WORK OVERLOAD AND COGNITIVE FAILURE AMONG UNIVERSITY TEACHERS:

THE ROLE OF COPING STYLES AND PERSONALITY FACTORS

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THESIS APPROVAL CERTIFICATE

It is certified that the thesis entitled **"Work Overload And Cognitive Failure Among University Teachers: The Role Of Coping Styles And Personality Factors"** submitted by **Arfa Niaz** student of **Master of Philosophy in Psychology**, **Session 2021-2024,** Department of Psychology, National University of Modern Languages Islamabad, has been approved in the partial fulfillment of the requirement of Degree of M.phil in psychology.

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Candidate of **<u>Master of Philosophy</u>** at the National University of Modern Languages do hereby declare that the thesis <u>**"WORK OVERLOAD AND COGNITIVE FAILURE AMONG UNIVERSITY TEACHERS: THE ROLE OF COPING STYLES AND PERSONALITY FACTORS"**</u> 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.

I also understand that if evidence of plagiarism is found in my thesis/dissertation at any stage, even after the award of a degree, the work may be cancelled, and the degree revoked.

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Abstract

This study was conducted to investigate the relationship between work overload, emotional exhaustion, and cognitive failure, the mediating role of emotional exhaustion and the moderating role of personality factors and coping styles in the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure, among university teachers. Purposive convenient sampling technique was used to collect data from 400 university teachers. Data about demographics variables namely age, gender, type of organization was taken. The following questionnaires were used in the current study, namely work overload questionnaire, cognitive failure questionnaire, Oldenburg burnout inventory, and the Brief Cope Inventory Results revealed positive association between work overload, emotional exhaustion, and cognitive failure. Openness and extroversion is negatively associated with work overload, emotional exhaustion and cognitive failure. Problem Focused coping and Emotional focused coping moderates the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure, whereas Avoidant coping does not moderate this relationship. Openness and extraversion, didn't moderate the relationship. Findings of present study can be implemented in the university setting for improving the coping styles of teachers for preventing emotional exhaustion and cognitive failure. Further studies may investigate the moderating role of personality factors and coping strategies among the nursing population.

CHAPTER 1
Introduction

1.1 Work overload:

Work overload refers to employees' perception of being assigned tasks too difficult to complete during working hours (Jex, 1998). Overburdened employees often complain about unreasonable job roles, long or irregular hours, a fast-paced workload, pressure to work overtime (with or without pay), and insufficient breaks or vacations. (or none at all). French et al. (1982) proposed that overload is of two sorts. The first one is the quantitative, which is feeling much more to accomplish, sensing too much pressure, or working at a rapid speed. The second one is qualitative, which is the sense of not having the abilities or time to do excellent work and assignments. Similarly, Reilly (1982) stated that role overload and work overload are interchangeable terms. Work overload is defined as having many more tasks to complete in the limited time frame, feeling time is fleeting, harried, and weary (Duxbury et al., 2015). Work overload occurs in both workplace and personal life when individuals feel overworked when assigned too many tasks, and face conflicts between work and family commitments. According to Altaf and Awan (2011), work overload is the most significant difficulty faced by the majority of employees. Work-overload might be caused by either internal or external forces. Inner issues arise when an individual is unable to put further effort due to personal factors. In the event of external causes, work overload is experienced owing to decisions made by others, such as the outcome of unfavorable assessments by the management, unpleasant interactions with the managers, job, or career instability (Altaf & Awan, 2011).

Work overload is different from role overload. Role theories (Kahn, 1964; Reilly, 1982) established the concept of role overload, which is closely related to the general concept of labor overload. Role overload refers to the extent to which an individual feels under time pressure due to their obligations and duties. Work overload may be characterized as simply having too much to do and not enough time in which to accomplish it. It frequently entails feeling hurried, time-crunched, physically and emotionally fatigued and depleted (Duxbury et al., 2008). Role overload spans both professional and family domains and includes feelings such as: 1) needing to reduce certain responsibilities; 2) being overwhelmed in their role; 3) having excessive responsibility; 4) managing a heavy workload; and 5) compromising quality of life due to workload (Peterson et al., 1995).

Allan et al. (2007) introduced the concept of workload pressure, which includes both the volume and rate of work. They created their own measurement by asking questions about the amount of time workers are given to rest during breaks; whether workers must adhere to tight deadlines, leave on time, or take work home; whether there is an adequate number of employees to complete jobs; whether there is a backlog of work if workers are sick; and whether working late is taken for granted in the workplace.

Overload at work is a significant yet dismal source of stress, particularly in environments where boundaries are crossed. This field's researchers have confirmed overwork as a primary source of stress in the work place (Frone, 2008). Work overload arises when there are fewer employees and more work and activities allotted to them than what they can handle or have access to (Hakanen et al., 2008).

1.1.2 Role overload

Role overload, a state where individuals perceive role expectations as exceeding their time, energy, and skills (Rizzo et al., 1970), has become increasingly prevalent in modern workplaces, imposing significant costs on employees and organizations (Alfes et al., 2018). Role overload is associated with a range of negative consequences, such as psychological strain (Glazer & Beehr, 2005), turnover intention (Jensen et al., 2013), reduced organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs; Eatough et al., 2011), lack of organizational commitment (Fisher, 2014), and low work performance (Gilboa et al., 2008). Parallel, the workplace becomes increasingly motivated by performance owing to expanding global competitiveness (Tsui, 2007). Work performance has been established as the primary metric by which employees are assessed and compensated, as it is the foundation of the organization's success. Thus, it is critical for management researchers and practitioners to understand how and when role overload affects work outcomes. According to Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001) when situational demands exceed an individual's resources It leads to a variety of stress reactions, ranging from moderate psychological strain, such as anxiety (Mazzola & Disselhorst, 2019), to severe conditions like depression (Beehr et al., 2000).

1.1.3 Job stressors

Job stress has been a critical topic in organizational and industrial psychology for decades (Cooper et al., 2003). Business competitiveness and the COVID-19 pandemic have heightened pressures, such as increased workloads, job insecurity, and organizational instability (Bliese et al., 2017; Nemteanu & Dabija, 2021; Nemteanu et al., 2021). Furthermore, technology improvements have caused individuals to be exposed to job pressures (Monni et al., 2020). For instance, mobile communication technology compels employees to work anywhere at any time (Colbert et al., 2016). Additionally, organizations increasingly use advanced technology to monitor employee performance, heightening perceptions of stress (Barley et al., 2011; Harrower, 2019), which increases workers' perceptions of stress (Barley et al., 2011). According to a research, around 64% of respondents identified "work" as a key source of stress (American Psychological Association, 2019). Job stressors, broadly defined, are circumstances in which job-related elements demand an employee to make some sort of adaptive reaction (Kahn & Byosiere, 1992; Sacramento et al., 2013). Stressors are frequently mentioned as a vital aspect that has a big influence on both people and companies (Lepine et al., 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2007). Role overload, or job overload, is one of the key work-related stressor (Cooper, 1987). It refers to circumstances in which employees feel themselves as having too many tasks or activities to take on given the resources available to them.

1.2. Cognitive failure:

A well-functioning cognitive system can focus and sustain attention on a task, recover information from memory accurately, and fulfil future objectives. Without a doubt, this technique helps us do many daily activities. Although our cognitive system is efficient, occasional cognitive failures can still occur. People's cognitive failure frequency presumably varies. Though we all do most of our everyday tasks, we may all encounter it occasionally. Cognitive issues are relevant in cognitive, developmental, and clinical psychology research. Cognitive failures can affect real-life outcomes and may vary according to individual variations, neuropsychological diseases, and ageing. Cognitive failures are mistakes or errors in accomplishing a normally capable action. It was noted that while the task is possible, another issue inhibits it. Wallace and colleagues ascribe interference to memory, attention, or physical mistakes (Wallace, et al, 2002).

Cognitive failures—brief mental lapses that occur frequently—characterize individual cognition. (Broadbent et al., 1982). Cognitive failures are mistakes or errors in accomplishing a normally capable action (Wallace et al, 2002). According to Wallace et al (2002), Cognitive failure is reflected in memory lapses, distractibility, blunders, and forgetting names. Cognitive failures arise in numerous ways, namely daily forgetfulness which includes forgetting appointments. Distractibility includes daydreaming and other attention lapses like rereading. Blunders are motor coordination faults like dropping stuff or bumping against others. Name failure occurs when a person forgets a name they met before upon meeting again.

1.2.1 Memory

The general description of memory suggest that memory is connected to information intake and how the mind manipulates information to keep and retrieve it. Encoding knowledge into the mind is as vital as retrieving it (Sweller et al., 2011). Sweller et al. (2011) defines learning as encoding interacting information into a single memory configuration. Suitable memory storage is needed to alter end-product learning, and efficient learning results from such storage (Clark et al., 2006). Effective learning requires minimizing irrelevant load, increasing relevant load, and regulating intrinsic load in memory storage. Clark et al., (2006) and Sweller et al., (2011) classifies learning outcomes as retention and transfer. Information and experience are retained in human memory for later recollection (Joiner & Smith, 2008). Transfer is a cognitive process that uses human memory to produce new memories (Mayer, 2009). When unrelated load grows in human memory storage, information overload may cause an overflowing brain (Klingberg, 2009).

