment to the organization (Curry et al., 1996). Autonomy level and responsibility are the other job factors that could have influence on the commitment to the organization. Higher the level of autonomy and responsibility associated with a job, more interesting and less repetitive it is, and the level of organizational commitment expressed by the employee who fill it would be higher (Baron & Greenberg, 1990).

According to Curry (1996), the presence of employment opportunities can influence organizational commitment. When those individuals who are having a strong perception of finding another job as they think about such desirable alternatives, then they become less committed to the organization. Moreover, when there is lack of other employment opportunities, there is a chance of high organizational commitment (Vandenberghe, 1996). Organizational involvement is based

on continuance commitment in which employees are continuously balancing and calculating the risks of leaving and staying (Allen & Meyer, 1997).

Individual characteristics of employees such as age factor, gender and tenure of service can also influence organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). According to Baron and Greenberg (1990), those employees who are senior by age and experience tend to report satisfaction with their job performance than those who are with less experience and are junior by age. As compared to other age groups, the people who are older in age, inclined to be more committed to their organization. According to Allen and Meyer (1997), gender is another individual trait that may influence organizational commitment. Meanwhile, it is argued by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) that gender differences arises due to different work characteristics and experiences in commitment that are further linked to gender.

Organizations are constructed of working relationships, and supervisory relationships are one of them. Supervisory relationships can have a beneficial or bad impact on the organizational commitment, according to Randall (1990). In the organization, occupational practices such as management of performance that how they are being executed leads to a positive supervisory relationship (Randall, 1990). Individuals tend to be more committed to their organization when they find their supervisory relationship to be fair in practices (Benkhoff, 1997). Teams or groups are the other work relationships at the workplace that can influence organizational commitment. Members of the organization might show dedication when they can find importance in their working connections (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Commitment of employees and attachment to their organization can be improved by initiatives in order to enhance the social climate and feeling of purpose of the organization (Brooke et al., 1988). When working connections show mutual respect between the organization and the individuals, people are able to oblige to the company.

Important role of organizational structure has been depicted in organizational commitment such as bureaucratic structures tend to have a harmful influence on organizational commitment. In terms of the employee's loyalty and attachment to the organization, the formation of more flexible structures and the removal of bureaucratic barriers are most likely to add to the improvement of employees' commitment (Zeffanne, 1994). Level of commitment can be increased by the management when they will provide greater influence and direction to the employees (Storey, 1995).

An organizational style is basically one of the styles that helps to satisfy employee desires and demands for authorization and commitment to the organizational goals and boosts employee involvement. Zeffanne (1994) stated that the solution to the issue of employee responsibility, dedication, and connection can involve providing inspirations while also removing demotivators, such as board styles that are incompatible with their unique circumstances and modern representative goals. Gaertner (1999) contends that "more compliant and partaking administration styles can emphatically and particularly upgrade hierarchical responsibility". Associations need to guarantee that their administration methodologies are pointed toward further developing worker responsibility as opposed to consistence (William & Anderson, 1991).

The adverse consequence proposes that the degree of authoritative responsibility is short. Representatives having a low degree of hierarchical responsibility will generally be inefficient and a few become idlers at workplace (Morrow, 1993). Lowman (1993) states that hierarchical responsibility can be viewed as a "work brokenness when it is described by less responsibility and more responsibility".

The extraordinary pace of turnover rates and non-appearance of staff are related with the lower degree of commanding responsibility in specific cases (Morrow, 1993). Cohen (2003)

impels that "nonexistence of authoritative responsibility or dependability is referred to as an explanation of moderated exertion use, demonstrative non-appearance, turnover rates, robbery, work disappointment and reluctance to transfer". Hierarchical responsibility is appreciated to be the best indicator of workers' turnover rates, than the undeniably more every now and again utilized work fulfillment indicator (Mill et al., 2003). Employees who work in a persistent responsibility aspect are able to be calculative of their visit, one would find that such employees may persistently escape work when they want to do so.

Hierarchical obligation can bring about a stable and useful labor force (Morrow, 1993). It allows employees to deliver their imagination and to add somehow towards authoritative improvement drives (Walton, 1985). Exceptionally dedicated employees don't leave the association since they are disappointed and will more often than not take thought-provoking work exercises (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Serious employees are regularly accomplishing and have imaginative orientation with an ultimate point of taking part in and further developing implementation (Morrow, 1993). Emotionally and normatively committed individuals are bound to keep up with hierarchical participation and add to the progress of the association than continuation of committed individuals (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

2.4 Emotional Competence

An individual's capability to control the expression and intensity of emotions that he/she feels is referred as Emotional Competence (Gross, 2002; Gross & John, 2003; Lazarus, 2006). Basically, it is a progression of behavioral, physiological and cognitive accomplishments that empower the person to moderate their experience and expression of negative and positive emotions (Chang, 2009). Particularly in the teaching profession, good-quality interactions with others

guarantees good emotional competence in which school teachers are persistently required to manage emotions of their students as well as their own emotional displays (Gross, 2002). Curchod-Ruedi et al. (2010) found in a recent study that emotional regulation ability on teachers' emotional competence is an ability to be a purpose of the relationship among regulation of emotions displayed and the regulation of emotions experienced.

The capability of people to deal with emotional information successfully, often known as emotional competence (or emotional intelligence), is one aspect of individual variations that has drawn increasing attention as a person-related psychological resource (Ciarrochi & Scott, 2006; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2004). When using self-report measures in the studies like this one, some of the researchers prefer to use the more neutral and generic term "emotional competence" (Ciarrochi & Scott, 2006; Giardini & Frese, 2006). Emotional competence is the ability to comprehend, control and express one's social and emotional features of life in such ways that help an individual to cope with challenging and emotionally charged situations is known as emotional competence, which is treated here as an affective talent (Kotsou et al., 2011).

Emotional competence is a form of individual coping that teachers can use to successfully achieve and deal with internal and external pressures in a demanding work environment (Brackett & Katulak, 2006; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Moreover, it is thought that those people who are emotionally competent are supposed to better accustomed than those fellows or colleagues who are less talented because they have access to their own feelings and can control their negative conditions, even when emotionally provoked by trying circumstances, according to Zeidner (2009). The assimilated operation of such emotional competencies, according to Chan (2006), may make teachers less susceptible to burnout because they will have better approach to the constructive information and achievement tendencies found within emotions. They will be able to

use this information to understand their responses to stressors as well as to direct appropriate action. Since the conditions for enhancing classroom management are the capacity to be able to manage the relationships and to demonstrate personal awareness when necessary, emotional competence has been thought to be mainly related to work behavior in school teachers (Garner, 2010). According to expanding empirical studies, emotional competence may account for the distinctive diversity of both attitude-related and behavioral work results (Garner et al., 2013; Giardini & Frese, 2006).

One of the personal assets that could operate as a protective factor and lessen the impacts of teacher work stress is having a high emotional competence (Brackett et al., 2010; Jennings, 2011). The levels of perceived stress are suggested by Zeidner (2009) as one of numerous underlying processes that may act as a mediating factor in the association between emotional competence and occupational-related stress. Related to the recent study, findings from earlier researches indicate that school teachers who are uncertain about their capacity for emotional knowledge and lack self-assurance in their capacity for emotional regulation are less likely to feel stressful situations in control, that generally exhibit higher perceived stress (Brackett et al., 2010; Jennings, 2011). These people may increase their chance of low job performance if they continue to experience high amounts of stress.

It is risky to assume, however, that educators with high levels of emotional intelligence will likewise feel as they have more control over their stressful environments because they can more effectively recognize and regulate their negative attitudes (Zeidner, 2009). In fact, evidence from numerous studies demonstrating a negative association between emotional competence and stress experience (Collie et al., 2012; Garner, 2010) supports the usefulness of emotional

competence as a personal trait that influences how stressful daily events are subjectively interpreted.

Those teachers who are emotionally competent assumed to have high self-awareness. Teachers know how to identify their emotions, their emotional forms and tendencies. They also know how to create and use emotions like joy and enthusiasm that will motivate learning in themselves as well as in others. Teachers identify their emotional powers and weaknesses as well as they have a representative understanding of their capabilities (Lopes, 2006). Through mutual understanding and cooperation, teachers are capable to form strong and supportive relationships, hence, they can efficiently negotiate solutions to conflict situations. Those teachers who are emotionally competent, understands that other people may have different perspectives than they do and are culturally sensitive themselves (Brackett et al., 2006). Emotionally competent teachers hold this perspective in account into relationships with colleagues, peers and students. Emotionally competent teachers respect others and hence they take responsibility for their actions and decisions. They make responsible decisions and hence exhibit prosocial values that are built on an evaluation of factors that involves how their decision-making may affect themselves and others (Salovey & Lerner, 2006). Moreover, those teachers who are emotionally competent recognize how to attain their behaviors, emotions and relationships with others. When emotionally aroused by challenging situations, they are able to manage their behaviors (Goodard & Hoy, 2004).

2.5 Theoretical Background of the Study

According to Selye (1936), non-specific response to demands is called stress. Meanwhile, in the occupational stress literature, there has been an absence of agreement for a definition of stress or anxiety. Stressors are basically those events or demands that are related to work and

further they lead to tension or strain; whereas strain is defined as mental or physical consequence of stress (Beehr, 1995). According to Beehr (1995), when work-related features lead to either poor mental or physical health, occupational stress occurs. In the literature of occupational stress, it has been defined that stress is depending on the interactional, individual or environmental perspective and, hence, it is a model that is basically used to study the concept (Cox & Griffiths, 2005).

Effort – Reward Imbalance Model

Siegrist (1996) proposed an effort – reward imbalance model that is centered on social exchange of the work agreement that further hypothesizes that the levels of effort applied should be balanced with the levels of rewards that has been achieved. The model of effort – reward imbalance describes stress as it is a contract among environment and the person, a predetermined interchange is expected that is constructed on an give-and-take of suitable rewards like career mobility, money, job security or esteem and these kinds of adequate rewards are established on the effort of an employee which is mandatory to complete their task (Siegrist, 2008). Here comes the literal meaning of effort-reward imbalance model that if there exists any imbalance between the efforts performed by an individual to perform the task and the rewards received as an outcome of that effort, then there must be emotional distress and restlessness that a person will experience. There exists two dimensions of effort like extrinsic effort that includes external demands and pressures whereas intrinsic effort includes only individual's motivation.

On the other hand, rewards have been categorized by three factors that includes career (job security/mobility), esteem and money. There is a justice component to the effort-reward imbalance depending on the work made and the benefit received, as has been demonstrated. The act of injustice may be viewed as not offering adequate incentives in exchange for effort, and this feeling

of injustice might lower someone else's self-esteem (Siegrist & Marmot, 2004). While understanding the influence of occupational stress among employees, researches have used the effort – reward imbalance model and harmful health outcomes have been found.

In addition to this, low control and high demands leads to emotional distress which further leads to poor physical health including enlarged body mass index and cholesterol concentration (Kivimaki et al., 2002), depression, incident type 2 diabetes (Siegrist, 2004), high risk of coronary heart disease and cardiovascular disease mortality (Kivimaki et al., 2005). In order to reduce the incidence of stress and to lessen its impacts, organizations need to develop policies and rules. Hence for this purpose, Siegrist (2005) suggested the leadership training for supervisors and stress management training for employees. These trainings focused on provision of recognition and esteem to employees.

Job – Demand Control Model

Job – demand control model was developed by Karasek (1979) that conceptualizes stress as it is an interaction between demands of work/job and control of an employee related to that job or work. Psychological demands are required from an individual to complete that particular task. Moreover, decision freedom or control is the degree in which individual has the ability to complete the given task. The model states that job strain occurs as a result of low control and high demands, hence, this job anxiety or strain leads to negative health effects. Further, this model explained four stages of strain i.e., active jobs, high stress jobs, passive jobs and low strain jobs (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). Low control and high job demands are described as high strain jobs whereas high control and low job demands are characterized as low strain jobs. Meanwhile, active jobs are

having high control and high demands and passive jobs referred to low control and low demands (Karasek & Theorell, 1990).

One of the most extensively used models is job – demand control model that understands the influence of occupational stress on health. Several studies have been conducted in which this model has been used to examine the influence on a range of health consequences or outcomes. Syn et al., (2007) have proposed a study on industrial and organizational employees and have found out a relationship among high demands-low controls (High levels of job strain) and higher allostatic load, systolic blood pressure and body mass index. Moreover, type-2 diabetes is associated with high job strain (Agardh et al., 2003). There would be increased risk for major depression when there will be high levels of job strain and this was moderated for women by the level of social support that they receive from their social circle including family, friends and colleagues (Blackmore et al., 2007). In a longitudinal study, the people might experience strain in at least two to three time periods if they are exposed to chronic high strain, this would be linked with increased risk of persistent coronary heart disease (Aboa-eboule et al., 2007). According to Schnall et al. (1990), occupational or job stress has also been related to increased left ventricle and increased risk of hypertension.

Person-Environment Fit Theory (P – E Fit Theory)

Person – Environment Fit theory (P – E fit theory) suggests that occupational stress rises due to an absence of fit among resources and abilities, personal skills and work demands of the environment (Caplan 1987; French et al., 1982). However, collaborations may occur between individual and environmental variables as well as between objective realities and subjective perceptions. It has been argued by the researchers that stress can occur when there is an absence

of fit between job environments where workers' needs meet or to the extent where an employee's attitudes and abilities meet the demands of the job (French et al., 1974).

According to the Person – Environment (P – E) Fit Theory, attitudes and behavior are predicted by the equivalence among individual traits (such as abilities, needs or values) and environmental factors (such as job demands, job supplies or organizational values) (Adkins, Ravlin, & Meglino, 1996; Cable & Judge, 1997). Stability of the variables used to make matches determines whether a good fit now would remain a noble fit tomorrow (Sekiguchu, 2004). According to Ryan & Kristof-Brown (2003), some of the traits may be more malleable than others. For instance, values and personalities are frequently used to conceptualize P – E fit. Values that are not as much stable than personality and more subject to a range of variations and the effects of new environments, despite the fact that both personality and values are thought to be generally stable. Hence, fit based on personality similarities may be rather stable, whereas fit based on value correspondence may change over time. According to the P – E fit theory, there are advantages to a person and their environment being a good match (Ellis & Tsui, 2007). The P – E fit notion essentially asserts that there may be similarities between elements of organizations and elements of people (Roberts & Robin, 2004). Therefore, the fundamental premise of the P – E fit model is that individuals' compatibility with their environments determines their attitudes and behaviors (Lee & Antonakis, 2007).

The fit or congruence between a scenario and an individual's traits appears to influence how they would react in that situation. Teachers seem to be entangled in a difficult web of personality traits and professional obligations. Teachers may experience a moral dilemma when carrying out their professional responsibilities because of the tension between their personal needs and those of the classroom. Positive outcomes, especially in the face of challenges, may occur

from a fit among the teacher's personal and professional requirements. The teacher's capacity to manage situations, however, may be impacted by personality disequilibrium caused by inconsistency between these demands.

2.6 Organizational Commitment and Occupational Stress

Earlier scholars explored the influence of stress level among individuals with altered degrees of devotion to their organization; personnel who possess an extraordinary sense of dedication level come across more apparent methods of stress as related to those colleagues who possess not as much of devotion (Al-Hawajreh, 2011). Diverse pressures emerge from several different reasons, including work pressure, role conflict, role uncertainty and independence (Gargr & Dhar, 2014). Workplace stressors have been shown to had a high negative correlation with the organizational commitment in terms of the relationship between these two variables. (Ali & Kakakhel, 2013; Gargr & Dhar, 2014; Haque & Aston, 2016). In fact, there must be a potent impact of staff members' physical and mental health on organizational commitment (Eisenberger et al., 2010; Meyer & Maltin, 2010).

It is predicted that people will have less influence over the above-mentioned sources of stress (Gargr & Dhar, 2014). Hence, work-related stress affects employees' attitudes and behaviors by reducing their job performance and job productivity (Haque & Aston, 2016). Employees with high levels of stress are predicted to have low levels of organizational commitment because self-development requirements are the primary factor influencing organisational commitment perception (Gargr & Dhar, 2014).

2.7 Occupational Stress and Emotional Competence

Nikolaou and Tsaousis (2002) and Sy, Tram, and O'Hara (2006) keep up with that representatives with emotionally competent people on a profound level stand up to low occupational stress in their work climate. However, representatives with low emotional competence on a deeper level have less mindfulness, and subsequently, despite troublesome circumstances, they can't adapt to their sentiments and have a lot of pressure which, impacts their job performance. In one of a handful of the examinations investigating the connection between the emotionally competent people on a deeper level and occupational stress, Bar-On et al. (2000) and Nikolaou and Tsaousis (2002) researched the relationship among the factors in various occupational gatherings. The outcomes showed a negative connection between the emotionally competent individuals on a profound level and occupational stress. Bar-On et al. (2000) examined emotional competence ability to understand anyone on a profound level in two-word related bunches including cops and paraprofessional work force in emotional well-being and kid care callings. The conclusions of this study demonstrated that cops had more significant levels of the ability to appreciate individuals at their core as compared to the other gathering. Likewise, Bar-On et al. (2000) proposed that the cops can be more versatile to distressing occasions and pick better ways of dealing with hardship or stress if they become more mindful of their own sentiments and figure out themselves.

In one more concentrate by Aghusto Landa, Aguilar-Luzon, Berrios Martos, and Lopez-Zafra (2008), aspects related with the emotionally competent people at their core, for example consideration, lucidity, fix, and occupational stress were explored.

2.8 Occupational Stress and Job Performance

Occupational stress can welcome troublesome effects among workers from end to end for making low job performance (Leather et al., 2003). Job performance plays a significant part in working on the presentation of employees (Munro et al., 1998). As per a few examinations (Johnson et al., 2005; Munro, 1998), employees having less occupational stress may have increased job performance as compared to those workers who are having high occupational stress. Work disappointment is one of the pressure sources as stated by Holdsworth and Cartwright (2003).

For example, in the event that an individual is disappointed with the design of the association, the disappointment become one of the causes of occupation disappointment. The consequence of certain investigations (Holdsworth & Cartwright, 2003; Lambert et al., 2009; Sweeney & Quirin, 2009) showed that there is connection among occupational stress and job performance. In a review, Sveinsdottir et al. (2006) recommended that job performance has a connection with occupational stress. Antoniou et al. (2003) revealed that reduced job performance can be anticipated through assets of stress like requests of the calling and incredible capacity of work.

2.9 Organizational Commitment and Emotional Competence

The capacity to understand people on a deeper level has a significant relationship with work results like organizational commitment and job performance (Wong & Law, 2002). It means that employees who can't evaluate and control their feelings have less authoritative responsibility, Abraham (1999). Additionally, people having emotional competence on a profound level are more dedicated to their associations and have superior execution at work (Nikolaou & Tsaousis, 2002).

Outcomes that uncovered the utilization of feelings in ability to emotional competence with organizational commitment notwithstanding the feeble and normal connections among the control of feelings and figuring out feelings through organizational commitment. For the most part, positive connections were tracked down between the emotionally competent individuals and organizational commitment. Likewise, the specialists expressed that emotional competence is a critical figure expanding organizational commitment. In other review, it was discovered by Guleryuz (2008) that full of feeling responsibility had good connection with the ability to appreciate people at their core. As a matter of fact, representatives with emotional competence had more elevated levels of full of feeling responsibility and connection to association. Moreover, there was a negative connection between the emotional competence and continuation responsibility, and proceeded with responsibility of an individual with high ability to appreciate people on a deeper level diminished. It was observed that there was high sure connection among the emotional competence and organizational commitment. Guleryuz et al. (2008) found too that capacity to appreciate individuals at their core doesn't have huge direct way on hierarchical responsibility. Be that as it may, job performance was a middle person between the emotional competence and organizational commitment.

2.10 Organizational Commitment and Job Performance

Although organizational commitment and job performance have been conceptually and experimentally linked, the relationship is not always present (Kim et al., 2018; Van Dick et al., 2006). Meyer et al. (2004) specifically suggested that several commitment foci interact with one another to influence behavior. Grojean et al. (2006) argued that distinct foci of commitment are more likely to complement one another when there are compatible goals present than when there are competing goals, which could result in actions that are helpful to one focal's target but harmful

to other foci. For instance, if a leader (supervisor, manager) is abusive, subordinate loyalty to them could be detrimental to the organization. Similar to this, if a union and an organization have divergent goals, a person's loyalty to the union may conflict with their devotion to the organization (Meyer et al., 2004). In addition, Meyer et al. (2004) hypothesized that contextual variables, such as leadership, can affect how commitment affects employee attitudes and behaviors. Because leadership has been found to be linked to job performance, and it was emphasize as a contextual factor for understanding the consequences of organizational commitment (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

2.11 Job Performance and Emotional Competence

Analyzing how emotional competence affects job performance is crucial. This line of inquiry was chosen for two reasons. One of them is the assertion made by the author Ishak et al. (2006) that because cognitive talents are a poor predictor of job performance, they cannot be totally equated with career success. Technical and conceptual capabilities are no longer sufficient for employment today; success now hinges on behavioral abilities. According to research (Gondal & Hussain, 2013), employees who have advanced levels of emotional competence are more likely to enhance their abilities in customer management, negotiation, conflict resolution, and communication management, all of which contribute to their success in the workplace.

Another reason is that leaders who are emotionally competent encourage emotional stability and build long-term relationships with staff based on trust and openness. These traits can inspire staff to improve their level of business involvement, which in turn leads to higher performance (Gunavathy & Ayswarya, 2011) Additionally, such managers can enhance organizational emotional competence, which will benefit workers by improving job happiness,

compensation satisfaction, and work-life balance (Kabagabe et al., 2021). Compared to the influence resulting from official authority, such leaders are likely to have a bigger effect on workers. Higgs (2004) provided general support of the favorable attitude and influence of emotional competencies on job performance in industrialized nations. Gondal & Husain (2013) provided similar evidence in underdeveloped nations, particularly Pakistan.

The most prevalent emotional competence abilities have thus far been linked to job performance as measured by work satisfaction. Job satisfaction, defined as the emotional state of liking or disliking one's job (Strumpfer, 2001), is influenced by the nature of the work, as well as by employees' expectations and beliefs, as well as by the effectiveness of the leader-employee relationship. It is critical to stress that the idea of job satisfaction can have both favorable and unfavorable implications on people and the organization (Doenovi'c et al., 2021). A higher level of personal organizational dedication is one of the favorable consequences (Dramicanin, 2021). Additionally, some of the studies reveals a statistically significant link between leaders' emotional competence, as demonstrated by their self-awareness, self-control, adaptability, and optimism, and the happiness of their employees (Singh, 2013). Emotional competence has an effect on employee performance and happiness as well as productivity (Baloch et al., 2014).

Based on prior empirical findings, it can be deduced that emotionally competent leaders who can comprehend employees and develop empathy for them while doing so encourage and drive them to be happy with their work and their workplace. Leaders may be more motivated and have higher potential as a result of such a circumstance to build trusting relationships with these workers. A company's friendly environment is created when its actors have strong emotional competence when engaging with one another. "The failure to control and convey emotions can effectively lead to unresolved and recurring disagreements among employees and that, in the long

term, can cause significant burnout and lost productivity," (Ishak et al., 2006). Additionally, executives with low emotional competence cultivate poor interpersonal interactions with staff members, which influences their outlook on intention to leave their position (Jordan, 2014).

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The present study was conducted to investigate the relationship among occupational stress, organizational commitment, emotional competence and job performance among school teachers. Another goal of the study is to explore the impact of organizational commitment and emotional competence on occupational stress and job performance.

3.2 Research Design

Cross-section correlational research design was used to discover a relationship between occupational stress, emotional competence, organizational commitment and job performance among school teachers. The present study was accompanied in two phases; pilot study was the first part and main study concludes second part study.

3.3 Verification of tools

Phase I: Pilot Study

Objectives

1. To establish psychometric properties of the study scales i.e., teachers occupational stress questionnaire (TOSQ), organizational commitment questionnaire (OCQ), emotional competence and skills questionnaire (ESCQ) and job performance scale (JPS).
2. To study the pattern of relationship between study variables i.e., occupational stress, emotional competence, organizational commitment and job performance.

3.4 Research instruments

In order to explore the relationship among variables, following instruments were used in the present study.

Teachers Occupational Stress Questionnaire (TOSQ)

The Teachers Occupational Stress Questionnaire (TOSQ) consists of 20 items that ranges from 1 – 6 (this activity does not stress me at all to this activity stresses me very much). Shirom, Oliver and Stein (2009) developed this scale and this scale includes 20 indicators which refers to different situations or events that causes stress in employees. In Shirom et al., (2009) research, some of the indicators have been omitted. Three aspects of workplace conditions were excluded that include relationships with supervisors and managers, and uncertain duty were excluded. Cronbach alpha coefficient was found to be 0.90 (Hendreş et al., 2019).

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Mowday et al. (Mowday, 1979) developed Organizational Commitment Questionnaire in order to measure an employee's commitment with his/her organization, (OCQ). It is a 15-item scale with 5-point Likert type response format that ranges from 1 – 5 (strongly disagree to strongly agree). Organizational Commitment Questionnaire described 3 factors i.e., affective commitment (readiness to apply effort), continuance commitment (need to manage membership in the organization) and normative commitment (acceptance to organizational values). There are 6 reverse coded items in this scale (3, 7, 9, 11, 12 & 15). On the result basis of an analytical factor analysis, three stages of this construct were created. For affective commitment, internal reliability coefficient was 0.78, for continuance commitment it was 0.77, and for normative commitment, it was calculated to be 0.65.

Emotional Skills and Competence Questionnaire (ESCQ)

The existing form of Emotional Skills and Competence Questionnaire consists of 45 items including 3 subscales;

1. 15 items measuring perceive or recognize and understanding emotions (i.e., when I see how someone feels, I usually know what has happened to him).
2. 14 items measuring express and label emotions (i.e., I am able to express my emotions well)
3. 16 items measuring manage and regulate emotions (i.e., When I am in a good mood, every problem seems soluble).

Participants were requested to respond to the items on 5-point scale ranging from (1 – never, 2 – seldom, 3 – occasionally, 4 – usually, 5 – always). For Perception and Understanding Scale, Cronbach's alpha coefficient were between .81 and .90, for the Express and Label emotions scale

cronbach's alpha coefficient was between .78 and .88, and for the Manage and Regulate emotions scale, internal consistency measured with cronbach's alpha coefficient range from .67 to .78. Moderate positive correlations between these subscales were found that acceptable for forming a linear combination degree of overall emotional competence with the internal consistency that is $\alpha = .88$ and $\alpha = .92$ (Takšić et al., 2009).

Job Performance Scale

The Goodman & Svyantek (1999) Work Performance Scale has been selected for the current study to evaluate the job performance of teachers in Pakistan. Two stages went into the creation of this scale. Smith et al. (1983) Organizational Citizenship Behavior Measure contained 16 questions linked to contextual performance (altruism and conscientiousness) that were used in the first stage (Organ, 1997). At the questionnaire's second stage, an additional 09 related items of task performance were added. These components were derived from the innovative Ohio State Midwestern Manufacturing Organizations of the USA employee performance evaluation forms (Goodman & Svyantek, 1999). All items were put together to form a questionnaire with appropriately spaced out parts, and a cover letter with fill-in instructions was included.

Goodman & Svyantek (1999) Job Performance Scale has been used for the present study which consists of 25 items, that covers three aspects of job performance including altruism, conscientiousness and task Performance (Goodman & Svyantek, 1999). Contextual performance contains 16 items, whereas task performance contains remaining 09 items. Participants of the research were asked to rate the items on 7-point scale ranging from 1 – 7 (Strongly Disagree, Moderately Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Neutral, Slightly Agree, Moderately Agree, Strongly Agree). Cronbach alpha coefficient was found out to be as 0.60. For assessing the job performance of school teachers, the Goodman & Svyantek's Job Performance Scale has been used in past. On

examining the multifold relationship between University Teachers' Stress, Performance and Emotional Intelligence in Pakistan, Yusoff et al. (2013) found it highly reliable and valid in their study (Yusoff et al., 2013). Likewise, to study work engagement and performance among Dutch teachers, Arnold & Matthijs, (2010) also found it highly reliable in their study.

3.5 Sample

The people that have been targeted for this current study was school teachers from different public and private schools of Rawalpindi and Islamabad. The sample has consisted of N = 100 (males, n = 50; females = 50) participants with three age groups (young adults, middle adults and late adults) in this phase of the study. The participants age ranges from 23 to 60 years. Through convenient based sampling technique, the sample was selected from private and public schools.

Table 3.1*Demographic characteristics of the study sample (N=100)*

	Frequency	%
Gender		
Male	50	50%
Female	50	50%
Age		
Early Adulthood (22 – 34)	50	50%
Early Middle Age (35 – 44)	37	37%
Late Middle Age (45 – 64)	13	13%
Education		
BS/M.Sc./M.A	41	41%
MS/M.Phil	38	38%
B.Ed/M.Ed	21	21%
Marital Status		
Married	73	73%
Unmarried	27	27%
Famil Status		
Joint Family	21	21%
Nuclear Family	79	79%
Job Tenure		
1 year – 5 years	55	55%
5 – 10 years	33	33%
More than 10 years	12	12%
Income of the Participant		
Low Income (Less than 40 k)	37	37%
Middle Income (40 – 80 k)	50	50%
High Income (More than 80 k)	13	13%

Demographic details of the study variables (age, gender, family system, marital status, income level, education, job tenure and teaching level has been represented in Table 1 of total sample (N = 100) that comprise upon 50% males and 50% females.

3.6 Procedure

The statistics were gathered from different public and private schools of Islamabad and Rawalpindi like Army Public School, City School, Roots and Beacon House. Only three age groups of school teachers (early adulthood, early middle age and late middle age) has been approached for the purpose of data collection. Data has been collected from school teachers from both nuclear and joint family system. Confidentiality of the participants was ensured and consent was taken. They were informed about the purpose of the study and also given the authority to quit the research at any time.

Results.

In this phase of the study, findings of the pilot study has been described. Following tables shows the results of the pilot study.

Table 3.2

Reliability Estimates and Descriptive Statistics of Study Scales (N = 100)

Scales/ Sub- scales	Items	α	M	SD	Actual Range	Potential Range	Skewness	Kurtosis
OS	20	.84	51.3	3.77	20 – 120	68 – 89	-.60	-.219
OC	15	.86	77.6	5.74	15 – 105	49 – 65	-.26	-.645
AC	5	.80	12.6	7.54	5 – 35	12 – 21	.40	.10
CC	5	.78	36.7	2.52	5 – 35	15 – 23	.49	.003
NC	5	.82	29.2	1.34	5 – 35	16 – 26	-.12	-.427
ECS	45	.90	120.5	10.4	45 – 225	153-186	-.23	.32
PUE	15	.87	45.2	2.84	15 – 75	47 – 66	-.38	-.125
ELE	14	.89	56.4	2.72	14 – 70	46 – 62	-.17	-.228
MRE	16	.79	29.3	3.89	16 – 80	49 – 69	-.11	-.115
JP	25	.82	76.5	3.93	25 – 175	83-113	.89	2.39
AJP	7	.78	20.3	2.10	7 – 49	21 – 32	.03	-.30
CJP	9	.80	31.7	1.85	9 – 63	27 – 40	-.09	-.50
TP	9	.76	30.6	2.90	9 – 63	26 – 44	.48	.040

Note: OS = Occupational Stress, OC = Organizational Commitment, AC = Affective Commitment, CC = Continuance Commitment, NC = Normative Commitment, EC = Emotional Competence, PUE = Perceive and Understand Emotions, ELE = Express and Label Emotions, MRE = Manage and Regulate Emotions, JP = Job Performance, AJP = Altruism Job Performance, CJP = Conscientiousness Job Performance, TP = Task Performance

Table 3.2 shows means, standard deviations, ranges, alpha coefficients, skewness and kurtosis for Teachers Occupational Stress Questionnaire, Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, Emotional Competence Scale, Job Performance Scale and their subscales. The study's findings show that high alpha coefficients followed a normal distribution on all of the scales and their subscales.

Table 3.3

Correlation between Occupational Stress, Organizational Commitment, Emotional Competence, Job Performance and their Sub-scales

(N= 100)

	OS	OC	AC	CC	NC	EC	PUE	ELE	MRE	JP	AJP	CJP	TJP
OS		-.74**	-.70**	-.72	-.69*	-.65**	-.50*	.45*	-.62*	-.68**	.59*	-.62**	-.58*
OC			.59**	.62*	.52**	.76**	.45*	.58*	-.52*	.76*	.60*	-.54*	.48*
AC				.58**	.39	.60*	.62*	-.73**	.65	.57*	.43*	.61	.45*
CC					.45*	.52**	.58	.60*	-.54*	.62*	.76*	.54*	.59*
NC						.65*	.57*	.53*	.61	.69*	-.58	.54*	.35*
EC							.62*	.58	.60*	.75**	.61*	.59*	.70*
PUE								.54*	.62*	-.60*	-.57	.52*	-.59*
ELE									.70*	.68*	.59*	.61*	.65*
MRE										-.75*	.68*	.62	.65*
JP											.54*	.38*	.47*
AJP												.58*	.70*
CJP													.63*
TJP													

**p<.01 *p<.05

Note: OS = Occupational Stress, OC = Organizational Commitment, AC = Affective Commitment, CC = Continuance Commitment, NC = Normative Commitment, EC = Emotional Competence, PUE = Perceive and Understand Emotions, ELE = Express and Label Emotions, MRE = Manage and Regulate Emotions, JP = Job Performance, AJP = Altruism Job Performance, CJP = Conscientiousness Job Performance, TP = Task Performance

Table 3.3 displays correlations between the Teacher Occupational Stress Questionnaire, Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, Emotional Competence and Skills Questionnaire, and Job Performance Scale total and subscales. The findings reveal a significant negative correlation ($p < .01$) between the total scores on the teachers occupational stress scale and the total scores on the organizational commitment questionnaire, the emotional competence and skills questionnaire, and the job performance scale. The remaining scales and subscales, however, have a strong positive correlation with one another.