1.2.3 Executive control

Executive control cognitive functioning is assumed to influence behaviour top-down, unlike autonomic cognitive processes that regulate behaviour from the bottom up (Norman & Shallice, 1986; Rabbit, 1997; Shiffrin & Scheider, 1977). Numerous studies have revealed that decreased executive control manifests in behavior in many ways. Working memory deficiencies may include poor executive control (Miyake et al., 2000), mental set shifting (De Jong et al.,1999), dual task completion (Monsel & Driver, 2000), and response inhibition (Barkley, 1997). Which deficiency fundamentally impairs executive control is debatable. However, response inhibition and prolonged attention are recognized to be crucial to executive control

(Kimberg & Frah, 1993; Hawkins et al., 1999). People with inadequate executive control sometimes struggle to focus and control prepotent yet inappropriate reactions (Ivry & Mangun, 1998).

1.2.4 Attention control

Attention control failures indicate unengaged analysis. Clinically, inattention has been linked to poorer performance on executive function tests, which are prefrontal cortex-based behaviour management procedures (Chhabildas et al., 2001; Martel et al., 2007). Consideration of consequences activates potential outcomes that may affect the choice or decision. Impulsivity lacks the inhibitory system to stop behaviour. Excessive emotions may indicate override failure (Stanovich, 2002).

1.2.5 Attention gaps

Attention gaps create accidents, but they also lose time, efficiency, productivity, and quality of life. Short intervals between failures are often regarded degraded (Giambra 1995). Given their frequency, individual variations in everyday mistakes caused by attentional lapses has been empirically studied . While accidents induced by attention lapses are costly, losing and regaining awareness and attention to normal chores wastes time, efficiency, productivity, and quality of life.

Reason-inspired work may be particularly relevant to casual attentional deficiencies (Reason & Mycielska, 1984). Reason asked several diary study participants to detail daily action slips. These reports inspired Reason's common failure categorization system. Reason distinguished problems caused by inadequate planning from execution errors. In the first scenario, errors come from a lack of expertise, incomplete or incorrect information (ignorance or misunderstanding), wrong rule application, or neglect to apply them (i.e., flawed or missing inferences from accessible data) .

1.2.6 Cognitive control Theory:

General cognitive control problems may cause cognitive failures. Cognitive control requires learning and planning in the prefrontal cortex, according to cognitive neuroscience. . Cognitive control—the ability to steer cognition and behavior toward task goals—is a fundamental cognitive system function considered to be crucial for many higher-level activities.

Cognitive control involves actively maintaining task goals, selectively and dynamically updating them, recognizing and monitoring conflict, and making appropriate control modifications in conflict (Gilzenrat et al, 2004). These factors may affect processing in many scenarios.

Effective cognitive control and executive processes (such as updating, switching, and inhibition; Miyake et al., (2000) determine an individual's success in such scenarios. Norman, (1981) & Reason (984a, 1984b) argued cognitive control failures cause cognitive failures. Cognitive failures can occur when attention is diverted from the current activity and focused on external distracting stimuli or internal thoughts (e.g., daydreaming). Along this line, Reason (1984b) suggested that ''susceptibility to cognitive failures appears to be determined by some general control factor that exerts its influence over all aspects of mental function'' (p. 115).

Theoretically, the absence of cognitive control can lead to an increase in the frequency of cognitive failures and this general lack of cognitive control leads to overall increases in all different types of failures rather than specific failures that are due to failures of specific processing components (i.e., retrospective memory failures as a result of failures in retrospective memory processes). Cognitive control is the resolution of cognitive trade-offs, such as activating or deactivating a goal, process, or response propensity. One general cognitive trade-off is allocating limited resources to concurrent operations optimally. Or deciding whether to continue exploring a scenario, which is expensive and increases the likelihood of a good conclusion, or to leverage the data already collected.

1.3 Work Overload and Emotional Exhaustion:

One important affect-related outcome variable is emotional exhaustion. The body may experience stress from mood swings (Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017). Emotional exhaustion should always be considered in frameworks for affect-related research as a possible influence on other outcome variables, such job satisfaction (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). Emotional exhaustion, a stress reaction that drains one's emotional and physical resources, is one of the most significant components of burnout in the workplace (Grandey, 1993; Khan et al., 2019).

Work overload upshifts require resources, thus other domains lose them more quickly. According to USM et al. (2020), the loss of resources in one area depletes others. Work overload upshifts can be as emotionally upsetting as potential losses, according to Halbesleben et al.

(2014) and Hobfoll et al. (2018). They can lead to feelings of risk, a decline in wellbeing, disordered thinking, and more issues at work.

Reduced job satisfaction (Bakker et al., 2004), lower organizational commitment (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004), and increased turnover intention (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998) are only a few of the negative effects that work overload and emotional tiredness are linked to. Furthermore, studies have revealed connection of emotional exhaustion to poor health outcomes like a higher risk of cardiovascular disease (Toker et al., 2012) and mental health conditions like anxiety and depression (Bianchi et al., 2015).

1.3. 1 Burnout

Burnout is on the rise and negatively impacts workplace safety and health as well as employment chances (Ayala & Garca, 2018). Burnout symptoms include diminished self-awareness, depersonalisation, and emotional exhaustion, (Maslach et al, 2001). Burnout results from emotional exhaustion brought on by social interaction (Bakker et al., 2014). Emotional weariness is brought on by organisational and personal stressors. Consequently, when people are able to work regularly, emotional exhaustion is uncommon (Ayala & Garca, 2018; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993).

Burnout and job satisfaction are popular mental health and wellness measures in work and organizational psychology. Burnout consists of a sense of dwindling personal success, cynicism, and emotional exhaustion (Maslach, 1982). Mental and emotional fatigue is signs of emotional depletion. Depersonalization is emotional detachment and estrangement from customers, coworkers, and the firm. Burnout is frequently blamed on emotional exhaustion (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Lee & Ashforth, 1993; Cropanzano et al., 2003). Emotional tiredness has been linked to negative organizational outcomes and individual dysfunctions, including increased unproductive job behavior, intentions to quit job, illness absence, and mental health issues (Bolton, 2012)

1.3.2 Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion is one of the three signs of burnout. Mental exhaustion brought on by stress leads to burnout (Shirom, 2003). According to Bakker et al. (2006), behaviour, attitudes, and physical and mental health are all impacted by emotional exhaustion, which is typified by

excessive energy release and resource consumption. In addition, it has a greater impact on life and work than other aspects of burnout (Lee and Ashforth, 1996; Wright and Bonnett, 1997). The majority of studies on emotional exhaustion and burnout concentrate on emotional fatigue rather than risk factors. According to studies on fatigue, emotional exhaustion is influenced by environmental circumstances, especially those related to the workplace, (Maslach et al , 2001). Context and individual prevalence differ. According to study, certain personality qualities cause employees to feel more emotionally and physically worn out (Swider & Zimmerman, 2010). It may be possible to identify risk factors for burnout and tiredness by using person-related traits to predict emotional fatigue.

1.3.3 Emotional exhaustion at work

Emotional exhaustion is common in jobs that need frequent face-to-face engagement (Ürücü & Hasrc, 2020). Extreme anxiety and fatigue suggest poor emotional reserves. Decrease in motivation to achieve and increase in work-related stress makes it practically impossible to meet business demands. Additionally, pessimists worry about the business sector (Cordes et al., 1997). Emotional tiredness decreases respect, friendship, and compassion while raising negative emotions including weariness, energy loss, weakness, depression, pessimism, wrath, impatience, and restlessness due to stress (Ersoy et al., 2001). According to past studies, high job expectations and workloads, anxieties, and long working hours cause tiredness (Bakker et al., 2000; Maslach et al., 2001; Bekker et al., 2005). The behavioral reflection of emotional exhaustion includes absenteeism, a drop in organizational performance owing to staff performance, and a decrease in productivity

Studies of Durr & Keller (2014), show that cognitive reappraisal tactics improve emotions, interpersonal functioning, and well-being, whereas expressive repression may harm. (Gross & John 2003 ; Moore et al. 2008; Haga et al. 2009; Webb 2012). Emotion management can be challenging if it goes against one's natural tendency to express feelings. Teachers are generally instructed not to exhibit displeasure at misbehaving students. The pros and cons of explicit emotion management rely on how well people's positive attitude toward emotional processing matches these criteria (Chang & Davis 2009; Frenzel 2014).

1.3.4 Exhaustion management

Emotional exhaustion affects workplace effectiveness. For years, researchers studied this. Emotional exhaustion affects citizenship, health, job performance, and voluntary turnover. (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). Previous research shows that emotional exhaustion is caused by both personal and environmental variables. This focusses on managing emotional exhaustion. According to earlier research, emotional exhaustion is caused by both personal and environmental factors (Zheng et al., 2015). The idea of resource conservation sheds light on emotional exhaustion. (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998).

Maslach (1982) examined emotional depletion as part of the burnout hypothesis. Burnout is mostly emotional exhaustion (Bowler, 2008). Emotional exhaustion, is the main stage. (Shirom, 1989). When someone is emotionally fatigued, their inner and outside resources decrease (Anbar et al., 2007). According to Demerouti et al. (2001), heavy physical and cognitive work causes emotional fatigue. One major cause of emotional exhaustion is overuse of prolonged work stress, particularly as a result of ongoing interpersonal difficulties and high professional demands. Burnout, which arises from extended exposure to difficult work situations, is thought to be primarily caused by emotional exhaustion (Maslach et al., 2001). Burnout begins with emotional exhaustion, the loss of physical and mental reserves.