Table 3.4 also displays the inter-scale correlations between the variables. Results revealed that the occupational stress scale had significant negative correlations with organizational commitment scale and emotional competence on school teachers. Organizational Commitment indicated a significant positive association with emotional competence. The Job Performance Scale revealed a substantial positive link between organizational commitment and occupational stress, but a large negative correlation between the two. The emotional competence scale and the job performance scale had a strong positive association. These results show how the study variables relate to one another. It also offers a starting point for evaluating the primary study's goals and assumptions.

Table 3.4*Item Total Correlation and Corrected Item Total Correlation of Teacher Occupational Stress**Questionnaire (N = 100)*

Item	Item-Total- Correlation	Corrected Item-Total- Correlation	Item	Item-Total- Correlation	Corrected Item-Total- Correlation
1	.59**	.57	11	.57**	.56
2	.58**	.57	12	.56**	.54
3	.72**	.70	13	.61**	.59
4	.54**	.52	14	.57**	.56
5	.59**	.58	15	.51**	.50
6	.48**	.46	16	.72**	.71
7	.71**	.69	17	.68**	.67
8	.53**	.52	18	.38**	.36
9	.68**	.67	19	.60**	.59
10	.61**	.59	20	.58**	.56

*p<.05 **p<.01

Item – total correlations were computed for each scale to evaluate the internal consistency of all the study scales. Table 3.4 shows the item-total correlation for the Teachers Occupational Stress Questionnaire (TOSQ), which varied from .38 to .72 with a p-value of .01, and the equivalent adjusted item correlation that ranges from .36 to .71. The internally consistent scale indicates that it is trustworthy for hypotheses testing that is to be used in the main study. This is demonstrated that all items have strong positive correlations with overall score.

Table 3.5*Item Total Correlation and Corrected Item Total Correlation of Organizational Commitment**Questionnaire (N=100)*

Items	Item-Total Correlation	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Items	Item-Total Correlation	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Items	Item- Total Correl ation	Corrected Item-Total Correlation
Affective Commitment			Continuance Commitment			Normative Commitment		
1	.64**	.36	6	.70**	.45	11	.69**	.44
2	.72**	.44	7	.84**	.69	12	.77**	.56
3	.74**	.52	8	.85**	.69	13	.70**	.47
4	.69**	.40	9	.66**	.42	14	.74**	.55
5	.86**	.71	10	.79**	.56	15	.79**	.62

**p<.001

For the three subscales of the organizational commitment questionnaire (i.e., affective commitment, continuation commitment, and normative commitment), results of the item-total and corrected item-total correlations are shown in Table 3.5. Results demonstrate a high level of internal consistency and good reliability for each subscale, indicating a substantial positive correlation (p. 001) between all items and their total scores of corresponding subscales. For practice in the primary study on the targeted population, reliability evidence and appropriateness of scale were further reinforced by values of corrected item-total correlations.

Table 3.6*Item Total Correlation and Corrected Item Total Correlation of Emotional Competence**Questionnaire (N=100)*

Item	Item-Total- Correlation	Corrected- Item-Total- Correlation	Item	Item-Total- Correlation	Corrected- Item-Total- Correlation
Perceive and Understand Emotions					
1	.63**	.37	9	.70**	.45
2	.73**	.45	10	.84**	.69
3	.75**	.51	11	.85**	.69
4	.70**	.41	12	.66**	.42
5	.73**	.53	13	.79**	.56
6	.86**	.71	14	.69**	.44
7	.74**	.53	15	.77**	.56
8	.78**	.59			
Express and Label Emotions					
16	.70**	.47	23	.86**	.74
17	.74**	.55	24	.86**	.74
18	.79**	.62	25	.81**	.65
19	.84**	.70	26	.79**	.61
20	.86**	.72	27	.83**	.67
21	.82**	.67	28	.76**	.55
22	.88**	.77	29	.77**	.59
Manage and Regulate Emotions					
30	.72**	.47	38	.78**	.59
31	.75**	.53	39	.70**	.45
32	.73**	.51	40	.84**	.69
33	.76**	.54	41	.85**	.69
34	.78**	.56	42	.66**	.42
35	.76**	.54	43	.79**	.56
36	.73**	.52	44	.69**	.44
37	.75**	.54	45	.77**	.56

**p<.001

Item – total and corrected item – total correlations for the three subscales of emotional competence questionnaire—namely, perceive and understand emotions, express and label emotions, and manage and regulate emotions, results are shown in Table 3.6. Results demonstrate

a high level of internal consistency and good reliability for each subscale, indicating a substantial positive correlation ($p < .001$) between all of the items and total scores of corresponding subscales. Reliability evidence and appropriateness of scale has been used in the primary study on the targeted population and were further reinforced by values of corrected item-total correlations.

Table 3.7

Item Total Correlation and Corrected Item Total Correlation of Job Performance Scale (N=100)

Items	Item-Total Correlation	Corrected-Item Total Correlation	Items	Item-Total Correlation	Corrected Item-Total Correlation
Altruism					
1	.61**	.38	5	.73**	.44
2	.74**	.53	6	.86**	.71
3	.72**	.50	7	.74**	.53
4	.73**	.44			
Conscientiousness					
8	.70**	.47	13	.82**	.67
9	.74**	.55	14	.88**	.77
10	.79**	.62	15	.86**	.74
11	.84**	.70	16	.86**	.74
12	.86**	.72			
Task Performance					
17	.72**	.47	22	.76**	.54
18	.75**	.53	23	.73**	.52
19	.73**	.51	24	.75**	.54
20	.76**	.54	25	.78**	.59
21	.78**	.56			

** $p < .001$

For the three subscales of the job performance scale—task performance, conscientiousness, and altruism, results of the item-total and corrected item – total correlations has been shown in Table 3.7. Results demonstrate a high level of internal consistency and good reliability for each subscale, indicating a substantial positive or affirmative correlations ($p < .001$) between all items and their total scores of corresponding subscales. Reliability indication and appropriateness of scale to

use in the primary study on the targeted population were further reinforced by values of corrected item-total correlations.

Discussion

Pilot study was primarily conducted to establish psychometric characteristics i.e., reliability coefficients, and item – total correlation for four scales i.e., teachers occupational stress questionnaire, organizational commitment questionnaire (affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment), emotional skills and competence questionnaire (perceive and understand emotions, express and label emotions, and manage and regulate emotions) and job performance scale (altruism, conscientiousness and task performance) and examine relationship between occupational stress, organizational commitment, emotional competence and job performance. The purpose of this section of the present study was to explore the relationships between all the study variables in more detail.

Pilot study's second goal was to identify the psychometric properties of each study measure. Reliability estimates and item total correlations were calculated to achieve the goals for Teachers Occupational Stress Questionnaire (TOSQ), Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), Emotional Skills and Competence Questionnaire (ESCQ) and Job Performance Scale (JPS).

Pilot study shows the occupational stress scale's Cronbach Alpha Coefficient was 0.84 (Table 3.2), that demonstrates the scale's excellent level of reliability and suitability for use in measuring occupational stress in school teachers. Organizational Commitment Questionnaire results (Table 3.2) have also demonstrated excellent reliability (0.86), showing that OCQ is a valid instrument to employ with school teachers for gauging their commitment to the organization. High reliability values for the Emotional Competence Scale and Job Performance Scale (i.e., 0.90 and

0.82, respectively) show that the scale is internally consistent. For each of the four variables, standard deviation, mean, kurtosis, skewness and range (actual and potential range) were calculated.

Further inter correlations were computed for Teacher Occupational Stress Questionnaire (TOSQ), Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), Emotional Skills and Competence Questionnaire (ESCQ) and Job Performance Scale (JPS). Results showed that TOSQ had significant negative relationship with OCQ (-.74), ESCQ (-.65) and JPS (-.68). OCQ had significant positive relationship with ESCQ (.76) and JPS (.76) whereas ESCQ also showed significant positive relationship with JPS (.75)

Moreover, the findings of item-total correlations (Table 4 – 7) of all the study variables i.e., Teacher Occupational Stress Questionnaire scale (TOSQ) ranging from .38 to .72 with respective corrected item total correlations i.e., .36 and .71, Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) subscales i.e., affective commitment ranging from .63 to .86 with respective corrected item total correlation i.e., .37 and .71, continuance commitment ranging from .66 to .85 with respective corrected item total correlation i.e., .42 and .69 and normative commitment ranging from .69 to .79 with respective corrected item total correlations i.e., .44 and .62, Emotional Skills and Competence Questionnaire (ESCQ) subscales i.e., perceive and understand emotions ranging from .63 to .86 with respective corrected item total correlation i.e., .37 and .71, express and label emotions ranging from .70 to .88 with respective corrected item total correlation i.e., .47 and .77, and manage and regulate emotions ranging from .66 to .85 with respective corrected item total correlation i.e., .47 and .69, Job Performance Scale (JPS) subscales i.e., altruism ranging from .63 to .86 with respective corrected item total correlation i.e., .37 and .71, conscientiousness ranging from .70 to .88 with respective corrected item total correlation i.e., .47 and .77, and task

performance ranging from .72 to .78 with respective corrected item total correlation i.e., .47 and .59 showed that the overall scores and all of the items had a substantial positive correlation of TOSQ, OCQ, ESCQ and JPS.

Phase-II: Main Study

3.7 Objectives

1. To explore the relationship between occupational stress, organizational commitment, emotional competence and job performance among school teachers.
2. To study the impact of job performance (altruism, conscientiousness, task performance), organizational commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment), and emotional competence (perceive and understand emotions, express and label emotions, manage and regulate emotions) on occupational stress among school teachers.
3. To study the moderating role of organizational commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment) in the relationship between job performance and occupational stress among school teachers.
4. To study the moderating role of emotional competence (perceive and understand emotions, express and label emotions, manage and regulate emotions) in the relationship between job performance and occupational stress amongst school teachers.
5. To examine the group differences for demographics on study variables.

Study Design

Cross-section correlational research design was used to explore the relationship between occupational stress, emotional competence, organizational commitment and job performance among school teachers.

Sample

The population targeted for this study was school teachers from different public and private schools of Rawalpindi and Islamabad. In this main study, the sample has consisted of N = 500

(males, n = 150; females = 350) participants with three age groups (young adults, middle adults and late adults). The age ranges of participants lies between 23 to 60 years. Through convenient based sampling technique, sample was selected from private and public schools.

Table 4.1

Frequencies and Percentages of Demographic Characteristics of the Sample (N = 500)

	Frequency	%
Gender		
Male	150	30%
Female	350	70%
Age		
Early Adulthood (22 – 34)	180	36%
Early Middle Age (35 – 44)	260	52%
Late Middle Age (45 – 64)	60	12%
Education		
BS/M.Sc./M.A	210	42%
MS/M.Phil	205	41%
B.Ed/M.Ed	85	17%
Marital Status		
Married	366	73.2%
Unmarried	134	26.8%
Famil Status		
Joint Family	64	12.8%
Nuclear Family	436	87.12%
Job Tenure		
1 year – 5 years	185	37%
5 – 10 years	250	50%
More than 10 years	65	13%
Income of the Participant		
Low Income (Less than 40 k)	196	39.2%
Middle Income (40 – 80 k)	232	46.4%
High Income (More than 80 k)	72	14.4%

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA

The demographic information for study variables was computed for the primary study ($N = 500$), and then descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis) were computed. On SPSS-21, the following calculations were made: Pearson product moment correlation, linear regression, multiple regression, moderation, t-tests, and post-hoc analysis.

Table 4.2

Reliability Estimates and Descriptive statistics of the study variables (N = 500)

Scales/ Sub-scales	Items	α	M	SD	Actual Range	Potential Range	Skewness	Kurtosis
OS	20	.84	78.40	4.21	20 – 120	68 – 89	-.307	-.319
OC	15	.86	56.79	3.04	15 – 105	49 – 65	-.264	-.655
AC	5	.80	17.09	1.81	5 – 35	12 – 21	.474	.101
CC	5	.78	18.42	1.79	5 – 35	15 – 23	.568	.005
NC	5	.82	21.28	1.83	5 – 35	16 – 26	-.153	-.487
ECS	45	.90	171.52	6.65	45 – 225	153-186	-.273	.321
PUE	15	.87	57.45	4.83	15 – 75	47 – 66	-.428	-.145
ELE	14	.89	57.57	3.64	14 – 70	46 – 62	-.238	-.288
MRE	16	.79	56.50	4.12	16 – 80	49 – 69	-.169	-.145
JP	25	.82	93.01	4.95	25 – 175	83-113	.909	2.428
AJP	7	.78	26.58	2.26	7 – 49	21 – 32	.042	-.326
CJP	9	.80	33.75	2.85	9 – 63	27 – 40	-.105	-.508
TP	9	.76	32.68	3.35	9 – 63	26 – 44	.509	.047

Note: OS = Occupational Stress, OC = Organizational Commitment, AC = Affective Commitment, CC = Continuance Commitment, NC = Normative Commitment, EC = Emotional Competence, PUE = Perceive and Understand Emotions, ELE = Express and Label Emotions, MRE = Manage and Regulate Emotions, JP = Job Performance, AJP = Altruism Job Performance, CJP = Conscientiousness Job Performance, TP = Task Performance

For all the study variables, alpha coefficients and descriptive statistics are shown in Table 4.2. The data indicate that all alpha coefficients for all study scales fall within a reasonable range, demonstrating the scales' high dependability. Kurtosis and skewness values are likewise within acceptable bounds, demonstrating that the data was regularly distributed.

Table 4.3 displays relationships between the job performance scale, the organizational commitment questionnaire, the emotional competence and skills questionnaire, total and subscales of teacher occupational stress questionnaire. According to the findings, there is a significant negative correlation between total scores on the teacher occupational stress questionnaire and total scores on the organizational commitment questionnaire, the emotional competence and skills questionnaire and the job performance scale ($p.01$ and $p.05$). The remaining scales and subscales, however, have a strong positive correlation with one another.

Table 4.3 also displays the inter-scale correlations between variables of the study. Findings showed that among school teachers, the organizational commitment scale, the occupational stress scale, and emotional competence all exhibited substantial negative relationships. Emotional competence was significantly positively correlated with organizational commitment. The Job Performance Scale revealed a substantial positive link between organizational commitment and occupational stress, but a large negative correlation between the two. The emotional competence scale and the job performance scale had a strong positive association. These results show how the study variables relate to one another.

Table 4.3

Correlation between Teachers Occupational Stress, Organizational Commitment, Emotional Competence, Job Performance and their Sub-scales (N= 500)

	OS	OC	AC	CC	NC	EC	PUE	ELE	MRE	JP	AJP	CJP	TJP
OS	-												
		.76**											
			.69**										
OC			.60**	.68*	.67**	.79**	.65*	.68*	-.62*	.77*	.70*	-.64*	.58*
AC				.68*	.50	.65*	.72*	-.76**	.75	.67*	.53*	.67	.55*
CC					.57*	.62**	.68	.59*	-.62*	.64*	.76*	.64*	.79*
NC						.68*	.67*	.73*	.64	.67*	-.68	.64*	.50*
EC							.62*	.63	.70*	.78**	.67*	.64*	.69*
PUE								.64*	.60*	-.62*	-.65	.70*	-.58*
ELE									.72*	.66*	.60*	.64*	.75*
MRE										-.73*	.70*	.67	.68*
JP											.56*	.48*	.57*
AJP												.50*	.71*
CJP													.64*
TJP													

**p<.01 *p<.05

Note: OS = Occupational Stress, OC = Organizational Commitment, AC = Affective Commitment, CC = Continuance Commitment, NC = Normative Commitment, EC = Emotional Competence, PUE = Perceive and Understand Emotions, ELE = Express and Label Emotions, MRE = Manage and Regulate Emotions, JP = Job Performance, AJP = Altruism Job Performance, CJP = Conscientiousness Job Performance, TP = Task Performance

Table 4.4*Regression Analysis on Job Performance by Occupational Stress (N=500)*

Occupational Stress	β	SE B	β	<u>95% CI</u>	
				LL	UL
		Altruism			
	-.14	.03	-.17**	-.18	-.09
R = .17, R ² = .04, Δ R ² = .04 (F = 22.26**)					
		Conscientiousness			
	-.09	.02	-.13**	-.14	-.04
R = .14, R ² = .02, Δ R ² = .02 (F = 11.43**)					
		Task Performance			
	-.15	.04	-.32**	-.22	-.08
R = -.32, R ² = .04, Δ R ² = .04 (F = 25.96**)					

**p<.001

Impact of occupational stress on job performance of school teachers has been shown in Table 4.4. Findings indicate that occupational stress occurred as an important predictor of altruism (Δ R² = .04, β = -.17, F = 22.26, p < .001), conscientiousness (Δ R² = .02, β = -.14, F = 11.43, p < .001) and task performance (Δ R² = .04, β = -.32, F = 25.96, p < .001) by contributing 3% of variability in altruism, 2% in conscientiousness and 4% in task performance respectively.

Table 4.5

Multiple Regression Analysis on Job Performance by Organizational Commitment (N = 500)

	Altruism					Conscientiousness					Task Performance				
	OC	β	SE B	β	<u>95% CI</u>	β	SE B	β	<u>95% CI</u>	β	SE B	β	<u>95% CI</u>	LL	UL
AC	.12	.03	.43**	.03	.18	.29	.07	.27**	.17	.43	.19	.06	.53**	.08	.21
CC	.10	.04	.35*	.03	.18	.35	.08	.29**	.19	.50	.16	.07	.37**	.02	.29
NC	.05	.04	.14	.02	.18	.67	.08	.61**	.52	.83	.22	.07	.52**	.09	.35
R = .62, R ² = .37, Δ R ² = .36 (F = 45.72**)					R = .51, R ² = .27, Δ R ² = .26 (F = 55.78**)					R = .53, R ² = .28, Δ R ² = .28 (F = 23.27**)					

**p<.001, *p<.01, *p<.05

Note: OC = Organizational Commitment, AC = Affective Commitment, CC = Continuance Commitment, NC = Normative Commitment

The impact of organizational commitment on each of the job performance categories among school teachers is demonstrated by the findings in Table 4.5. Affective commitment was a stronger predictor of altruism when looked at separately ($B = .12$, $\beta = .43$, $p = .01$), indicating that increasing of one unit in affective commitment will enhance altruism by 12 units. Continuance commitment, a key factor in predicting altruism. Altruism increased by 10 units ($B = .10$, $\beta = .35$, $p = .05$). Organizational commitment, where continuity commitment was the best predictor, contributed 25% of the cumulative variance to the prediction of school teachers' conscientiousness ($R^2 = .26$, $F = 55.78$, $p = .001$). School instructors' conscientiousness increased by 67 units ($B = .67$, $\beta = .61$, $p = .001$). Another important factor that contributed to the explanation was normative commitment. Teachers' conscientiousness increased by 43 units ($B = .43$, $\beta = .31$, $p = .001$). Conscientiousness among teachers was also significantly influenced by affective commitment. According to the findings ($R^2 = .27$, $F = 23.27$, $p = .001$), all organizational commitment factors explained 24% of variance in task performance among school teachers. When evaluated separately, emotional commitment and continuation commitment among school teachers were the best indicators of task success. Explaining affective commitment. While continuing commitment was explained, 19 units increased ($B = .19$, $\beta = .53$, $p = .01$). There was a 22 unit improvement in task performance among school instructors ($B = .22$, $\beta = .52$, $p = .01$).

Table 4.6

Multiple Regression Analysis on Job Performance by Emotional Competence (N = 500)

EC	Altruism					Conscientiousness					Task Performance				
	β	SE B	β	95% CI		β	SE B	β	95% CI		β	SE B	β	95% CI	
				LL	UL				LL	UL				LL	UL
PUE	.35	.08	.19**	.18	.51	.14	.03	.36**	.07	.20	.47	.15	.35**	-.11	.49
ELE	.28	.09	.21**	.11	.45	.15	.07	.19*	.01	.29	.29	.16	.26**	-.003	.63
MRE	.15	.06	.16**	.04	.26	.06	.06	.18*	.01	.25	.33	.15	.23**	-.17	.78
R = .38, R ² = .13, Δ R ² = .13 (F = 27.44**)					R = .64, R ² = .44, Δ R ² = .43 (F = 44.92**)					R = .83, R ² = .67, Δ R ² = .65 (F = 152.47**)					

**p<.001, *p<.01, *p<.05

Note: EC = Emotional Competence, PUE = Perceive and Understand Emotions, ELE = Express and Label Emotions, MRE = Manage and Regulate Emotions

The effect of emotional competence on each of the work performance dimensions for school teachers is shown in Table 4.6. Individual analyses revealed that among school teachers, the capability to sense and comprehend emotions, expressing and identifying emotions, manage and regulate emotions were all highly significant positive predictors of altruism. Emotional competence and conscientiousness mutually accounted to 44% of total variance and had a significant F ratio ($R^2 = .44$, $F = 44.92$, $p = .001$) as predictors of conscientiousness in school teachers. Perceive and understand emotions was found to be the largest factor influencing school teachers' conscientiousness when measured using beta weights. Conscientiousness among school instructors is increased by .14 units ($B = .14$, $\beta = .36$, $p = .001$) when they are able to recognize and comprehend emotions. Significant increases in conscientiousness of .15 and .13 units consecutively were also explained by the ability to express and name emotions as well as control and manage emotions. The findings showed a significant fit between emotional competence and task performance, a component of school teachers' work performance ($R = .83$, $F = 152.47$, $p = .001$). The model explained 65% of the variation in task performance ($R^2 = .65$). Perceive and comprehend emotions was the greatest predictor of task performance among the sub-dimensions of emotional competence ($B = .47$, $\beta = .35$, $p = .001$), indicating that improving emotional competence by one unit will boost task performance by .47 units. Explaining how to express and name emotions. Task performance increased by 29 units ($B = .29$, $\beta = .26$, $p = .01$) as a result of manage and control emotions dimension. Task performance among school instructors improved by 33 units ($B = .33$, $\beta = .23$, $p < .05$

4.1 Moderation Analyses

To clarify the connection between the occupational stress and job performance among school teachers, the moderating roles of organizational commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment) and emotional competence (perceive and understand emotions, express and label emotions, manage and regulate emotions) were examined. Using Hayes' (2013) suggested macro process analysis, it was determined whether these variables might be moderated. Basically, process is a calculated approach that is used for evaluating path models such as mediation, moderation and their combinations. Also, it offers many of the capabilities of interaction term in a single command and Sobel test (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). It also generates conditional effects in moderation models in addition to estimating the OLS regression coefficient.

Table 4.7

Moderating effect of Organizational commitment on Altruism among school teachers (N = 500)

Variable	B	SE B	t	Altruism	
				p	95% CI
Constant	23.03	.33	73.75	.001	[23.36, 24.65]
OS	.04	.02	3.28	.001	[.02, .06]
AC	-.06	.06	-1.05	.289	[-.13, .05]
OS x AC	-.003	.006	-4.11	.001	[-.004, -.001]
R ²	.13				
F	48.68			.001	
Constant	23.79	.28	81.51	.001	[23.21, 24.36]
OS	.07	.02	6.65	.000	[.06, .08]
CC	-.32	.14	-2.40	.015	[-.57, -.05]
OS x CC	-.005	.003	-3.52	.001	[-.02, -.001]
R ²	.12				
F	40.32			.000	
Constant	23.69	.31	75.56	.000	[23.08, 24.31]
OS	.09	.009	10.13	.000	[.07, .11]
NC	-.30	-.06	-.547	.000	[-.41, .19]
OS x NC	-.002	-.001	-2.67	.008	[-.001, -.004]
R ²	.13				
F	47.66			.000	

$p > .05 = \text{non-significant}$, $***p < .001$

Note: OS = Occupational stress, AC = Affective Commitment, CC = Continuance Commitment, NC = Normative Commitment

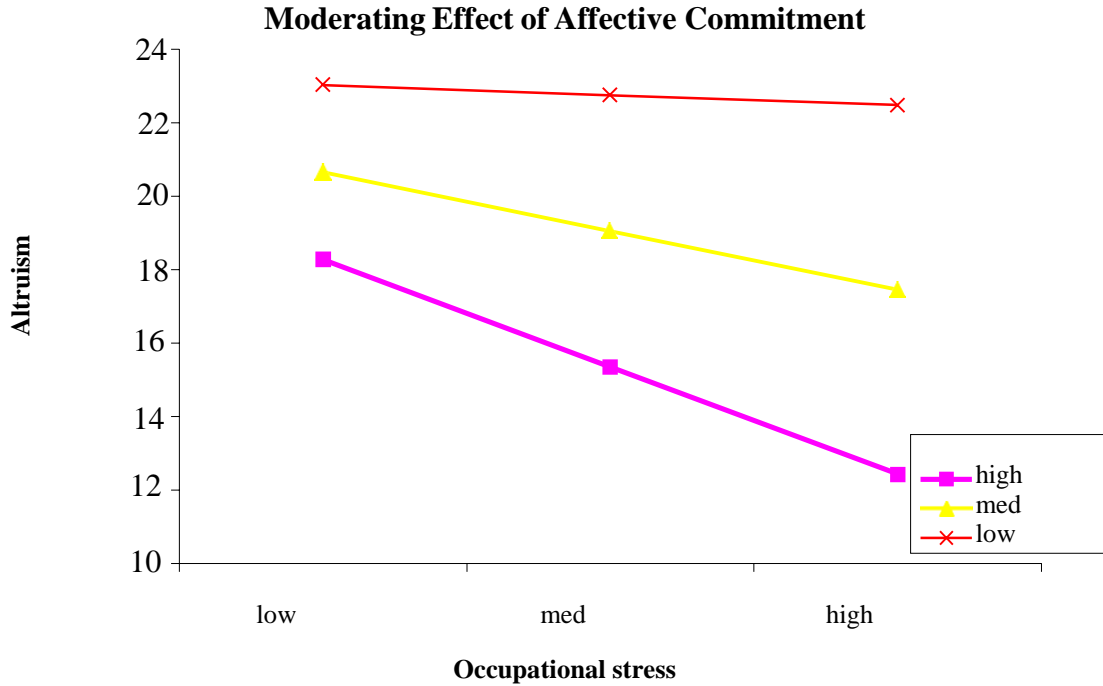


Figure 4.1. Moderating effect of organizational commitment (affective commitment) in predicting job performance (altruism) among school teachers.

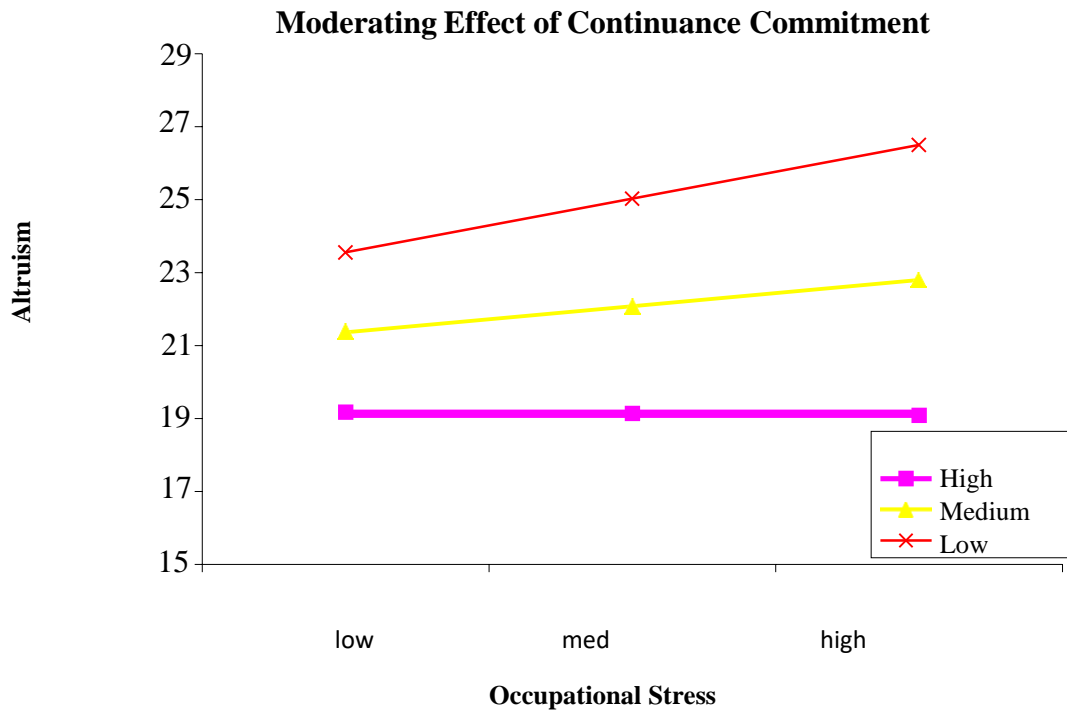


Figure 4.2. Moderating effect of organizational commitment (continuance commitment) in predicting job performance (altruism) among school teachers.

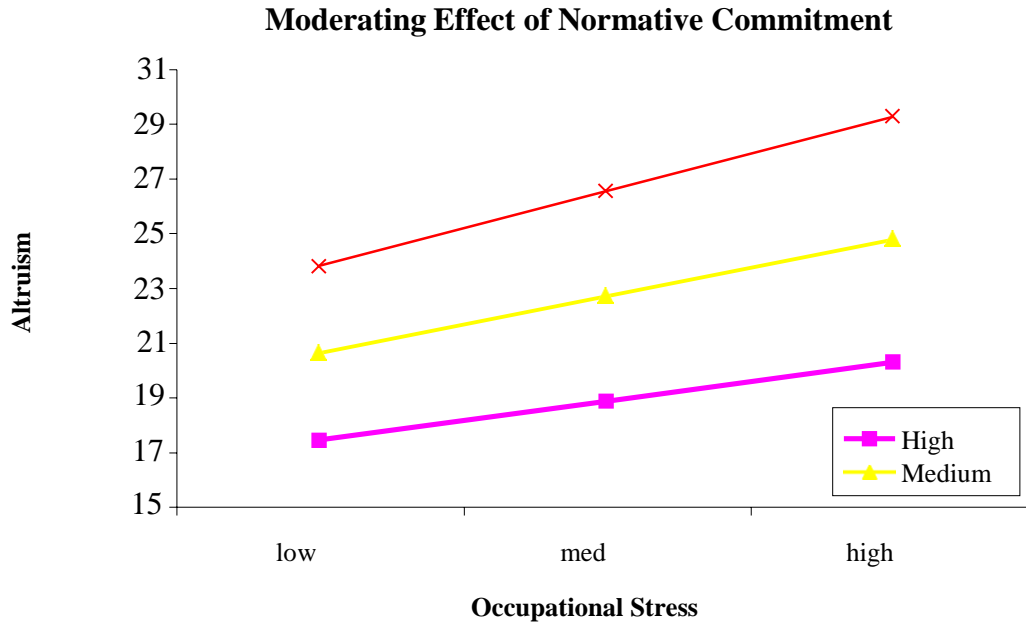


Figure 4.3. Moderating effect of organizational commitment (normative commitment) in predicting job performance (altruism) among school teachers.

The findings concerning the moderating effect of organizational commitment in the association among job stress and altruism among school teachers are shown in table 4.7. Demonstrating how affective commitment acts as a moderator. In explaining altruism, Model 1 shows a substantial interaction effect between affective commitment and occupational stress ($B = -.003$, $R^2 = .13$, $F = 48.69$, $p = .001$). Affective commitment acted as a shielding factor by decreasing the negative effects of professional stress on the degree of compassion. Also, the mod graph explains this kind of association by showing that at high and medium levels of emotional commitment, occupational stress had little or no effect on altruism, but at low levels, there were no variations in the relationship.

Model 2 demonstrates the ability of continuance commitment to moderate the relationship between occupational stress and altruism. The interaction among continuance commitment and occupational stress shows a substantial moderating effect of continuance commitment along with

producing 12% of variance in altruism ($B = -.005$, $R^2 = .12$, $F = 40.31$, $p = .001$). Further, the mod graph demonstrates these findings, showing that school teachers' medium and low levels of continuance commitment forced the negative effects of professional stress on altruism while their high levels of ability attenuated these effects.

Model 3 in the table demonstrates how normative commitment has a moderating influence. The interaction effect between normative commitment and occupational stress was statistically significant, accounting for 13% of the variance in school teachers' altruistic conduct ($B = -.002$, $R^2 = .13$, $F = 47.66$, $p = .001$). The results are illustrated graphically, which suggests that moderate normative commitment worsens the impact of professional stress on benevolence.

Results presented in Table 4.8 demonstrates the moderation of organizational commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment) in the association between occupational stress and conscientiousness among school teachers.

Model 1 shows how affective commitment and occupational stress interact to determine teachers' level of conscientiousness. Affective commitment and occupational stress may have interacted to produce 14% ($F = 54.36$, $R^2 = .14$, $p = .001$) of the variance in conscientiousness that can be explained, according to the findings.

Affective commitment, that is a protecting component is supposed to have an opposite effect in the model by attenuating the impact of occupational stress on school teachers' conscientiousness. The additional mod graph elaborates at various affective commitment levels (high, medium, and low). The line graph demonstrates that among school teachers, high and medium levels of affective commitment reduced the effect of occupational stress on conscientiousness, whereas low levels of commitment exacerbated this impact.

Results regarding the continuance commitment moderating effect are shown in Model 2.

The interaction terms showed a significant interaction impact between occupational stress and continuance commitment ($B = -.006$, $R^2 = .12$, $F = 39.58$, $p = .001$). According to the mod graph, the continuance commitment functioned as a protecting factor and shielded the impact of occupational stress on school teachers' conscientiousness. The line graph demonstrates that a high level of ongoing continuance commitment reduced the impact of work-related stress on conscientiousness.

Results regarding the moderating impact of normative commitment are shown in Model 3. Results showed a significant collaboration effect between normative commitment and occupational stress, which explained 14% of the variance in school teachers' level of conscientiousness ($R^2 = .14$, $F = 52.92$, $p = .001$). The mod graph describes this effect further by showing that high levels of normative commitment diminished the impact of occupational stress on conscientiousness whereas medium and low levels of normative commitment increased the impact of occupational stress on conscientiousness.