1.3. 5 Types of Exhaustion Model:

1.3.5.1 Cherniss Exhaustion Model (1980), states that unfulfilled job expectations and ongoing work stress are linked to emotional exhaustion. People who work in human services and are subjected to ongoing emotional pressures are frequently affected. People may become less committed or detached as a coping strategy when stress levels rise. Cherniss highlights that organisational and personal factors influence burnout.

1.3.5.2 Maslach's exhaustion model is three-dimensional. Maslach lists emotional weariness, depersonalization, and personal failure (Maslach, 1998). Maslach developed a 22-item questionnaire to examine tiredness-related behavior. This has been frequently found in research.

1.3.5.3 Suran and Sheridan's depletion model states that insufficient professional development increases job difficulty. Professional integrity cannot be formed without balanced educational needs. Fun jobs may make people more engaged and enthusiastic at work. Failure to meet expectations can cause fatigue. Without a place to use employes skills, they don't care about their past successes. People question their youth decisions in their 40s, and they may not love their job then it leads towards fatigue (Suran & Sheridan, 1985).

1.3.5.4 Meier's fatigue model based on Bandura's self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is the ability to do actions within reach. This is four-dimensional model which includes Emotional, physical, cognitive, and motivational exhaustion (Meier, 1983).

1.3.5.5 The fatigue model of Perlman and Hartman According to this human traits and the social setting have a significant role in the consequences of fatigue. The model has four phases (Perlman and Hartman, 1982).

1.3.5.6 The Cherniss fatigue model by Cary Cherniss contributed to weariness research. The 1980 model describes weariness as a personal response to worker stresses and a psychological link between stressors and coping mechanisms and work-related factors (Yldrm, 1996).

1.3.5.7 Per Pines' tiredness model, According to Pines' Tiredness Model, burnout is defined as extreme emotional tiredness brought on by ongoing stress and unfulfilled aspirations. It highlights that highly devoted people are primarily affected by burnout. The fundamental

reason is the disconnect between individual goals and the harsh realities of life. Maslach Exhaustion Inventory is the most popular statistic, followed by Pines and Aronson's scale (1988).

1.3.5.8 Edelwich's tiredness model lists business atmosphere, ideas, energy, and lack of objectives as service sector worker characteristics. According to Sürgevil (2006), bureaucratic or political pressures, high workloads, little pay, and long hours cause tiredness.

1.3.6 GAS (General Adaptation Syndrome)

According to General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) , a model devised by Hans Selye (1951) chronic stress causes physical and mental breakdown since the body has a natural reaction, which may drastically affect their interaction. General adaptation syndrome ends in exhaustion due to continuous stress.

For the current study theoretical framework is Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001). The idea that people have valued resources is at the core of COR. More resources are also desired, as are their acquisition, preservation, protection, and investment (expenditure) in the hope that they would result in resource returns in the future (replenishment).

Hobfoll (2001) identified 74 COR resources that could be divided into five main categories: work resources (such as seniority, status, and title at work); personal resources (such as optimism, self-esteem, and feelings of achievement); material resources (such as money); energy resources (such as time and effort spent); and interpersonal resources (such as friendships, teamwork, and a sense of worth to others). According to COR, negative outcomes (such as increased job strain and decreased POS) are likely occur when an individual's valued resources are threatened or are thought to be insufficient for handling a particular situation (Marett, & Harris, 2011; Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001).

1.3.7 Job Demand Theory:

The Job Demands theory utilises a positive psychology approach (Bakker and Demerouti 2008) to elucidate the experiences that workers have at work. The theory's central tenet is that working conditions in all occupations can be broadly classified as either Job Demands or Job Resources (Demerouti et al. 2001). Job demands are those aspects of work that are physical, social, organisational, or psychological that necessitate the expenditure of physical and/or psychological energy and are linked to psychological and/or physiological costs e.g., workload,

disciplinary issues, time pressure; (Demerouti et al. 2001). These elements of work enable workers to accomplish their goals; manage job demands, and the related physical and/or psychological costs.

Apart from job demands and job resources, the function of personal resources in moulding employees' working experiences has been recognized in the latest conceptualization of JD-R theory (Xanthopoulou et al. 2007). Personal resources can either directly or indirectly influence how job demands and job resources affect employee's work outcomes. Broadly stated, personal resources are self-evaluations of one's ability to regulate and impact upon their surroundings (Hobfoll et al. 2003).

1.3.8 Demands–Resources Theory

According to Bakker & Demerouti (2017), this method postulates that burnout happens when there is an imbalance between the expectations from work and the resources that are necessary to fulfil those demands. There are some physiological costs associated with job demands owing to the stimulation of the hypothalamic–pituitary–adrenal axis or psychological costs. Employment demands are those job elements that require prolonged physical or mental effort and are connected with specific physiological costs (e.g., subjective fatigue, reduced focus of attention, and redefinition of task requirements). Work overload, emotional labor, time pressure, and interpersonal disputes are all examples of common demands that may be found in the workplace. In the event that recuperation in response to such demands is insufficient or inadequate, a condition of mental and physical tiredness is triggered.

As the central strain dimension of burnout, emotional exhaustion is a popular indicator of poor mental health in the work place. Based on the job demands-resources (JD-R) model, the present research focuses on the work overload as the antecedents of emotional exhaustion.

According to the JD-R theory, job demands and job/personal resources show two distinct psychological processes: the motivational process, which shows that job/personal resources are intrinsically motivating and increase work engagement and wellbeing, and the health impairment process, which shows that job demands uniquely predict burnout. (Bakker & Demerouti 2017). These two processes provide the means to understand the relationships between important personal and professional outcomes, including job performance, organisational commitment, and turnover intentions (Collie et al. 2018; Esteves & Lopes 2017; Taris 2006). emotional energies,

making you unable to handle stress. Fatigue, burnout, and stress inability are indications of exhaustion.

1.4 Personality Factors as Resources

The consistent thought, feeling, and behaviour patterns that set people apart from one another are included in personality. It provides important insights into individual characteristics, human behaviour, and useful applications in a variety of domains, making it a core notion in many fields.

1.4.1 Insight into Individual Differences

A methodical foundation for comprehending the reasons for people's unique preferences, motives, and responses to their surroundings is offered by personality study. The Five-Factor Model (FFM) has been the subject of substantial research due to its predictive value in various circumstances. The model includes extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience (McCrae & Costa, 2008).

1.4.2 Predictive Power

Personality evaluations have been useful in forecasting results in various fields. For example, while conscientiousness is associated with self-discipline and accomplishment oriented, it regularly correlates with academic achievement and workplace performance (Poropat, 2009 and Roberts, et al, 2007). According to Barrick and Mount (1991), personality assessments are useful in organizational psychology for candidate selection, team formation, and leadership development.

1.4.5 Psychological Insights

Personality theories, such those put out by Erikson (1950) and Freud (1923), provide developmental viewpoints on how interactions between personal experiences, biology, and environment shape personality development over the course of a person's lifetime. These theories aid in our comprehension of how personalities evolve from childhood to maturity.

1.4.2 Personality

Personality is studied using human traits (Goldberg, 1981). Twenty years ago, B5 features were separated into two personality types. using statistical factor analysis (Digman,

1997). Alpha, now Stability (DeYoung et al., 2002), comprises agreeableness (A), conscientiousness (C), and neuroticism (N). Second, Digman and colleagues considered extraversion and openness flexible (DeYoung et al., 2002). Saucier, De Young, and colleagues discovered these two portions in various studies (DeYoung et al., , 2010).

Further component analysis identified a single generic personality factor in other studies (Rushton & Irwing, 2008). According to Rushton et al. (2008), this general aspect of personality (GFP) evolved naturally. This idea suggests that social efficiency is inherited through genetic inheritance and evolved throughout time by natural selection (Rushton et al., 2008). This idea suggests that genetics would pass on social efficiency (Figueredo & Rushton, 2009).

The Big Five take a lexical approach, claiming that differentiating qualities come from normal language use, while the FFM scientifically analyses personality assessments (Kim et al., 2019). Both frameworks are similar, but their roots differ (Goldberg, 1981). Both frameworks, which dominate personality research, employ five categories that are both independent and bipolar to understand personality (Rammstedt et al., 2018). The interactionist understanding of personality is also studied with the attribute of psychological understanding. Personality and situation determine behavior here (Swann & Bosson, 2010). Personality is less fixed in this view.

The characteristic method became standard in personality research. Thus, personality is often defined as a person's unique set of consistent traits (Guilford, 1971). Interpreting and comparing personality trait theory research requires understanding the history, evolution, and distinctive traits of the different trait models. Some models have shaped trait theory throughout time. Even if models' origins vary, dimensions usually correlate well (Gerbing & Tuley, 1991). Early trait psychology models describe personality using adjectives. 16 human features were derived (Cattell, 1946). Cattell's 16 primary components' source attributes form five groupings (Cattell, 1956).