Table 4.8

Moderating effect of Organizational commitment on Conscientiousness among school teachers

(N = 500)

Variable	B	SE B	t	Conscientiousness	
				p	95% CI
Constant	25.42	.63	39.68	.001	[23.17, 27.68]
OS	.07	.03	3.004	.002	[.03, .08]
AC	-.14	.08	-1.67	.096	[-.33, .02]
OS x AC	-.005	.002	-3.57	.001	[-.005, -.003]
R ²	.14				
F	54.37			.000	
Constant	24.76	.57	44.09	.001	[23.65, 25.86]
OS	.09	.02	4.29	.000	[.04, .12]
CC	-.05	.25	-.19	.848	[-.54, .44]
OS x CC	-.006	.002	-2.64	.008	[-.01, -.001]
R ²	.12				
F	39.58			.000	
Constant	25.01	.60	41.38	.000	[23.82, 26.20]
OS	.17	.02	9.47	.000	[.13, .20]
NC	-.50	.11	-4.60	.000	[-.72, -.29]
OS x NC	-.004	.001	-2.89	.004	[-.006, -.001]
R ²	.14				
F	52.92			.000	

p > .05 = non-significant, ****p* < .001

Note: OS = Occupational stress, AC = Affective Commitment, CC = Continuance Commitment, NC = Normative Commitment

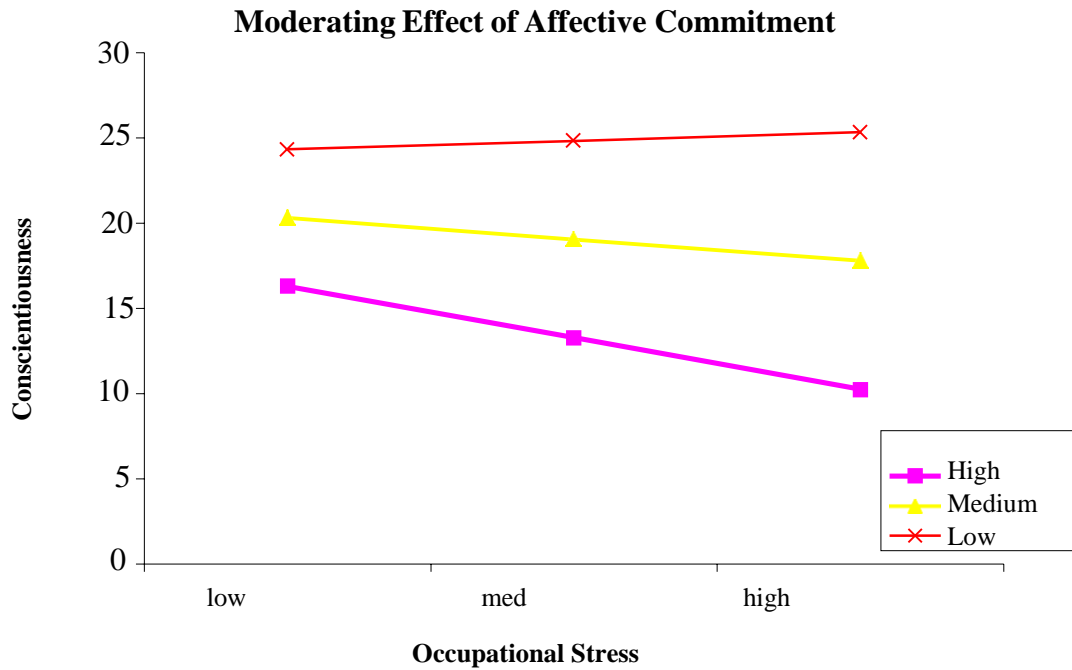


Figure 4.4. Moderating effect of organizational commitment (affective commitment) in predicting job performance (conscientiousness) among school teachers.

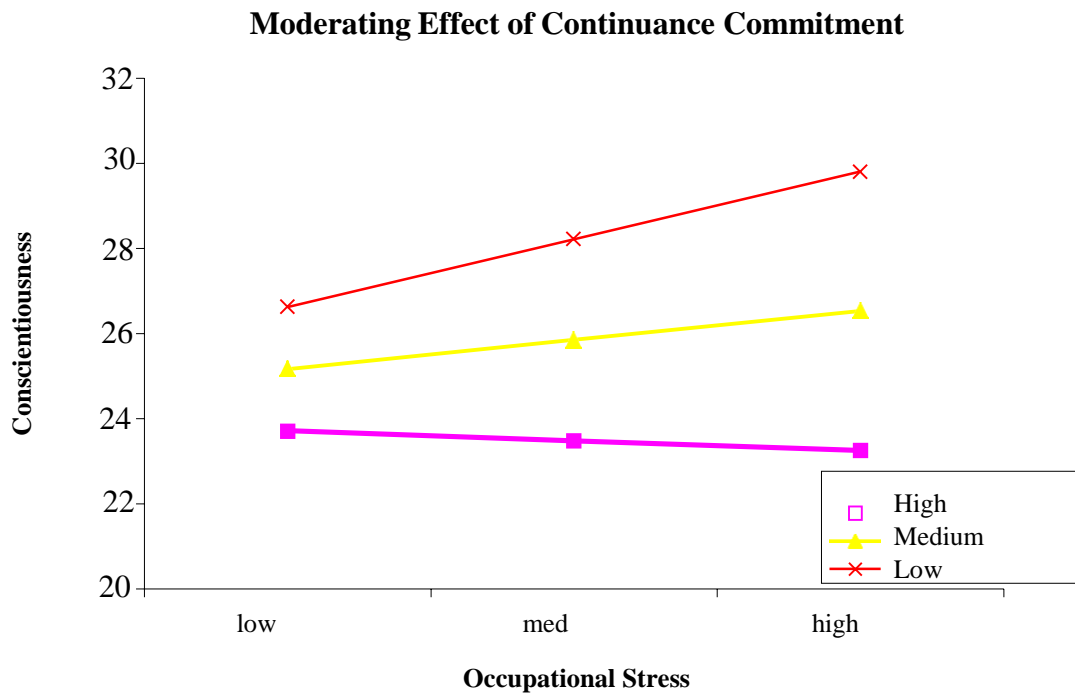


Figure 4.5. Moderating effect of organizational commitment (continuance commitment) in predicting job performance (conscientiousness) among school teachers.

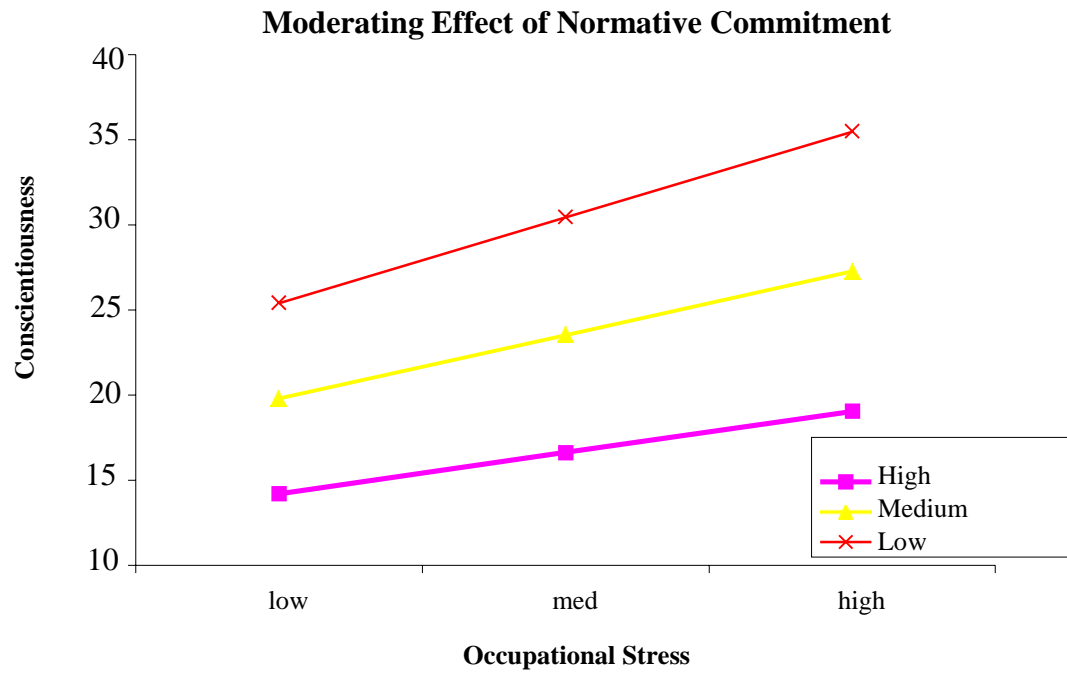


Figure 4.6. Moderating effect of organizational commitment (normative commitment) in predicting job performance (conscientiousness) among school teachers.

Table 4.9

Moderating effect of Organizational commitment on Task performance among school teachers

(N = 500)

Variable	B	SE B	t	Task Performance	
				p	95% CI
Constant	19.09	.47	40.53	.000	[18.17, 20.02]
OS	.06	.01	4.21	.000	[.02, .09]
AC	-.02	.07	-.26	.795	[-.11, .15]
OS x AC	-.004	.001	-5.03	.000	[-.006, -.002]
R ² = .11	F = 41.89				
Constant	18.34	.42	43.96	.000	[17.52, 19.16]
OS	.07	.01	4.70	.000	[.04, .09]
CC	-.12	.18	-.65	.515	[.23, .46]
OS x CC	-.006	.002	-3.21	.001	[-.09, -.002]
R ²	.09	F	30.17		
Constant	18.47	.45	40.87	.000	[17.58, 19.36]
OS	.13	.01	10.18	.000	[.10, .15]
NC	-.44	.07	-6.03	.000	[-.58, -.29]
OS x NC	-.003	.001	-3.06	.002	[-.005, -.001]
R ²	.13	F	45.55		

$p > .05 = \text{non-significant}$, $***p < .001$

Note: OS = Occupational stress, AC = Affective Commitment, CC = Continuance Commitment, NC = Normative Commitment

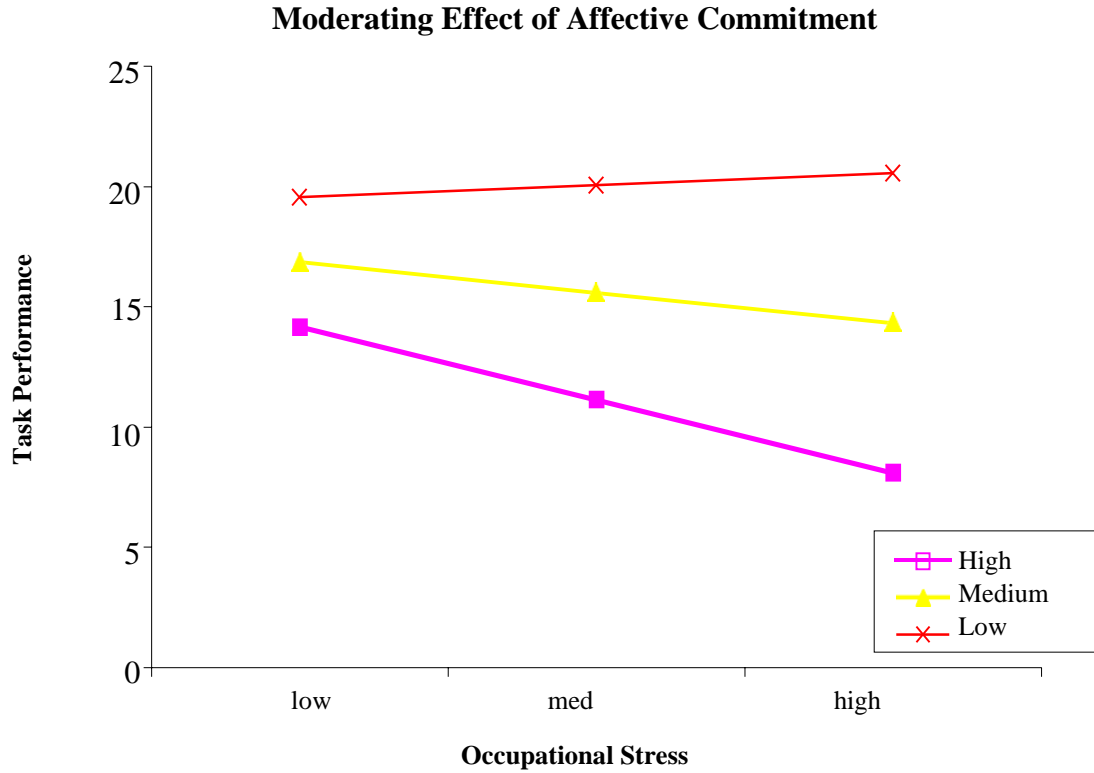


Figure 4.7. Moderating effect of organizational commitment (affective commitment) in predicting job performance (task performance) among school teachers.

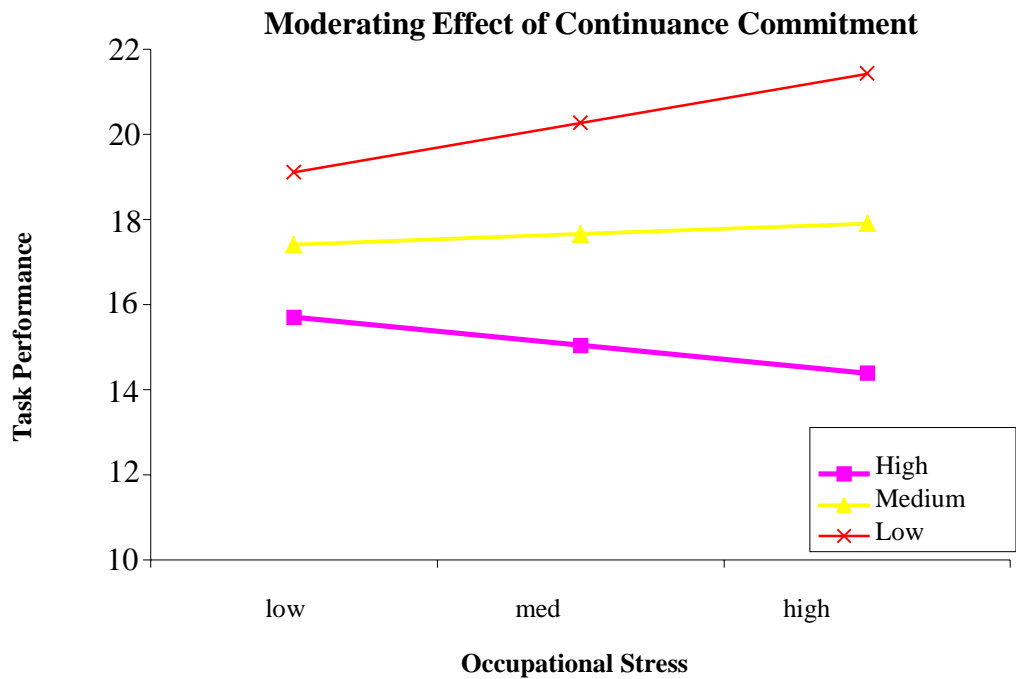


Figure 4.8. Moderating effect of organizational commitment (continuance commitment) in predicting job performance (task performance) among school teachers.

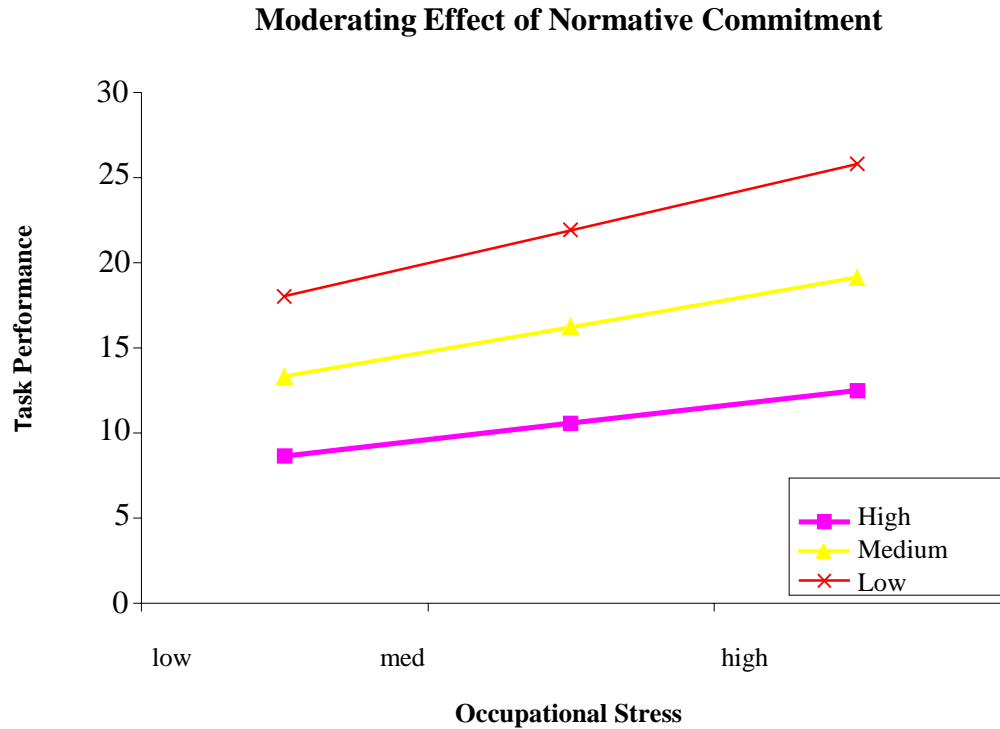


Figure 4.9. Moderating effect of organizational commitment (normative commitment) in predicting job performance (task performance) among school teachers.

The findings concerning the moderating effects of organizational commitment on the association between occupational stress and task performance in school teachers are shown in Table 4.9. The moderation impact of affective commitment is highlighted in table Model 1. Affective commitment considerably reduced the impact of occupational stress ($B = -.004$, $R^2 = .11$, $F = 41.89$, $p .001$) and account for 11% of the modification in task performance among school teachers, according to the interaction term's values. The mod graph that describes this moderation effect for high, medium and low levels of affective commitment, serves as an illustration of these findings. A line graph demonstrating the association between high and medium degrees of affective commitment and the relationship's detrimental impact on task performance due to occupational stress is shown. On the other hand, low level of the commitment improved this effect.

The results of continuation commitment's moderation effect are shown in Model 2. The model's results show that continuation commitment significantly moderated the relationship between occupational stress and task performance in school teachers, accounting for 9% of the variation ($B = -.006$, $R^2 = .09$, $F = 30.17$, $p .001$). A modified graph further explains these data by arguing that while low levels of continuance commitment worsened this effect, high levels of continuance commitment mitigated the effect of occupational stress on school teachers' job performance. Yet, a moderate level of ongoing commitment had no discernible impact on this relationship.

Findings for the normative commitment moderating effect are presented in model 3. Occupational stress effect on task performance appears to have been strongly mitigated by normative commitment, which also accounted for 13% of the variance ($B = -.003$, $R^2 = .13$, $F = 45.55$, $p .001$). These conclusions are further explained by a graphical presentation which shows that among school teachers, low and medium levels of normative commitment decreased the link between occupational stress and task performance, whereas high levels of commitment increased it.

Table 4.10

Moderating effect of Emotional competence on Altruism among school teachers (N = 500)

Variable	B	SE B	t	Altruism	
				p	95% CI
Constant	16.63	.28	61.77	.000	[16.08, 17.14]
OS	.06	.005	8.95	.000	[.03, .08]
PUE	-.08	.03	-2.53	.012	[-.16, -.02]
OS x PUE	-.005	.002	-6.68	.000	[-.02, -.003]
R ²	.13				
F	42.006			.000	
Constant	16.43	.27	63.12	.000	[15.91, 16.92]
OS	.04	.005	8.80	.000	[.03, .07]
ELE	-.27	.03	-6.72	.000	[-.32, -.19]
OS x ELE	-.002	.002	-3.52	.000	[-.004, -.002]
R ²	.19				
F	50.08			.000	
Constant	16.55	.27	62.18	.000	[16.02, 17.07]
OS	.05	.01	9.06	.000	[.04, .07]
MRE	-.17	.05	-3.61	.003	[-.27, -.08]
OS x MRE	-.007	.001	-5.35	.000	[-.01, -.004]
R ²	.16				
F	39.32			.000	

$p > .05 = non\text{-}significant, ***p < .001$

Note: OS = Occupational stress, PUE = Perceive and Understand Emotions, ELE = Express and Label Emotions, MRE = Manage and Regulate Emotions

Moderating Effect of Perceive and Understand Emotions

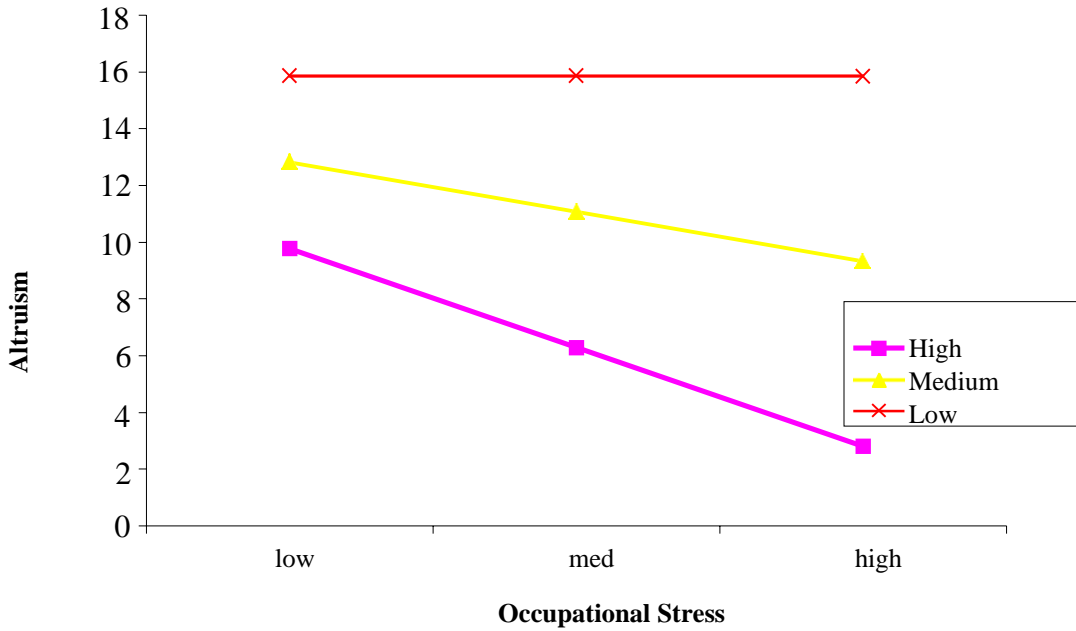


Figure 4.10. Moderating effect of emotional competence (perceive and understand emotions) in predicting job performance (altruism) among school teachers.

Moderating Effects of Express and Label Emotions

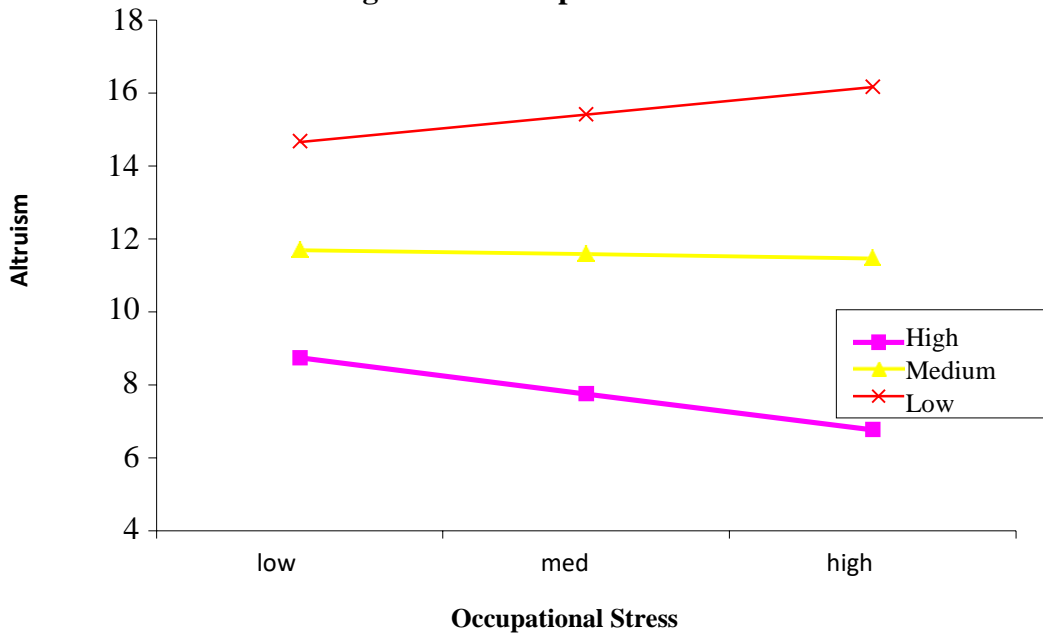


Figure 4.11. Moderating effect of emotional competence (express and label emotions) in predicting job performance (altruism) among school teachers.

Moderating Effect of Manage and Regulate Emotions

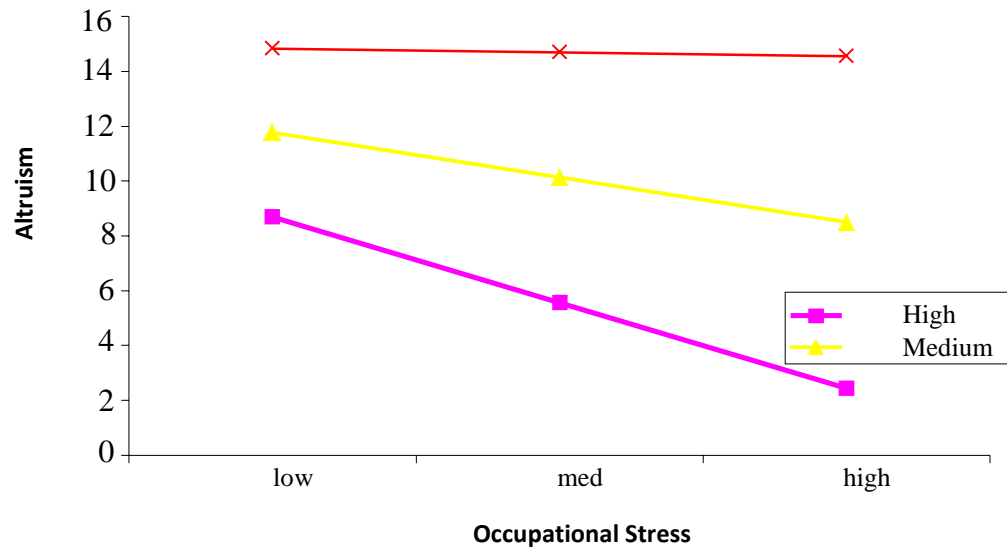


Figure 4.12. Moderating effect of emotional competence (manage and regulate emotions) in predicting job performance (altruism) among school teachers.

Results regarding the emotional competence's moderating role in the connection between occupational stress and altruism among school teachers are shown in Table 4.10. The moderation impact for perceive and understand emotions is shown in Model 1 of the table. Perceive and understand emotions strongly influenced the link between job stress and altruism among school teachers, according to a substantial collaboration term ($B = -.005$, $t = -6.68$, $p = .001$), and they accounted for 14% of variance ($R^2 = .13$, $F = 42.006$, $p = .001$). These conclusions are further illustrated in a graphical presentation that shows how emotional perception and understanding at low and medium levels lessened the job stress effect on the altruistic conduct of school instructors. Yet, when it was at a low level, this competency did not significantly alter the relationship between occupational stress and altruism.

Express and label emotions are a significant moderator of altruism among school teachers, explaining 18% of the variance ($R^2 = .19$, $F = 50.08$, $p = .001$) and producing a significant interaction term between express and label emotions and occupational stress for express and label emotions (Model 2 of the table). The mod graph further explains these findings by demonstrating how express and label emotions masked the negative effects of occupational stress on teachers' altruistic conduct. According to patterns of slopes, high levels of ability in expressing and labelling emotions reduced the impact of occupational stress, whereas low levels of this competence increased the impact. When the ability to sense and understand emotions was at a medium level, no discernible difference was noticed.

Manage and regulate emotions also appeared as a major moderator and accounts for 16% of the variance in altruism, as the relations term indicated ($B = -.007$, $t = -5.35$, $p = .001$). These results are explained by an interaction plot, which shows that slopes showing high and medium levels of manage and regulate emotions reduced the impact of occupational stress on teachers' altruistic conduct. Yet, the relationship was not significantly affected by the competence's low level.

Table 4.11

Moderating effect of Emotional competence on Conscientiousness among school teachers (N = 500)

Variable	B	SE B	t	Conscientiousness	
				p	95% CI
Constant	15.11	.20	74.98	.000	[14.72, 15.51]
OS	.05	.04	12.02	.000	[.04, .06]
PUE	-.21	.004	-5.51	.000	[-.29, -.14]
OS x PUE	-.002	.001	-2.90	.004	[-.004, -.001]
R ²	.17				
F	59.06			.000	
Constant	15.08	.20	74.07	.000	[14.68, 15.48]
OS	.05	.004	11.36	.000	[.04, .05]
ELE	-.13	.02	-5.31	.000	[-.17, -.08]
OS x ELE	-.003	.001	-3.59	.000	[-.003, -.001]
R ²	.15				
F	57.57			.000	
Constant	15.10	.20	73.96	.000	[14.70, 15.50]
OS	.04	.004	10.84	.000	[.04, .05]
MRE	-.19	.05	-3.93	.000	[-.28, -.09]
OS x MRE	-.005	.001	-4.79	.000	[-.007, -.003]
R ²	.15				
F	51.26			.000	

$p > .05 = \text{non-significant}$, $***p < .001$

Note: OS = Occupational stress, PUE = Perceive and Understand Emotions, ELE = Express and Label Emotions, MRE = Manage and Regulate Emotions

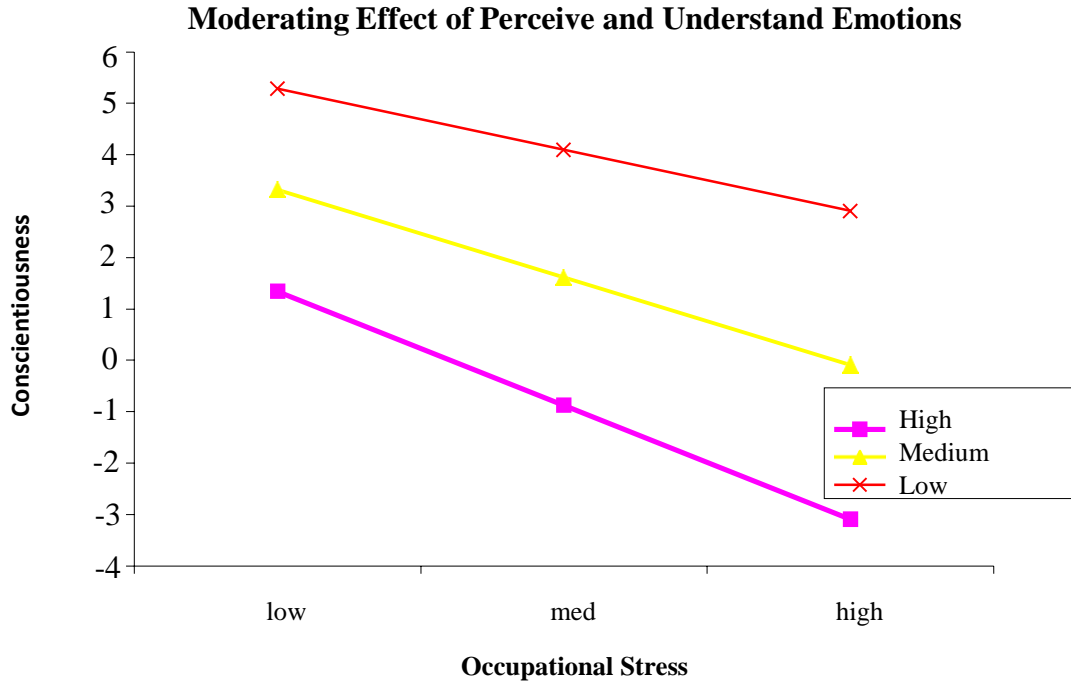


Figure 4.13. Moderating effect of emotional competence (perceive and understand emotions) in predicting job performance (conscientiousness) among school teachers.

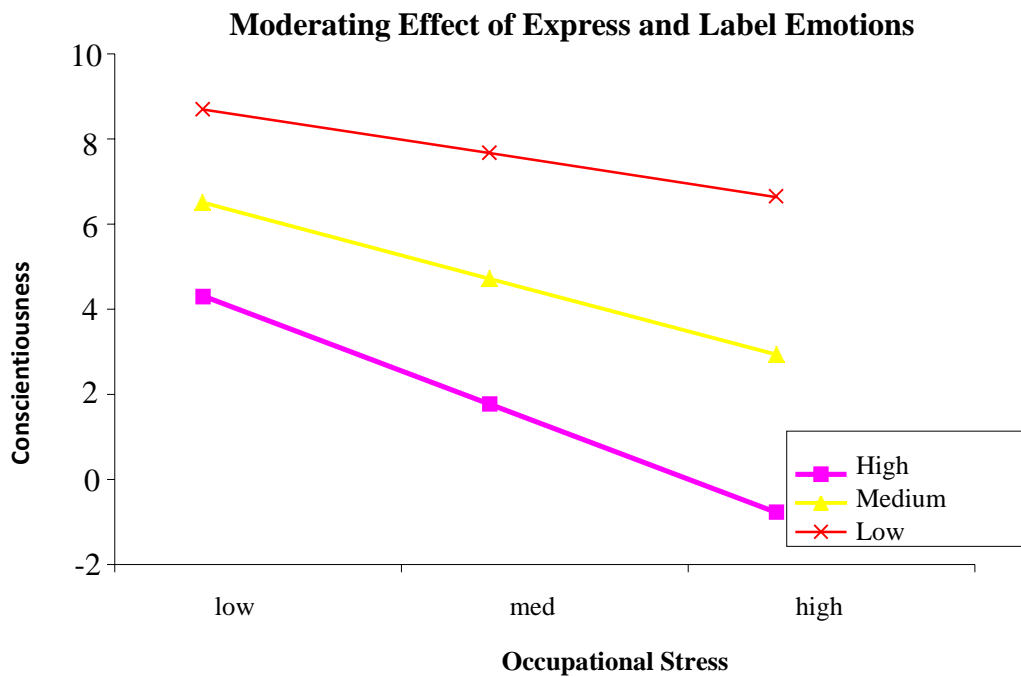


Figure 4.14. Moderating effect of emotional competence (express and label emotions) in predicting job performance (conscientiousness) among school teachers.