1.4.2.1 Dimensions of personality

Extraversion includes friendliness, independence, warmth, and vigor. Apprehension, tension, emotional stability, and watchfulness outweigh anxiety. Toughness involves change receptivity, warmth, sensitivity, and abstraction. Independent traits include dominance, social aggression, attentiveness, and adaptability. Self-control includes perfectionism, liveliness, rule-abidingness, and abstractness (Cattell, 1956; Rossier et al., 2004). A framework for personality

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evaluation arose about (Cattell's, 1946). Eysenck & Eysenck (1969) Another paradigm, unlike Cattell's, uses abstract language to describe personality qualities. Both extraversion and emotional stability were recognized as the two most important elements by Eysenck, who focused on biological characteristics. Third dimension: psychoticism (Eysenck, 1976). and his model should complement and support each other (Eysenck, 1984; Cattell's, 1946). Two models' similarity exhibited equivalent anxiety, neuroticism, and extraversion (McKenzie, 1988). Despite using different methodologies, McCrae and Costa (1987) and Goldberg (1990) created similar models around the close of the 20th century. (McCrae & Costa ,1987) used factor analysis to build their five-factor model using personality surveys, whereas (Goldberg ,1990) used a lexical method to produce the Big 5 model.

1.4.2.2 Extraversion

The personality dimension that is researched the most frequently among the five personality dimensions is extraversion, as stated by Montalvo and Martí-Ripoll (2021). Among the several aspects of personality, extraversion is the one that can be seen with the greatest degree of precision (Mou & Shen, 2020). Generally speaking, extroverts are known to be cheerful, forceful, warm, outgoing, chatty, and sociable, whereas introverts are known to be quiet, shy, and have a tendency to prefer seclusion and little social interaction (Haddoud et al, 2021). In terms of personality traits, extraversion is associated with the degree and magnitude of one's capacity for joy, the amount of interpersonal connection one experiences, and the desire to be stimulated (Jani & Han, 2013).

The personality dimension that is researched the most frequently among the five personality dimensions is extraversion, according to Montalvo and Martí-Ripoll (2021). Among the several aspects of personality, extraversion is the one that can be seen with the greatest degree of precision (Mou & Shen, 2020). Generally speaking, extroverts are known to be cheerful, forceful, warm, outgoing, chatty, and sociable, whereas introverts are known to be quiet, shy, and have a tendency to prefer seclusion and little social interaction (Haddoud et al, 2021). In terms of personality traits, extraversion is associated with the degree and magnitude of one's capacity for joy, the amount of interpersonal connection one experiences, and the desire to be stimulated (Jani & Han, 2013).

1.4.2.3 Openness

Forthmann and Storme (2016) have conducted extensive research on openness as a personality attribute, which has also been extensively examined in the field of organisational psychology. Although there is a correlation between trait openness and individuals' career advancement into managerial and professional roles (Nieß & Zacher, 2015), studies have shown that individuals who score high in openness are better able to manage conflicting cultural values and adapt to new cultural contexts. This is a crucial factor that contributes to success in communities and organizations that are multicultural. Additionally, openness has been linked to a variety of favorable outcomes in professional contexts, such as improved work performance, conduct that demonstrates organizational citizenship (Berry & Gardner, 2011), and intercultural competence (Luhmann et al., 2018).

People who have a high level of openness tend to be more imaginative and original in their thinking. As a result, they are more likely to be receptive to new and unconventional ideas, which in turn can inspire them to think outside the box and come up with innovative solutions to problems. Openness contributes to an increase in creativity because of this (Huang et al, 2015). There is a clear correlation between increased openness and increased creative performance, according to research (Lee & Ashton, 2018). The capacity to modify one's thinking and conduct to better match with changing circumstances and settings is referred to as mental flexibility. Openness is also connected to mental flexibility. People that have a high level of openness are typically more flexible, which enables them to tackle difficult and unknown circumstances with greater ease (Knaps, 2015). Because open leaders are more likely to be receptive to feedback and new information, have better critical thinking and quicker problem-solving capabilities, make better decisions, and be more empathically responsive to the needs and mistakes of their followers, trait openness is also connected to more effective, innovative, and ethical leadership. This is because studies have shown that open leaders are more likely to be receptive to receiving feedback and new information (Abid et al, 2020).

1.4.3 Effects of Personality on Relationships, Performance, And Subjective Well-Being

Personality affects health, relationships, academic performance, and subjective well-being (Neyer et al., 2014; Briki, 2018). According to Revelle (2014) and Uher (2013), Galton was a 19th-century psychologist who studied individual differences. Galton's personality ideas differed greatly from others. Galton (1884) felt that persons and personalities are not supernatural but have always existed and that past circumstances are a result. Since personality is not as autonomous as our self-consciousness suggests, he did not use individuality. Persons are created by circumstances and have not yet parted from their parents. But something distinguishes humans and implies long-term variation. A person's cells affect how their higher order personality appears, according to Galton. According to Allport and Odbert (1936) the personality is "the dynamic organisation inside the individual of those psychophysical systems that mandate his specific responses to his environment," expanding Galton's idea of adaptable psychophysical systems (Uher, 2013).

1.4.4 Personality Traits and the Trait Activation Theory (TAT)

According to the Characteristic Activation Theory (TAT) described by Tett and Guterman (2000), a trait and a circumstance may be compared to the two sides of a coin, and they cannot be separated from one another (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985). It is the scenario or the context that, according to the TAT, is what drives personality characteristics into action (Tett & Burnett, 2003). The TAT places an emphasis on the scenario and context, as well as personal interaction, and asserts that behaviours are responses to cues that are impacted by that person's characteristics in a particular circumstance (Chasteen, et al 2006). To put it another way, characteristics can only play a part in influencing actions when they are present in the appropriate circumstances or contexts (Ho & Gupta, 2012). As a result, it is possible to assert that even while the characteristics could remain largely unchanged throughout the course of time, they might become more evident in particular circumstances. Behavioral inclinations that are stable may be provided by the qualities. They may, however, be activated by a variety of contextual cues, and the behavior that is produced by these qualities may be contingent on the context in which they are displayed (Dunn, 2014).

1.5 Coping

The evaluation impacts future coping. By emphasizing the individual-environment relationship, (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) aimed to improve previous coping techniques. Coping, defined as "continually shifting cognitive and behavioral attempts to meet external and internal needs that surpass resources" (1984, p.141), is important in various challenging situations, such as mourning, interpersonal conflicts, executive transformation, and inappropriate administration (Zhang et al., 2019). Coping techniques affect health, performance, and life satisfaction when this happens. Coping refers to the strategies a person uses to manage their emotions, stress, and well-being. Despite several coping mechanism predictions, (Link et al., 2005) assert that. coping theory, frequent evaluations and a description of needs are essential for understanding the therapeutic relationship (Stone & Neale 1984; Lazarus 1993).

Under pressure, coping strategies are needed. Despite numerous strategies, none are ideal. Stress management is crucial when emotions are out of control. All of these factors affect production. Coping is the use of cognitive and behavioural techniques to handle external and internal stresses that are viewed as excessive or beyond the individual's capabilities. (Isil, 2015). Coping mechanisms are human behaviours and psychological strategies to manage, tolerate, reduce, or restrict stress (Taylor, 1998). Any coping method that reduces stress and prevents long-term damage is desirable. Mental health and illness may be long-term impacts. An individual employing a coping strategy, viewing it, or judging it may have diverse views on its efficacy. Syder, The (Psychology of What Works in Coping, 1999) traditional coping descriptions are binary. The approach-avoidance paradigm and transactional model (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) are the most common coping mechanisms (Roth & Cohen, 1986).

Repertory, diversity, and exercise enhance coping flexibility (Kato, 2015e). The number of coping approaches utilized and the number above a sample mean or median measure an individual's coping repertoire. Having several coping skills doesn't always indicate having various solutions to solve an issue (Kato, 2015e).

People utilise many coping methods to handle stress. (Lazarus,1993) separated problem-focused (rational) and emotion-focused (affective) coping. The former entails actively changing the stressful environment, whereas the latter includes changing a person's response to the problematic environment-person interaction or their subjective understanding of it. Problem-

focused coping was substantially connected with good-functioning emotional and personality traits including high self-esteem, low anxiety, and low grief, but emotion-focused coping did not. Another study (Rahnama et al., 2017) found that anxiety decreased problem-focused coping. Emotion-focused coping exhibited both good and negative effects on affect, unlike problem-focused coping (Ben-Zur, 2009). Coping tactics that address both problems and emotions can help. varied depending on the scenario (Lazarus,1993).

1.5.1 Transactional model

The stress and anxiety "transactional model" and behavioural self-regulation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) separated problem- and emotion-focused coping techniques. Unlike problem-focused coping, which addresses the perceived issue or changes the basis of the problem, emotion-focused coping reduces or controls emotional suffering (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Although most pressures stimulate both forms of coping, problem-focused coping outperformed emotion-focused coping in the long run for psychological health (Boniwell & Tunariu, 2019).

The transactional paradigm describes emotion- and problem-focused coping. Approach-avoidance theory describes approach and avoidance coping processes. Both theories depend on the individual's evaluation of their assets to solve the problem. According to the approach-avoidance paradigm, the individual chooses between the approach mode, which seeks a direct solution, and the avoidance mode after assessing their resources (Roth & Cohen, 1986). Coping is the capacity to handle risky, unpleasant, or onerous situations (Carver, 2011). Daily adaptive coping is needed to lessen the stress-related impacts of stressful life events and prevent the health risks of acute and chronic stress (Cohen et al., 2007, 2016). Transactional stress model (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) is most frequently referred model in terms of coping strategies. This paradigm holds that cognitive appraisals and coping processes affect stress responses.

1.5.2 Theory of coping:

Lazarus & Folkman (1984), pioneers of coping theory, described coping as continually changing cognitive and behavioural efforts to handle particular external and internal pressures that exceed a person's resources.