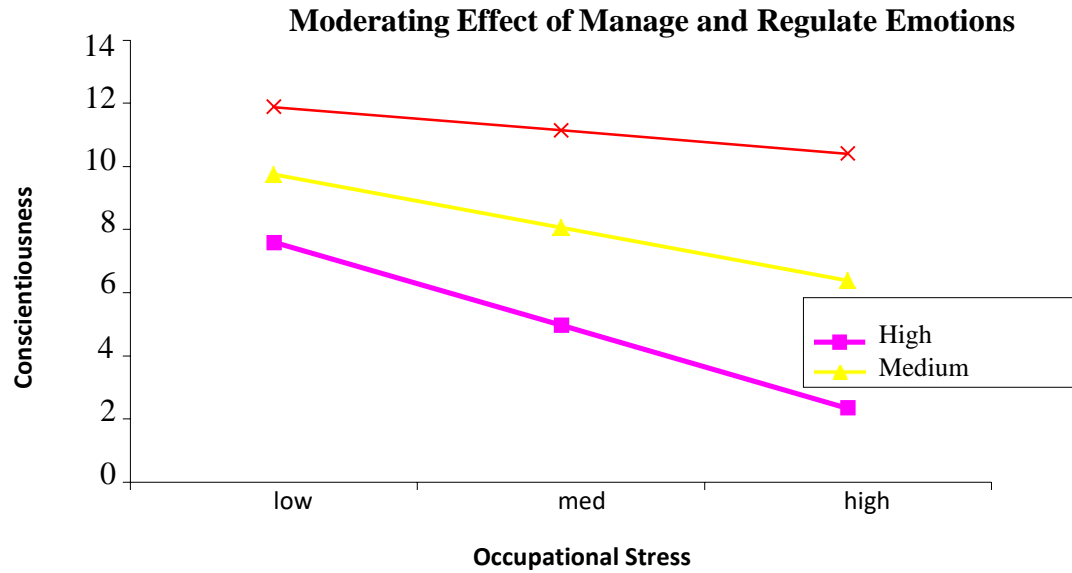


Figure 4.15. Moderating effect of emotional competence (manage and regulate emotions) in predicting job performance (conscientiousness) among school teachers.

The findings concerning the moderating effect of emotional competence in the connection between occupational stress and conscientiousness among school teachers are presented in Table 4.11. The table's Model 1 demonstrates how well people can perceive and understand emotions. Results of the interaction term indicate that the capability to perceive and understand emotions is a substantial moderator of conscientiousness, accounts for 17% of variance ($R^2 = .17$, $F = 59.06$, $p < .001$). These findings are further clarified by a mod graph which shows that teachers' ability to perceive and understand emotions decreased the link between occupational stress and conscientiousness. The plot's inclinations clearly show that the effect of occupational stress was reduced as one's capacity for seeing and comprehending emotions grew.

Express and label emotions also played a significant moderating role in conscientiousness, explaining 16% of the variation ($B = -.003$, $t = -3.59$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .15$, $F = 57.57$, $p < .001$). The slopes of the Mod Graph, which illustrates and labels emotions, further explain this result by

attenuating the negative effects of professional stress on conscientiousness. The impact of work stress lessened in intensity as conscientiousness level rose.

Model 3 demonstrates that managing and regulating emotions did not account for a significant moderation effect in the link between occupational stress and conscientiousness in school teachers ($B = -.001$, $t = -.69$, $p > .05$).

Table 4.12

Moderating effect of Emotional competence on Task Performance among school teachers (N = 500)

Variable	B	SE B	t	Task Performance	
				p	95% CI
Constant	7.79	.12	63.71	.000	[7.55, 8.03]
OS	.03	.003	11.24	.000	[.03, .04]
PUE	-.19	.02	-8.64	.000	[-.24, -.15]
OS x PUE	-.001	.001	-1.26	.207	[-.002, .003]
R ²	.20				
F	67.27			.000	
Constant	7.78	.12	63.84	.000	[7.55, 8.02]
OS	.03	.003	10.72	.000	[.02, .03]
ELE	-.13	.01	-9.42	.000	[-.16, -.10]
OS x ELE	-.001	.003	-2.12	.34	[-.001, .000]
R ²	.20				
F	68.36			.000	
Constant	7.82	.13	61.72	.000	[7.57, 8.07]
OS	.03	.003	9.55	.000	[.02, .03]
MRE	-.17	.03	-5.67	.000	[-.22, -.11]
OS x MRE	-.004	.001	-4.24	.000	[-.004, -.001]
R ²	.15				
F	41.18			.000	

$p > .05$ = non-significant, *** $p < .001$

Note: OS = Occupational stress, PUE = Perceive and Understand Emotions, ELE = Express and Label Emotions, MRE = Manage and Regulate Emotions

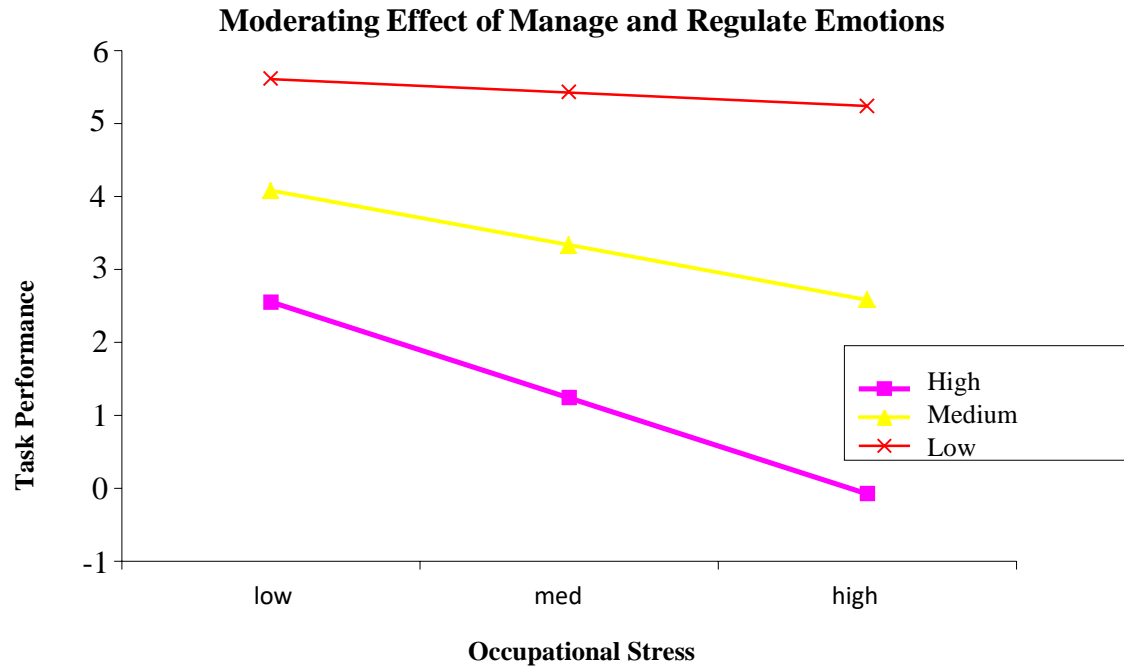


Figure 4.16. Moderating effect of emotional competence (manage and regulate emotions) in predicting job performance (task performance) among school teachers.

Results indicating moderating effect of emotional competence on the link between occupational stress and task performance in school teachers has been in Table 4.12. Results indicated that, with the exception of managing and regulating emotions, all forms of emotional competence did not moderate behavior ($p > .05$). Model 3 in the table exhibits a significant collaboration effect ($B = -.004$, $t = -4.24$, $p .001$) and accounts for 15% of the variance in task performance ($R^2 = .15$, $F = 41.18$, $p .001$). The mod graph goes on to explain that emotional control and management masked the impact of job stress on task performance in school teachers.

Table 4.13*Means, SD and t values of Study Variables based on Gender (N = 500)*

Variables	<u>Males</u>		<u>Females</u>		t	p	<u>95% CI</u>		Cohen's d
	(n = 150)		(n = 350)				LL	UL	
	M	SD	M	SD					
OS	78.69	4.16	79.07	4.52	3.54	.000	-19.04	-5.24	.29
AC	17.12	1.70	16.90	1.80	15.86	.000	14.23	11.09	1.35
CC	18.42	1.81	18.53	1.75	1.48	.101	.22	-1.61	.13
NC	21.07	1.70	21.25	1.81	13.49	.000	6.63	4.95	1.13
PUE	59.04	3.96	57.23	4.67	12.95	.000	3.82	2.77	1.03
ELE	54.35	3.57	54.47	3.49	7.97	.000	6.07	3.67	.65
MRE	59.91	4.00	60.32	4.03	14.73	.000	6.22	4.75	1.26
A	26.68	2.33	26.71	2.32	5.58	.000	5.93	2.84	.45
C	33.89	2.73	33.77	2.76	4.08	.000	.58	1.67	.33
TP	32.43	3.31	32.63	3.19	2.84	.005	-.53	2.89	.23

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$; $df = 498$

Note: OS = Occupational Stress, AC = Affective Commitment, CC = Continuance Commitment, NC = Normative Commitment, PUE = Perceive and Understand Emotions, ELE = Express and Label Emotions, MRE = Manage and Regulate Emotions, A = Altruism, C = Conscientiousness, TP = Task Performance

For all research variables, gender differences are shown in Table 4.13. According to the table's values, women experienced much more occupational stress than men did ($p = .001$). Similar to this, females outperformed males in terms of organizational commitment, with the exception of continuation commitment. No statistically significant gender differences were seen in the sample

for continuing commitment. While girls scored significantly better on altruism and conscientiousness, males performed tasks at a significantly higher level than females ($p .01, .001$).

Table 4.14

Means, SDs and t values of Study Variables based on Relationship Status (N = 500)

Variables	<u>Married</u>		<u>Unmarried</u>		t	p	<u>95% CI</u>		Cohen's d
	(n = 366)		(n = 134)				LL	UL	
	M	SD	M	SD					
OS	79.04	4.43	78.71	4.39	6.02	.000	2.78	5.04	.52
AC	16.93	1.82	17.08	1.66	-11.72	.000	-7.68	-5.47	1.03
CC	18.49	1.75	18.52	1.83	-13.18	.000	-8.61	-6.37	1.41
NC	21.26	1.82	21.01	1.68	-10.57	.000	-5.96	-4.09	1.07
PUE	57.53	4.67	58.44	4.14	-12.95	.000	-8.89	-6.55	1.14
ELE	54.48	3.59	54.29	3.32	10.11	.000	.42	.62	.83
MRE	60.27	3.87	60.00	4.42	9.49	.000	.50	.76	.77
A	26.70	2.33	26.70	2.28	6.92	.000	.15	.28	.55
C	33.78	2.81	33.88	2.56	6.95	.000	.14	.25	.78
TP	32.73	3.29	32.12	3.00	-11.09	.000	-9.39	-6.56	.89

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$; $df = 498$

Note: OS = Occupational Stress, AC = Affective Commitment, CC = Continuance Commitment, NC = Normative Commitment, PUE = Perceive and Understand Emotions, ELE = Express and Label Emotions, MRE = Manage and Regulate Emotions, A = Altruism, C = Conscientiousness, TP = Task Performance

Married people showed greater level of occupational stress as compared to those who are unmarried ($p < .01, .001$). Unmarried people had significantly greater number of ($p < .001$) organizational commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative

commitment) than married people whereas married people had higher levels of emotional competence (express and label emotions, manage and regulate emotions) and job performance (altruism, conscientiousness and task performance) as compared to unmarried people ($p < .001$).

Based on the family structure, Table 4.15 displays group differences for all research variables. According to the data, occupational stress among school teachers in joint family systems was considerably higher than it was among those in nuclear families. The findings also show that instructors from joint family systems had considerably greater levels of emotional competence—that is, the capability to control and manage emotions than teachers from nuclear families. However, there were no discernible differences among the two groups in terms of the ability to sense and interpret emotions as well as express and identify emotions. Also, the findings show that school instructors from joint family systems showed considerably greater levels of organizational commitment namely affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment, than those from nuclear family systems ($p .05$). With the exception of job performance, which revealed no significant changes across groups, the nuclear family system group demonstrated considerably greater levels of job performance (i.e., altruism, conscientiousness) than their counterparts ($p .01, .05$).

Table 4.15*Means, SDs and t values of Study Variables based on Family System (N = 500)*

Variables	<u>Joint</u>		<u>Nuclear</u>		t	p	<u>95% CI</u>		Cohen's d
	(n = 64)		(n = 436)				LL	UL	
	M	SD	M	SD					
OS	79.73	4.29	78.84	4.43	-2.52	.012	15.08	-1.88	.20
AC	17.04	1.83	16.96	1.77	-2.31	.021	3.61	-.29	.18
CC	18.39	1.95	18.51	1.74	-2.43	.015	-1.95	.21	.19
NC	21.06	1.54	21.21	1.81	-2.17	.030	-1.84	.09	.17
PUE	58.70	4.63	57.64	4.52	-1.95	.051	-1.07	.003	.15
ELE	54.73	3.69	54.39	3.49	-.59	.550	-1.59	.85	.05
MRE	59.85	4.60	60.25	3.93	-2.01	.045	-1.52	.02	.16
A	26.78	2.17	26.69	2.34	3.67	.000	1.34	4.43	.29
C	33.39	2.93	33.87	2.71	2.78	.006	.22	1.28	.22
TP	33.15	3.95	32.48	3.10	1.54	.124	-.25	2.06	.12

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$; $df = 498$

Note: OS = Occupational Stress, AC = Affective Commitment, CC = Continuance Commitment, NC = Normative Commitment, PUE = Perceive and Understand Emotions, ELE = Express and Label Emotions, MRE = Manage and Regulate Emotions, A = Altruism, C = Conscientiousness, TP = Task Performance

Table 4.16

Age-wise Comparison on Occupational Stress, Organizational Commitment, Emotional Competence and Job Performance (N = 500)

	Early		Middle		Late		F	p	η^2
	(N = 314)		(N = 136)		(N = 50)				
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
OS	27.57	9.31	30.26	6.36	30.42	7.03	8.03	.382	.02
OC									
AC	21.61	9.15	25.90	11.49	19.66	7.99	21.70**	.049	.06
CC	21.23	5.22	23.66	5.87	22.67	5.26	8.21**	.031	.02
NC	13.81	4.93	15.83	5.91	13.37	5.06	13.06**	.039	.04
EC									
PUE	7.26	3.21	8.34	3.63	6.41	2.93	18.13**	.22	.05
ELE	14.98	7.28	19.21	8.37	14.72	5.34	25.42**	.31	.07
MRE	8.09	4.62	10.55	5.14	7.55	3.28	27.09**	.40	.08
JP									
A	20.33	10.36	22.69	9.85	23.34	11.04	3.53**	.05	.01
C	9.84	3.64	10.88	3.38	11.20	3.56	6.03**	.04	.02
TP	18.64	7.36	21.65	7.38	21.40	7.77	8.90**	.05	.03

** $p < .01$; $p < .001$

Note: OS = Occupational Stress; OC = Organizational Commitment; AC = Affective Commitment; CC = Continuance Commitment; NC = Normative Commitment; EC = Emotional Competence; PUE = Perceive and Understand Emotions; ELE = Express and Label Emotions; MRE = Manage and Regulate Emotions; JP = Job Performance; A = Altruism, C = Conscientiousness; TP = Task Performance

According to the participants' ages, table 4.16 displays the variations in research variables between teenagers. It was revealed that there are hardly any mean differences across age groups for the studied variables. The mean differences between organizational commitment and job performance have been found out to be highly significant.

By means of reference to the participants' income, Table 4.18 displays the disparities between teenagers on the research variables. There aren't many mean differences in research variables across various income levels, it has been revealed. Significant mean differences have been seen for occupational stress, organizational commitment, and emotional competence.