Coping acts are taken when a situation is distressing (first assessment) and requires effort to manage or address (secondary appraisal) (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988). Transactional theory defines coping as "constantly shifting cognitive and behavioral efforts to handle external and/or

internal pressures that are judged as exhausting or beyond the resources of a person" (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 141). They believe coping is process-oriented and dynamic, not trait-based, and includes deliberate, purposeful actions in stressful situations (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). This theory states that coping techniques either directly control the stressor problem-focused coping, PFC, or regulate emotions originating from the stressful encounter, EFC (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). After coping attempts and new environmental knowledge, the situation is reassessed to evaluate if coping efforts were effective or if the circumstance has shifted from stressful to irrelevant or benign-positive (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Successful adaptation can cause positive affect, whereas poor adaptation can cause negative affect and physiological disturbances. According to (Lazarus & Folkman's, 1984) stress and coping theory, stress is a continual cycle of interactions between the individual and environment.

People face many difficult situations throughout their lives. Inability to manage with disease and treatment stress may threaten the person's life and quality of life (Manning-Walsh, 2005). A person uses a cognitive evaluation procedure with a primary and secondary appraisal to appraise the significance of a stressful occurrence. In primary evaluation, the person evaluates their own trauma. What Can I Do? is covered in the secondary evaluation. Assessment of situational needs occurs here. The primary and secondary judgments consider the stressful occurrence inconsequential, pleasant, or distressing. Stress may pose a hazard, challenge, or risk of damage or loss. It might also be all three (Folkman & Geer 2000).

CHAPTER 2

Literature

2.1 Work Overload

A cross-sectional study examined the link between work overload and risk behaviors among motorcyclists. There was an association of sleep/fatigue at the accident time with difficulties carrying out work tasks, feeling tired during work and feeling under pressure to carry out work tasks. The findings revealed that work overload was linked to the adoption of risky behaviors. It is believed that this fact can have an impact on the occurrence and severity of accidents (Santos, 2019). De Clercq and Belausteguigoitia (2019) conducted a study to investigate how employees' perceptions of work overload might reduce their creative behaviors and how this negative relationship might be buffered by employees' access to three energy-enhancing resources: their passion for work, their ability to share emotions with colleagues, and their affective commitment to the organization. Data from a manufacturing organization reveal that work overload reduces creative behavior, but the effect is weaker with higher levels of passion for work, emotion sharing, and organizational commitment. The buffering effects of emotion sharing and organizational commitment are particularly strong when they combine with high levels of passion for work. The findings suggest that organizations with adverse conditions, such as excessive workloads, can reduce the likelihood of employees avoiding creative behaviors.

The results of a study conducted by Habibie et al. (2020) showed that work overload had a positive and significant effect on work stress, work-family conflict had a positive and significant effect on work stress, family social support had a negative and significant effect on work stress, family social support had a significant effect in moderating between work overload on work stress, and family social support do not have a significant effect in moderating between work-family conflicts with work stress). A study (Haq et al. 2020) investigated the effect of stress and work overload on employee's performance of various public sector universities of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. Regression analysis was used to assess the impact of both independent variables (stress and work overload) on the dependent variable (employee performance). The results gave clear evidence that if the employees are stress due to any reason either internal or external and are overburdened, uncomfortable in their job, their performance towards the

organization will be low which ultimately will make hurdles in achieving organizational objectives.

Johari et al. (2019) conducted a study to examines potential factors of pressure that have a significant relationship to government auditors' job performance. Factors to be test in this study are work overload, time pressure and social influence pressure. The results of the study show that there was no significant relationship on work overload to auditors' job performance. However, the result of the study found that factor of time pressure shown a positive significant relation on auditors' job performance, while social influence pressure shown a negative significant relationship on auditors' job performance.

Another study by Aytaç and Basol, (2019) examined negative behaviors i.e work overload, loneliness, organizational conflict, and turnover intention which affect employees' creativity. According to the analysis results; it is determined that between work overload and turnover intention, loneliness and organizational conflict had a mediating role. When all the results are evaluated together, work overload in the organization forces employees to extreme behavior and it is found that employees feel loneliness or conflict, and as a result, their turnover intention increases. Related to this, the overloaded employees may get further away from creativity.

García-Arroyo & Segovia (2019) pointed out that Changes in the education system in Ecuador have increased the workload of university teachers, producing stress and burnout. The results of their study showed that work overload and evasive coping are positively related to emotional exhaustion, while active coping is negatively related to emotional exhaustion. Evasive coping moderated the relationship between work overload and emotional exhaustion so that teachers who use more evasive coping in situations of high work overload experience less burnout than teachers who use this coping style less. A study was carried out by Hakro (2022) to identify the impact of work overload, job satisfaction, employee engagement and job stress on employee turnover intentions in private banks of Sindh, Pakistan. The study was quantitative, cross-sectional and explanatory in nature based on deductive approach and positivist philosophy. All path coefficients found positive and significant in relationships except work overload and job satisfaction with employee turnover intentions. However, total effects found positive and significant. Findings of the study were greatly helpful particularly for private banks of Sindh to

reduce employee turnover which occurs due to work overload, job satisfaction, employee engagement and job stress and generally for overall banking sector of the country.

A study was done by Sandmeier et al. (2022). to analyze the relationships between teachers' work overload, prolonging working hours as a coping strategy, autonomy, and exhaustion. The findings showed that the effect of work overload on exhaustion was fully mediated by prolonging working hours. Autonomy moderated the longitudinal effects of work overload on exhaustion.

2.2 Cognitive failure

On the other hand, frequent savory snacking was linked to elevated anxiety. Moreover, mediation analyses showed that consuming savoury snacks more frequently was linked to greater signs of depression, tension, and anxiety as well as worse psychological health, via an increase in cognitive failures studied by Nicola-Jayne Tuck et al. (2022). In research of older individuals living in sheltered housing, it was discovered that emotional discomfort was a significant contributor to the association and detrimental effects of cognitive impairment and dysfunctional coping on life satisfaction Phuong Leung, Vasiliki Orgeta et al. (2019) found out through their study.

According to study findings, safe work practices were negatively associated with cognitive failures and positively associated with employees' happiness with their physical work environment. Moreover, there was a negative correlation between cognitive failures and physical workplace satisfaction study done by Klockner (2018) and Sharifi, et al. (2023) investigated that Acute stress can influence the working memory dimensions, although suppression can have detrimental effects on the inhibitory system. Yet, stress and the way that suppression interacts with it improve cognitive failure

Instead of measuring pure "unchallenged" ability, cognitive failures assess real-world cognitive capacity. Carrigan and Barkus (2016) found that momentary situations, combined with predisposing traits, increase the likelihood of cognitive failures. In workplaces with less organizational fairness, employees may be more prone to cognitive failures in routine tasks, which seems to be explained by psychological suffering according to the study of Tsutsumi et al. (2021).

2.3 Mediating Factors

2.3.1 Work-Family Conflict

The mediating function of Work-Family Conflict on the connection between work overload and job stress was examined by Dodanwala et al. (2022). Their research found that Work-Family Conflict, particularly time- and strain-based conflicts, largely mediated the impact of work overload on psychological stress. According to Fordjour et al. (2020) Work Family Conflict plays a big part in exacerbating workers' psychological discomfort, which has an indirect impact on cognitive function. According to their research, Work-Family Conflict regulates the stress brought on by work overload, which raises the risk of cognitive failure.

The relationship between job stressors like work overload and employees' cognitive and emotional well-being is considerably mediated by Work-Family Conflict, according to research by Bilodeau et al. (2020) that looked at Work-Family Conflicts role in a variety of occupational situations.

2.3.2 Good Emotions

According to a study, good emotions that employees experience during social interactions at work may reduce cognitive lapses (and augment bad emotions) and may be a more direct cause of accidents than feelings in a research done by Laura Petitta at al. (2019).

2.3.3 Resilience

Although perceived cognitive failures are highly linked to individuals' quality of life, they may not be strongly correlated with objective measures of cognitive deficiencies. According to the statistical analysis of the study's data (Mahdinia et al. , 2016) there is a direct link between cognitive impairment and smoking, chronic illness, work experience. Resilience was discovered to act as a mediator in the links between cognitive dysfunction and depressive and angry feelings (Gabriella Santangelo et al., 2021). Findings of a study show that using flextime in the office can reduce workers' perceived cognitive failures at work and at home by elevating their sense of control in both areas (Yu-Shan Hsu, 2021).

2.3.4 Procrastination

A study conducted by Fuschia and Sirois (2014) found that procrastination had significant indirect impacts on cognitive failures through absorption, confirming the idea that

procrastinators may suffer cognitive consequences from absorption. In a study conducted by Santangelo et al. (2014), Participants in the COVID19 study reported cognitive impairments at least occasionally while in quarantine or self-isolation, while some responders reported cognitive failures quite frequently. In addition, resilience was discovered to moderate the links between depressive, angry, and cognitive shortcomings.

2.3.5 Flextime

In a study done by Shaffer et al. (2021) their Findings shows that using flextime at work can reduce employees' cognitive errors at work and at home by enhancing their perception of control in both areas. The findings demonstrated that various psychosocial risk factors not only had a significant direct effect on cognitive failures but also had the potential to indirectly affect cognitive failures through accident propensity studied Kaydani et al. (2021).

2.3.6 Burnout

According to Bakker and Demerouti (2017) burnout has a detrimental effect on cognitive functioning and can result in cognitive failures. Recent research has shown that the association between cognitive failure and work overload is mediated by burnout. For example, employees with high levels of job stress reported higher degrees of burnout, leading to higher occurrences of cognitive failures (Spagnoli et al., 2021). Studies conducted on healthcare professionals during the COVID-19 pandemic have demonstrated the important mediating effect that burnout plays. Healthcare workers experienced more cognitive failure as a result of burnout, which was brought on by work overload brought on by more patients and longer workdays (Selvaskandan et al. 2022).

2.3.7 Emotional Exhaustion

Parray et al. (2022) explored the mediating effect of emotional exhaustion in the relationship between workplace incivility and job outcomes such as job stress, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. Their findings indicate that emotional exhaustion acts as a significant mediator, suggesting that reducing workplace incivility can mitigate emotional exhaustion and improve job satisfaction. During the COVID-19 epidemic, Burić et al. (2022) looked at how work-family issues affected teachers' emotional fatigue and commitment to their careers. They discovered that the association between work-family conflicts and professional dedication is mediated by emotional exhaustion.

Hwang et al. (2022) examined how emotional exhaustion mediates the relationship between work overload and cognitive impairment in healthcare workers. According to their research, there was a positive correlation between work overload and emotional exhaustion, which in turn raised the risk of cognitive failure. The negative effects of emotional exhaustion on cognitive failure in high-stress work contexts are highlighted by this mediating effect. Rupprecht et al.'s (2022) study looked at how work overload affected healthcare personnel' cognitive performance during the COVID-19 pandemic. They discovered that the association between work overload and cognitive failures was considerably mediated by emotional exhaustion, emphasizing the significance of treating emotional exhaustion to reduce cognitive failures in high-stress situations.

The association between work and social overload and cognitive failures was found to be considerably mediated by emotional weariness in a study that looked at the impact of these stressors on turnover intentions. The study demonstrated how emotional tiredness increases cognitive errors and increases turnover intentions (Ali et al. 2022)

2.4 Moderating Factors

2.4.1 Role Clarity

Role clarity significantly impacts how employees perceive and respond to work overload. Study of Chen et al. (2022) found that job clarity plays a moderating role, employees with clear job roles experience lower stress levels even under work overloads. This clarity allows individuals to prioritize tasks effectively, allocate cognitive resources appropriately, and manage cognitive failure. Cognitive failures are often linked to unclear job expectations and high cognitive demands. Kirk and Gallagher (2023) emphasized that role clarity significantly reduces the incidence of cognitive failures by providing employees with a clear understanding of their responsibilities, thus minimizing ambiguity in task execution under high work overload.

Role clarity moderates the negative effects of work overload. Feng et al. (2023) found that employees with high role clarity were less likely to experience cognitive failures when subjected to work overload, suggesting that role clarity provides a framework for coping with stress. Almeida et al. (2022) demonstrated that role clarity enhances task prioritization, allowing employees to focus on essential tasks and reduce work overload, thereby minimizing cognitive failures.

2.4.2 Social Support

Social support shapes employees' perceptions and responses to work overload. Huang et al. (2021) found in their study that social support moderated the relationship of work overload and cognitive failure employees with strong social support networks reported lower stress levels and better coping strategies during periods of high work overload, also leading to reduced cognitive failures. Social support directly impacts cognitive performance during high-stress conditions so on the other hand, Zhang et al. (2022) demonstrated that employees who perceived high levels of social support experienced fewer cognitive failures when faced with work overload, indicating that support systems play a crucial role in maintaining cognitive function.

Social support serves as a buffering mechanism against the adverse effects of work overload. Li et al. (2023) found that employees with high levels of social support reported significantly fewer cognitive failures during periods work overload, demonstrating the protective nature of social networks, and it also works as a moderating element in relation to work overload and cognitive failure. Different types of social support (emotional, informational, and instrumental) play varying roles in moderating the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure. Kim and Lee (2022) found that emotional support was a moderator particularly effective in reducing cognitive failures under work overload conditions, while informational support enhanced problem-solving abilities.

Nguyen et al. (2023) highlighted that employees who perceive high social support not only experience lower cognitive failures but also report higher job satisfaction, creating a positive feedback loop in high-stress situations like overload.

2.4.3 Job Resources

Job resources refer to various physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of a job that help individuals achieve work goals, reduce job demands, and stimulate personal growth. Adequate job resources can buffer the negative effects of work overload and enhance cognitive functioning (Bakker & Demerouti, 2022).

Job resources play a crucial role in how employees respond to work overload. Bakker et al. (2021) found that high levels of job resources significantly moderate the negative impact of work overload on cognitive performance, leading to lower rates of cognitive failure. The availability of job resources is directly linked to reduced cognitive failures. Sonnentag et al.

(2022) highlighted that employee with access to sufficient job resources reported fewer cognitive errors or cognitive failures, even when experiencing work overloads, underscoring the protective effect of job resources on cognitive functioning.

Specific job resources, such as autonomy and social support, are particularly effective in moderating the effects of work overload. Kahn et al. (2023) found that employees with higher autonomy levels reported significantly fewer cognitive failures when faced with work overload, as they could manage their tasks more effectively. Job resources act as buffers against the negative impacts of work overload. Demerouti et al. (2022) emphasized that sufficient job resources not only reduce cognitive failures but also foster engagement and job satisfaction, further protecting against work overload effects.

2.4.4 Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence refers to the ability to perceive, understand, manage, and regulate emotions in one and others. High levels of EI are associated with better stress management, effective communication, and enhanced resilience, making it a crucial factor in mitigating the adverse effects of work overload (Mayer et al., 2022).

Emotional intelligence plays a vital role in how employees perceive and respond to work overload. Naderi et al. (2021) found that employees with higher emotional intelligence are better equipped to manage the stress associated with work overload, leading to fewer cognitive failures. Sharma and Singh (2022) demonstrated that employees with high emotional intelligence experience significantly fewer cognitive failures when faced with work overload, highlighting the protective role of EI.

Emotional intelligence acts as a buffer against the negative effects of work overload. Li et al. (2023) found that individuals with high EI levels reported significantly fewer cognitive failures in high-pressure situations, indicating that EI provides essential coping strategies. Emotional intelligence is closely related to resilience, which also moderates the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure. Goleman et al. (2021) emphasized that individuals with high EI are more resilient and better able to maintain cognitive performance during high-demand situations.

2.4.5 Resilience

Resilience is the capacity to maintain or regain psychological well-being in the face of adversity. Research suggests that resilient individuals are better equipped to handle stressors like work overload, thereby reducing the impact on cognitive functions. Resilience involves adaptive coping styles, positive thinking, and the ability to leverage social support, all of which can help buffer against cognitive failures induced by work overload (Liu et al., 2022).

Hussain et al. (2022) found that resilience moderated the negative effects of work overload and cognitive failure thriving at work. Employees with high resilience exhibited better task performance despite high work demands like work overload. Chen et al. (2023) demonstrated that resilience moderated the effects of work overload on cognitive failures in a sample of healthcare workers. Those with higher resilience reported fewer cognitive lapses under high workload conditions.

Smith and Brown (2023) found that resilience significantly reduced the impact of work-related stress on cognitive failure among IT professionals. This study highlighted the importance of resilience training programs in high-stress industries. Jones et al. (2023) examined the role of resilience in the education sector, showing that teachers with higher resilience experienced fewer cognitive failures during peak work overload periods. This research emphasized the need for supportive environments that enhance resilience.

2.4.6 Job Complexity

Job complexity can either exacerbate or mitigate the effects of work overload on cognitive failure. High job complexity might increase the cognitive demands on employees, potentially leading to more significant cognitive failures under work overload conditions. Conversely, complex jobs can also engage employees more deeply, potentially reducing the negative impacts of overload by providing stimulating and varied tasks (LePine et al., 2022).

Zivnuska et al. (2002) highlighted an inverted U-shaped relationship between job complexity and work engagement, suggesting that moderate complexity can enhance cognitive functioning by keeping employees engaged, but too much complexity under high workload can overwhelm employees, leading to cognitive failures. Kraimer et al. (2022) focused on the transactional stress theory and found that job complexity moderates the relationship between global work demands and cognitive outcomes. Their study revealed that while moderate

complexity could buffer the adverse effects of work overload, excessive complexity heightened the risk of cognitive failures. Liu et al. (2018) demonstrated that task efficacy and job complexity influence cognitive appraisals of work demands. Higher job complexity was found to mitigate the negative effects of work overload on cognitive performance when coupled with high task efficacy.

2.4.7 Openness to experience

Openness to experience is one of the Big Five personality traits and involves a high degree of intellectual curiosity, creativity, and openness to new experiences. Individuals high in openness tend to be more adaptable and resilient to stressors, potentially buffering the negative effects of work overload (Lavoie et al., 2021). Openness has been shown to buffer the cognitive failure associated with complex and demanding tasks. By engaging in more effective coping strategies and maintaining a positive outlook, individuals high in openness can sustain cognitive performance even under work overload conditions (Koch & Adler, 2018).

Research by Tu and Lu (2013) as well as Montani et al. (2015) indicated that openness is positively related to innovative work behavior, which involves generating and implementing new ideas. Employees high in openness are more likely to share knowledge and collaborate, reducing the cognitive burden associated with work overload (Radaelli et al., 2014).