Table 4.18

Income-wise Comparison on Occupational Stress, Organizational Commitment, Emotional Competence and Job Performance (N = 500)

	Low		Middle		High		F	p	η^2
	(N = 72)		(N = 196)		(N = 232)				
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
OS	29.88	6.01	30.38	5.62	30.58	6.24	.68	.041	.002
OC									
AC	24.15	10.59	26.32	11.29	21.33	10.46	10.91	.035	.04
CC	23.68	5.58	23.74	5.74	21.85	5.59	6.88	.031	.02
NC	15.22	5.54	16.21	5.73	13.09	5.61	16.02	.050	.05
EC									
PUE	7.77	3.59	8.59	3.44	6.85	3.33	13.18	.023	.04
ELE	16.42	7.22	19.88	7.75	17.28	8.87	10.52	.040	.03
MRE	9.34	4.78	10.53	5.05	9.03	5.10	5.34	.015	.02
JP									
A	21.71	10.29	21.99	9.68	24.93	10.03	5.99	.229	.002
C	10.43	3.46	10.93	3.39	11.24	3.47	2.45	.32	.001
TP	20.01	7.69	21.84	7.53	22.05	7.28	3.98	.25	.001

* $p < .05$

Note: OS = Occupational Stress; OC = Organizational Commitment; AC = Affective Commitment; CC = Continuance Commitment; NC = Normative Commitment; EC = Emotional Competence; PUE = Perceive and Understand Emotions; ELE = Express and Label Emotions; MRE = Manage and Regulate Emotions; JP = Job Performance; A = Altruism, C = Conscientiousness; TP = Task Performance

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION

AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

The current study was conducted to measure the relationship between occupational stress and job performance among school teachers along with the moderating role of organizational commitment and emotional competence. For the present study, the focus was on to evaluate the relationship between occupational stress and job performance along with its three sub-categories as altruism, conscientiousness and task performance. Additionally, another objective of the study was to find out the moderating effect of organizational commitment and emotional competence on the relationship between occupational stress and job performance among school teachers.

5.2 Findings

Findings of the study indicate that there is a negative correlation between occupational stress and job performance among school teachers. The findings also depict that there is a negative relationship between occupational stress and organizational commitment as well as occupational stress and emotional competence. Additionally, findings indicate that there is a positive relationship between organizational commitment, emotional competence and job performance. Further results indicate that organizational commitment and emotional competence is moderating the association between occupational stress and job performance. Such findings of the current

study can help school teachers to increase their job performance while dealing with occupational stress.

5.3 Discussion

In the field of education especially among school teachers, occupational stress is increasing day by day (Crome et al., 2019; Tham & Holland, 2018). Findings of this current study have supported Hypothesis 1 that states; occupational stress is negatively related to job performance. These results are consistent with the body of previous research for the available data. The detrimental association between occupational stress and job performance has been extensively documented in earlier studies (Chance, 1992; Dickman & Emener, 1992; Ivancivich and Matteson, 1980). Occupational stress among school teachers may have social and psychological effects as showed by the researches, and one impact of this complex issue is poor or decreased job performance (Stansfeld et al., 1999; Friedman, 2000). There are definite specific variables that contributed to occupational stress and job performance among school teachers as revealed by literature review (Antoniou et al., 2000). On the basis of existing literature, the variables were selected (Blackburn & Bently; Thompson & Dey, 2004). To determine personal and work related factors as the best predicted levels of occupational stress and job performance among school teachers, step-wise multiple regression analysis was used. Multiple aspects like gender, age, marital status, family system, teaching level, job tenure, monthly income and education were selected. This conclusion confirms the negative relationship between occupational stress and job performance, as collective aspect occur in rising levels of occupational stress and declining levels of job performance among school teachers. Another tenacity of this current study is to examine some of the communal predictors of occupational stress and job performance among school teachers.

In the present study Hypothesis 2 has been supported that states; occupational stress is negatively related to organizational commitment and emotional competence as emotional competence and organizational commitment increases the capability of problem solving so to deal with occupational stress, emotionally competent and organizationally committed employees can develop suitable strategies (Gohm and Clore 2002; Tsaousis and Nikolaou, 2005). According to a study conducted by Bar-On in 2005, emotionally competent employees are experts in putting themselves in a positive state of mind hence they are firm, optimistic, flexible, tolerable and immune to occupational stress (Bar-On, 2005; Griffeth, 2000). Falkenburg et al. (2007) stated that emotional competence and organizational commitment has negative relationship with occupational stress and these results are also the same with Wong & Law, (2002). Adeyemo and Afolabi (2007) stated that those employees or teachers who are emotionally competent and organizationally committed to their organization experience low levels of occupational stress. Occupational stress can be reduced by organizational commitment and emotional competence therefore both the variables have negative relationships with occupational stress.

Third hypotheses states that there is a positive relationship between organizational commitment, emotional competence and job performance among school teachers. Also, the findings of this present study are in the favor of this hypothesis that shows positive association between these variables, so Hypothesis 3 was supported. Emotional competence and organizational commitment can increase the performance of an employee or a school teacher because a committed and an enthusiastic individual can motivate other persons to perform a task as well (Goleman, 1998). In most of the studies, emotional competence and organizational commitment has been found positively related to job performance among school teachers (Guleryuz et al., 2008; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Zeidner et al., 2004). Those school teachers who

shows high emotional competence and are more committed to their organizations are more likely to be in a positive state of mind that results in a better job performance (Wong & Law, 2002).

Although occupational stress among school teachers has turned out to be a widespread research topic, occupation and demographic related variables have not established satisfactory systematic consideration (Iwasaki, Mackay & Ristock, 2004; Liu & Jex, 2005). Determining levels of stress (Duyiliemi, 1992; Liu, Spector & Shi, 2008), negative outcomes such as reduced job performance is being measured more comfortably predicted by demographic variables and levels of occupational stress (Jing, 2008; Leithwood, Jantzi & Steinberg, Ozdemir, 2007).

Hence, the findings of the study were in favor of Hypothesis 4 that states “Occupational stress leads to decreased job performance among school teachers”. Some of the demographic variables have been identified in researches that disturb or influences stress levels among faculty members of the particular institution e.g., gender and age. Rather than male members, female school teachers have reported higher levels of stress and low job performance (Blackburn & Bently, 2004; Blix et al; Smith et al., Thompson & Dey, 2004). Viewing this relationship of occupational stress and job performance, it was assumed that the factors that are predicting occupational stress will also predict job performance among school teachers.

A worker or educator who has a high level of organizational commitment will display a good outlook or behavior towards the organization, give their all, make sacrifices, be loyal to the company, and be eager to remain there (Hettiarachchi & Jayaeathua, 2014). This leads an organizationally committed employee to show the high level of work performance (good achievement). Meanwhile, an employee with low level of organizational commitment tends to show careless attitude and irresponsibility to accomplishment of work or performs low quality of

work. This goes in favor of Hypothesis 5 of the current study that states “Organizational commitment positively predicts job performance among school teachers”.

The study's results show that emotional competence positively predicts job performance and that it has positive and statistically significant effects on job performance, supporting the sixth hypothesis. The findings are consistent with those of the majority of the earlier researchers' studies (Lopes et al., 2006; Mohamad & Jais, 2016; Shamsuddin & Rahman, 2014; Yoke & Patanik, 2015). Emotional competence is a crucial component of completing tasks or assignments on the work and is regarded as a crucial trait that governs the individual, making it intangible in nature. Hence, a teacher's job performance increases with their emotional competency. Above findings of the present study can be concluded that emotional competence positively predicts job performance among school teachers.

Many research have shown links among occupational stress and organizational commitment. School teachers who experience work-related stress may experience poor job performance and greater than before risk of burnout. (Lambert et al., 2009). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) theorizes that those school teachers who are highly committed to their organization feels less stress as compared to those school teachers who are less committed to their organization. However, some of the studies suggested a reversible association between occupational stress and organizational commitment (Boyas & Wind, 2010; Lambert et al., 2009; Nikolaou and Tsaousis, 2002). Darwish (2002) bring into being that job performance positively influences affective, normative and continuance commitment. Hence, these findings are in favor of Hypothesis 7 that states “Organizational commitment buffers the outcome of occupational stress on job performance among school teachers”.

Several researchers assumed in workplace stress studies that an individual who is having good ability to manage other colleagues emotions, can easily cope up with the psycho-physiological occupational stressors, which can be turn out in high job performance (Adler et al., 2006; Gillespie et al., 2001; Hourani et al., 2006; Spector, Goh, 2001; Wetzel et al., 2006; Zhong et al., 2006). By reducing their occupational pressures, school instructors are better able to execute their jobs by managing their own emotions and those of their students (Gillespie et al., 2001; Nikolau, 2002; Slaski, 2002). Consequently, outcomes of these research go in favour of Hypothesis 8 that states "Emotional competence buffers the effect of occupational stress on work performance among school teachers". According to Fariselli et al. (2008), emotional competence lessens the effects of stress while workplace stress affects the level of job performance.

5.4 Conclusion

The current study discovered that teachers' low levels of job performance (altruism, conscientiousness and task performance) were a result of occupational stress. As was predicted, the impact of occupational stress on job performance was mitigated by organizational commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment) and emotional competence (perceive and understand emotions, express and label emotions, and manage and regulate emotions). Significant group differences were also shown by this study for the study variables of gender, age, family system, relationship status, and income.

5.5 Limitations and Suggestions

The following limitations are noted in the present study:

- The present study is conducted in twin cities of Islamabad and Rawalpindi. The data from different studies can give more promising variations on the study variables.

- The cross sectional design was used in which all the variables were simultaneously measured and it does not allow to determine the cause-effect relationship. Future research should use longitudinal designs to verify casual pathways.
- The third limitation of the study is that the school teachers' job performance evaluation was by section heads only, although it controls the self-report measurement bias, future studies may also conduct using multiple sources of evaluation regarding job performance i.e., principals and students' rating.
- Future research should be conducted in colleges and universities as well and researchers can do the comparison with other schools from all over Pakistan just to study the working environment of other schools.
- Further suggestions are that in order to handle the stress among school teachers, it is recommended that institutions must assist personnel to handle the occupational stress for the efficiency and effectiveness in the development of job performance.
- Institutes should design such kind of policies where school teachers can avoid stress because it affects their job performance. Institutions should train the employees to enhance the emotional competence and organizational commitment so that they can perform well in their job.

5.6 Implications

- Every school should try to organize various workshops, provide different training programs, create positive environment at workplace and hence motivate teachers to attend such trainings and workshops in order to manage their emotions.
- There is an opportunity to educate school teachers on how to develop positive thinking to reduce occupational stress.

- The results of the present studies may prove very beneficial in educating school teachers about the coping strategies to deal with the occupational stress.
- In addition, various seminars and workshops can be organized to teach them how to deal with occupational stress and how to recover by explaining different relaxation techniques.
- In addition, school teachers experiencing occupational stress should be offered appropriate training and courses to manage their stress properly.
- As a result of the findings of this study, it is critical to provide ongoing educational and counseling programs to improve school teachers' occupational stress by addressing the school teachers' problems, needs and their mental health.

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APPENDIX A

Consent Form

Assalam o Alaikum,

Hope so you are fine.

I am student of M.Phil. Psychology and my research is related to occupational stress and job performance along with organizational commitment and emotional competence among school teachers. The data collects through this research will remain confidential. You have right to withdraw from research at any point. This participation is totally voluntary so you can feel free to participate in this research. I will be very grateful if you could spare some time to fill the questionnaire.

I will be very grateful for your participation.

Thank you.

Signature

APPENDIX B

Demographic Sheet

Gender:

- Male
- Female

Age: _____

Qualification: _____

Teaching Level (Mention Class): _____

Family System:

- Joint
- Nuclear

Relationship Status

- Single
- Married
- Specify if any _____

No. of Children (if any): _____

No. of Dependents (If any): _____

Monthly Income: _____

Birth Order: _____

APPENDIX C

Teacher Occupational Stress Questionnaire (TOSQ)

Sr. No	Items	1 This activity does not stress me at all	2 This activity stresses me rarely	3 This activity stresses me sometimes	4 This activity stresses me often	5 This activity stresses me frequently	6 This activity stresses me very much
1	To keep quiet in class						
2	To maintain discipline and order in the classroom						
3	To work with unmotivated students						
4	To work with agitated or unruly children						
5	Carrying out school duties during the time dedicated to my family (e.g., to read and mark offhand papers at home)						
6	To teach in noisy conditions (e.g., too much noise outside in the street)						
7	To teach in unsuitable thermal conditions (e.g., too cold)						
8	To supervise students during breaks						
9	To work with papers or documents related to administrative activities						
10	To make trips with students						
11	To prepare students for competitions outside of school hours						
12	To prepare students for competitions taking place during school hours						
13	To participate with pupils in contests						
14	To work with too heterogeneous classes (different cognitive levels)						
15	To have to reckon with my colleagues						
16	To have inspections or evaluative situations in the classroom						
17	To help a child with poor academic results to progress						
18	To permanently pursue progress in students' acquisitions						
19	To pay equal attention to each student						
20	To maintain a good mood for each student in the classroom						

APPENDIX D

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Sr. No	Statements	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Moderately Disagree	3 Slightly Disagree	4 Neither disagree nor agree	5 Slightly agree	6 Moderately agree	7 Strongly agree
1	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.							
2	I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.							
3	I feel very little loyalty to this organization. (R)							
4	I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization							
5	I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.							
6	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.							
7	I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar. (R)							

8	This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance							
9	It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization. (R)							
10	I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined							
11	There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely. (R)							
12	Often. I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees. (R)							
13	I really care about the fate of this organization.							
14	For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.							
15	Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part. (R)							

APPENDIX E
Emotional Skills and Competence Questionnaire (ECQ)

Sr. No	Statements	Never 1	Seldom 2	Occasionally 3	Usually 4	Always 5
1	I am able to maintain a good mood even if something bad happens.					
2	Putting my feelings and emotions into words comes easily to me.					
3	I can maintain a good mood, even when the people around me are in a bad mood.					
4	Unpleasant experiences teach me how not to act in the future.					
5	When somebody praises me, I work with more enthusiasm.					
6	When something doesn't suit me, I show this immediately.					
7	When I don't like a person, I find ways to let him/her know.					
8	When I am in a good mood, it is difficult to bring my mood down.					
9	When I am in a good mood, every problem seems soluble.					
10	When I am with a person who thinks highly of me, I am careful about how I behave.					
11	I study and learn best, when I am in a good mood and happy.					
12	If I really want to, I will solve a problem that may seem insoluble.					
13	When I meet an acquaintance, I immediately notice his/her mood.					

14	When I see how someone feels, I usually know what has happened to him.					
15	I am able to tell the difference if my friend is sad or disappointed.					
16	I can easily think of a way to approach a person I like.					
17	I am capable to list the emotions that I am currently experiencing.					
18	I am able to detect my friend's mood changes.					
19	I can easily think of a way to make my friend happy on his/her birthday.					
20	I do not have difficulty to persuade a friend that there is no reason to worry.					
21	I am able to express my emotions well.					
22	I can recognize most of my feelings.					
23	I am capable to describe my present emotional state.					
24	I can say that I know a lot about my emotional state.					
25	If I observe a person in the presence of others, I can determine precisely her or his/her emotions.					
26	I do not have difficulty to notice when somebody feels helpless.					
27	My behavior is a reflection of my inner feelings.					
28	People can tell what mood I am in.					

29	I try to control unpleasant emotions, and strengthen positive ones.					
30	There is nothing wrong with how I usually feel.					
31	I do my duties and assignments as soon as possible, rather than think about them					
32	I usually understand why I feel bad.					
33	I try to keep up a good mood.					
34	I am able to tell somebody's feelings by the expression on his/her face.					
35	I can detect my friends` concealed jealousy.					
36	I notice when somebody tries to hide his/her bad mood.					
37	I notice when somebody feels guilty.					
38	I notice when somebody tries to hide his/her real feelings.					
39	I notice when somebody feels down.					
40	As far as I am concerned, it is normal to feel the way I am feeling now.					
41	I have found it easy to display fondness for a person of the opposite sex.					
42	I notice when somebody's behavior varies considerably from his/her mood.					
43	I can easily name most of my feelings.					
44	I am able to express how I feel.					
45	I know how to pleasantly surprise each of my friends.					

APPENDIX F
Job Performance Scale (JPS)

Sr. No	Statements	Strongly Disagree 1	Moderately Disagree 2	Slightly Disagree 3	Neutral 4	Slightly Agree 5	Moderately Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7
1	Helps other employees with their work when they have been absent.							
2	Volunteers to do things not formally required by the job.							
3	Takes initiative to orient new employees to the department even though not part of his/her job description.							
4	Helps others when their work load increases (assists others until they get over the hurdles)							
5	Assists me with my duties.							
6	Makes innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the department.							
7	Willingly attends functions not required by the organization, but							

	helps in its overall image.							
8	Exhibits punctuality arriving at work on time in the morning and after the lunch breaks.							
9	Takes undeserved work breaks.							
10	Exhibits attendance at work beyond the norm, for example, takes fewer days off than most individuals or fewer than allowed.							
11	Coasts towards the end of the day.							
12	Gives advance notice if unable to come to work.							
13	Spends a great deal of time in personal telephone conversations.							
14	Does not take unnecessary time off work.							
15	Does not take extra breaks.							
16	Does not spend a great deal of time in idle conversation.							
17	Achieves the objectives of the job.							

18	Meets criteria for the performance.							
19	Demonstrates expertise in all job-related tasks.							
20	Fulfills all the requirements of the job.							
21	Could manage more responsibility than typically assigned.							
22	Appears suitable for a higher-level role.							
23	Is competent in all areas of the job, handles tasks with proficiency.							
24	Performs well in the overall job by carrying out tasks as expected.							
25	Plans and organizes to achieve objectives of the job and meet deadlines.							