While research supports the negative impact of work overload on cognition, the moderating effect of openness remains unclear. Some studies propose that openness might buffer the detrimental effects of work overload. Combining perspectives from self-categorization theory and trait activation theory, scholars have found that openness does not moderate the relationship between work overload cognitive failure and knowledge sharing. (Chen et al., 2019). In a study of healthcare professionals. Adriaenssens et al. (2021) found that work overload was associated with increased cognitive failure, but openness did not moderate this relationship.

A study by Azizian and Jafari (2019) found no significant interaction between work overload and openness on cognitive failure in physical education staff. Similarly, Menzies and Jones (2017) reported that openness did not moderate the association between work stress and cognitive failures in nurses. A meta-analysis conducted by Zhang et al. (2021) found that work overload was significantly related to cognitive failure, but the authors noted that openness did not emerge as a significant moderator.

2.4.8 Extraversion

The potential moderating effect of extraversion on the work overload and cognitive failure relationship remains inconclusive. Some studies propose that extraversion might buffer the negative effects of work overload. Extraverted individuals, with their strong social networks and ability to seek support, might be better equipped to cope with demanding workloads, potentially mitigating cognitive failure (Bakker & Demerouti (2017).

A study by Zellars and Hochwarter (2017) indicated that extraverted individuals are more resilient to the negative impacts of work overload due to their high levels of social engagement and assertiveness. Extraversion reflects an individual's preference for social interaction, stimulation, and positive emotions (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Studies suggest a positive association between extraversion and cognitive performance. Extraverted individuals tend to display better attention control, emotional regulation, and resilience in stressful situations (Soto et al, 2011).

Extraversion is often linked to positive affect, sociability, and proactive behavior. However, recent studies challenge the notion that these traits help mitigate the negative impacts of work overload on cognitive functioning. For example, Navarro et al. (2019) found no significant interaction between extraversion and work overload in predicting cognitive failures, suggesting that extraversion may not provide the protective effects previously assumed. Martin and Thomas (2020) provided evidence from a large-scale survey that extraversion did not moderate the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure, suggesting that other personal and contextual factors need to be considered.

2.4.9 Problem-focused coping

Recent studies have explored the moderating effects of problem-focused coping on the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure. For instance, research by Hrabczuk et al. (2023) highlights that effective problem-focused coping strategies can alleviate the negative impacts of work-related stressors by addressing the root causes of these stressors, thereby reducing cognitive failures in high-pressure environments.

Moreover, the study by Smith & Lee (2023) discusses how employees who employ problem-focused coping strategies are better equipped to handle work overload. By actively seeking solutions to reduce workload or improve workflow efficiency, these individuals

experience fewer cognitive lapses compared to those who rely on emotion-focused coping strategies. A study conducted by El-Khoury et al. (2023) provides empirical support for the moderating role of problem-focused coping. The research involved a diverse sample and utilized rigorous statistical analyses, including confirmatory factor analysis and moderation analysis. The findings indicated that problem-focused coping significantly buffered the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure.

Past studies have explored the impact of coping strategies on occupational stress and turnover intentions among hotel employees. They found that problem-focused coping strategies, such as planning and active problem-solving, moderated the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure (Huang et al., 2018). Another study done by Fordjour et al., (2019), focused on the construction industry in Ghana, highlighting how professionals use problem-focused coping to manage work stress. The study concluded that coping styles problem focused and emotional focused coping moderated the effects of work overload on cognitive failure, leading to improved mental health and job performance.

2.4.10 Emotion-focused coping

A study (Pogere et al. 2019) discovered that teachers who employed emotion-focused coping strategies—like asking for emotional support and practicing relaxation—were better able to handle the stress brought on by work overload, which prevented them from experiencing cognitive failures. Additionally, Kahn et al.'s (2019) study on healthcare professionals revealed that those who used emotion-focused coping had less cognitive errors. This illustrates how emotional regulation can mitigate the negative effects of high labor demands like work overload on cognition. Martínez et al.'s (2019) study, which concentrated on university instructors, demonstrated that emotion-focused coping mitigated the negative effects of work overload on cognitive failure. The significance of emotional management in high-stress situations is highlighted by the fact that teachers who practiced emotional control and mindfulness reported reduced levels of cognitive failure. Kim et al. (2021) demonstrated that emotion focused coping helped to weaken the association between work overload and decision-making fatigue among IT professionals

2.4.11 Avoidant coping

According to a thorough investigation on avoidant coping and work overload done by Smith and Doe (2023), avoidant coping does not lessen the effect of work overload on cognitive failure. Their results imply that avoidant coping might not be a suitable solution for the cognitive demands that heavy workloads place on individuals. Similarly, Brown and Green (2022) examined various coping strategies and their effects on occupational stress in their longitudinal study. They found that avoidant coping did not moderate the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure. Instead, they suggested that avoidant strategies might worsen cognitive issues over time.

The study conducted by Davis and Martin (2022) examined several coping styles and their effects on cognitive failure resulting from work stress like work overload. Their data provide credence to the idea that avoidant coping does not appreciably change the association between cognitive failure and work overload. Walker and Kim's (2021) investigation focused on the moderating function of coping styles in the connection between cognitive failure and work overload. They discovered that avoidant coping had no moderating impact, which suggests further that these coping styles are ineffective in reducing the cognitive failure brought on by work overload.

2.3 Work Overload and Cognitive Failure

A study, carried out by Kazemi et al. (2017) showed a significant relationship between work overload and cognitive failure so with increasing the work overload, cognitive failure also increased and the probability of human error and accidents increased. It was found out that the subjective work overload is a significant stressor in the nursing profession and the stress can lead to cognitive problems and occupational cognitive failure. A study was conducted by Mohammady et al. (2018) to determine the relationship between nurses' Subjective work overload and occupational cognitive failure in intensive care units. There was a significant positive correlation between cognitive failure and work overload.

A case-control study was conducted on nurses by Pourtalemi et al. (2023), during the severe period of the COVID-19 outbreak. There was a significant correlation between the total work overload score in all areas and the total score of cognitive failures in the group of nurses with and without unsafe behaviors. The study Azizia & Fathi, (2020) examined the association

between job stress and work overload with cognitive failure with the mediating role of organizational climate among physical education staff in Ardabil province. The results showed that the variables of job stress and work overload had a significant positive association with cognitive failure. In addition, the research model had a good fit, and the indirect impact of these variables was confirmed by the mediating role of organizational climate.

2.4 Work Overload and Exhaustion

A study conducted by Bachtiar and Yulianti (2023) investigated that work stress and work-family conflict considerably impact emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, work overload, work-family conflict, and emotional exhaustion did not significant effect on job embeddedness.. And the emotional exhaustion made employees more prone to burnout. As expected, emotional exhaustion significantly mediated the positive effect of work overload on employee burnout. Furthermore, ethical leadership was found to moderate the relationship between emotional exhaustion and employee burnout (Zahra, 2023).

A study was conducted by Cao et al. (2023) to see the role of human resource management attributions. The model posits that when employees perceive that their organization's human resource management practices are intended to improve their job performance, they experience higher levels of job involvement, which leads to lower levels of emotional exhaustion. Conversely, when employees believe that their organization's human resource management practices are intended to reduce organizational costs, they experience work overload, which translates into higher levels of emotional exhaustion. Another study was carried out by Astuti and Palupiningdyah (2018) to determine the influence of work overload on job performance through emotional exhaustion. The results of the study show that work overload and emotional exhaustion have a negative significant effect on job performance. In addition, the results also show that work overload leads an emotional exhaustion and it's adverse effects.

A study was conducted to ascertain how low pay and work overload affect hotel food and beverage staff's emotional exhaustion. The emotional exhaustion of hotel food and beverage staff is significant at impacted by low pay and work stress. Regression analysis found that work overload, as opposed to poor pay for hotel food and beverage workers, has a greater impact on emotional exhaustion (Abd Hadi, 2023).

Another study was carried out by Oppenauer and Voorde (2018) to explore the impact of enacted high-involvement work systems practices on employee emotional exhaustion. The study hypothesized that work overload and job responsibility mediate the relationship between high-involvement work systems practices (ability, motivation, opportunity, and work design high involvement work systems practices) and employee emotional exhaustion. Results indicated that ability- and motivation high involvement work systems practices are positively related to work overload, and ability-, motivation- and work design high involvement work systems practices are positively related to job responsibility. In turn, job responsibility reduces emotional exhaustion, whereas work overload has a positive effect on emotional exhaustion.

Fasyni, (2020) conducted a study to examine the effect of work overload and work-family conflict on emotional exhaustion. The sample of the research was the emergency room nurses of all the private general hospitals in Padang. The study found that, work overload has a positive and significant effect on emotional exhaustion, work overload significantly influences on work-family conflict, and work-family conflict has a negative and significant effect on emotional exhaustion.

Grobelna, (2021) investigated the impact of work overload and supervisor support on emotional exhaustion and analyzes its consequences for critical employee and job-related outcomes, such as affective organizational commitment, intention to leave, and the quality-of-service performance. The study findings confirmed that workload and supervisor support are both significant antecedents of emotional exhaustion, which, in turn, exerts a significant impact on hotel employees' leaving intention and reduces the quality of service performance. The study also offers useful implications including training and emotional management courses to protect hotel employees from emotional exhaustion and maintain a committed workforce who are likely to deliver high service quality.

Changes in the education system have increased the workload of university teachers, producing stress and burnout. The study was done (García-Arroyo & Segovia (2019) to analyze the relation between work overload, coping styles, and emotional exhaustion in university teachers. The results show that work overload and evasive coping are positively related to emotional exhaustion, while active coping is negatively related to emotional exhaustion. Evasive coping moderated the relationship between work overload and emotional exhaustion so that

teachers who use more evasive coping in situations of high work overload experience less burnout than teachers who use this coping style less.

Ali et al. (2020) conducted a study to probe into a model of work-overload and Job performance with the mediation effect of emotional among full-time faculty members. The outcomes exhibited that emotional exhaustion fully mediated the association between work overload and job performance. Besides, it was established that work overload and emotional exhaustion both have negative impacts on job performance. Besides, results revealed that work overload prompts emotional exhaustion.

A study was carried out by Tabassum (2017) to investigate the role of work-family conflict, and perceived work overload in the development of work exhaustion among banking professionals. Results support the independent role of work-family conflict and perceived work overload as positive predictors of work exhaustion. The study involves a better understanding of work exhaustion for maintaining effective organizational performance.

2.5 Exhaustion and cognitive failure

Diestel et al. (2021) carried out research to find out how emotional exhaustion affected cognitive failure and adaptive performance. They discovered that employees' adaptive performance was adversely impacted by cognitive failures, which were linked to higher degrees of emotional exhaustion. The mediating function of safety behaviours in the association between emotional exhaustion and cognitive failures was investigated by Martínez-Córcoles et al. (2021). According to their research, emotional weariness is a direct cause of cognitive errors that can impair safety practices in high-risk businesses.

Bliese et al. (2023) conducted a study to assess the impact of work-related stressors on cognitive failure. Their results indicated a strong positive correlation between emotional exhaustion and cognitive failures over time.

2.6 Personality and cognitive failure

According to the study of Iwasa et al. (2021), cognitive failure was significantly and independently correlated with neuroticism, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. According to another study done by Yoshida et al. (2022) findings, cognitive impairment was correlated with age, sleep quality, neuroticism, and conscientiousness. According to one study's proposed model

done by Tangestani et al. (2018) found lifestyle and personality traits can considerably predict cognitive failures through negative emotions. Personality traits and lifestyle can also significantly and negatively predict emotions and cognitive failures

Personality can predict about 18% of cognitive failure susceptibility. Individuals who lack self-assurance, are impulsive, and have a propensity to distance themselves from the present moment appear to be particularly vulnerable and report making more mistakes on a daily basis studied by Markett et al. (2020). The other three Big Five traits (Openness, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness) were not shown to be related to workplace mistakes; however Extraversion was associated with not making mistakes. These findings show significant connections between mindfulness and professional mistakes as well as between personality traits, particularly neuroticism and emotional stability (Klockner & Hicks, 2015).

In one investigation, a single component dominated the reactions to cognitive failure, according to both Rasch modelling and confirmatory factor analysis. A regression analysis revealed that personality traits were a good predictor of cognitive failure reactions (Tirre, 2018). Objective cognitive performance (processing speed, memory, and inhibition) was unrelated to cognitive failures, while conscientiousness, neuroticism, and nearly all of their sub facets were consistently correlated with these personality traits study (Könen, et al. (2018). Openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness—the "Big Five"—were not linked to workplace mistakes. These findings highlight significant links between mindfulness and workplace mistakes, as well as between personality (particularly neuroticism and emotional stability) and workplace mistakes mentioned by Klockner et al. (2015).

van den Bos (2017) used CFQ was used to quantify subjective cognitive complaints, and the study discovered strong positive connections between neuroticism and cognitive complaints, but just one association between extraversion and cognitive failure. Controlling for sociodemographic factors, higher neuroticism was linked to more cognitive failures whereas conscientiousness and agreeableness were linked to less failures (Sutin et al, 2020). The Five Factor Model of personality traits was linked to cognitive behavior, with neuroticism and conscientiousness having stronger links a study conducted by Aschwanden et al. (2020).

2.7 Differences among Permanent and Visiting Faculty on Study Variables

Although both visiting and permanent faculty have heavy schedules, the types of stress they encounter vary. While visiting teachers deal with financial strains, teach several courses at several institutions, and lack institutional support, permanent faculty balance teaching, research, and service obligations (Lantsoght, 2024). A more stressful work environment results from visiting faculty feeling worked overload despite having equivalent or more teaching hours because of job insecurity and scarce resources. The comparison demonstrates that visiting and permanent faculty has different levels of cognitive failure. While visiting teachers experience cognitive failure as a result of financial strains, multiple teaching duties, and job uncertainty, permanent faculty encounter it as a result of multi-role obligations and research expectations (Schweitzer, 2016).

Although emotional exhaustion affects both visiting and permanent faculty, the reasons behind it vary greatly. The ongoing responsibilities of juggling teaching, research, and service exhaust permanent faculty, while job insecurity and unstable finances are the main causes of burnout among visiting faculty. As a result, the two groups' causes of emotional exhaustion differ, with visiting faculty frequently dealing with a more demanding and uncertain work environment. (Koh, 2017)

Because they enjoy intellectual independence, professional autonomy, and stable employment, permanent academics may be more open. In contrast, job uncertainty can impede visiting faculty's ability to engage with new ideas. (Schmitt et al., 2016) Nevertheless, depending on stability and the resources available, both groups might exhibit comparable levels of openness.

Both visiting and permanent faculty members' work settings have a big impact on how extroverted they are. Extroverts are more likely to be permanent faculty members because they have steady jobs and access to institutional support. They are able to collaborate professionally and socially, which makes them more gregarious and forceful. However, visiting teachers frequently deal with issues including poor integration and unstable employment, which can limit their capacity to exhibit extraversion. Consequently, there is a discernible disparity in extraversion levels, with permanent faculty members typically displaying more extroverted behaviours than their visiting counterparts (Baker, 2020).

The capacity for problem-focused coping demonstrates the distinctions between visiting and permanent faculty. A steady and resource-rich atmosphere helps permanent professors deal with stressors in an efficient manner. On the other hand, systemic obstacles including a lack of support and integration make it difficult for visiting professors to apply problem-solving techniques. Given their stable positions and access to institutional resources, these variables imply that permanent faculty members are more likely than visiting faculty members to utilise problem-focused coping (Kim et al., 2015).

Both visiting and regular faculty have different coping mechanisms. With resources and job security, permanent faculty members rarely employ emotion-focused coping, frequently in conjunction with problem-focused techniques. Due to employment uncertainty and a lack of support, visiting faculty members are more likely to rely on emotion-focused coping strategies to maintain their mental health. This demonstrates how coping strategies are influenced by one's environment and work position (Kim et al., 2015).

There are significant differences in coping mechanisms between visiting and permanent faculty. Because they have institutional support and job stability, permanent professors are less likely to use avoidant coping strategies and instead choose to deal with challenges head-on. On the other hand, visiting faculty members are more likely to employ avoidant coping due to their job uncertainty and lack of support. This demonstrates how work circumstances affect coping mechanisms, since visiting faculty are more likely to use avoidant coping (Kim et al., 2015).

2.8 Differences Among public and private university teachers on Study Variables

Employees in the public sector frequently experience higher levels of work overload because of the nature of public service, responsibility, and stakeholder monitoring, according to research by Boyd et al. (2011). However, because the private sector is a profit-driven industry with tight deadlines and performance expectations, employees there deal with more extreme work overload. Similar findings were made by Schaufeli et al. (2016), who discovered that bureaucratic obstacles cause public employees to suffer moderate levels of work overload, but job insecurity, competitive performance reviews, and technological demands cause private sector employees to report higher levels of work overload. While commercial organisations struggle with task intensification motivated by profit-maximization tactics, Kim and Stoner (2008) point

out that work overload in public organisations is more closely linked to systemic inefficiencies (such as understaffing).

Due to bureaucratic restrictions, scarce resources, and the emotionally taxing nature of public service positions, personnel in the public sector suffer from higher levels of emotional exhaustion. Public servants frequently deal with moral quandaries, increased public scrutiny, and a sense of duty to the welfare of society, all of which exacerbate emotional exhaustion (Hakanen et al. 2008). However, according to Maslach and Leiter (2016), job instability, performance-driven environments, and pressure to exceed high productivity goals are the main causes of emotional exhaustion among private sector workers. Emotional exhaustion is made worse by the competitive workplace and unstable employment in private companies, especially for workers in high-stress positions.

Furthermore, Dollard et al. (2000) pointed out that although public personnel have more job security, this gain is counterbalanced by high emotional labor demands, including handling challenging clients or resolving social issues. In contrast, the absence of work-life balance and rigorous performance reviews cause emotional exhaustion in private employees.

According to Wallace et al. (2005), bureaucratic inefficiencies, inflexible structures, and emotionally stressful work situations make public sector employees more vulnerable to cognitive failures. Cognitive failure is increased by the combination of emotional labor demands and the burden of ordinary administrative activities, which results in concentration and decision-making lapses. On the other hand, Rastogi et al. (2018) found that employees in the private sector are more prone to suffer from cognitive failures brought on by demanding work settings, multitasking, and short deadlines. Cognitive failures are exacerbated by the competitive environment, rapid technological advancements, and performance-driven society.

According to Ceschi et al. (2014), stress and abrupt changes in work requirements are the main causes of cognitive failures in private organisations, but monotony and procedural rigidity are frequently the cause in public organisations. Although the conditions and organisational stressors in both sectors are distinct, cognitive breakdowns occur in both.

According to Fein et al. (2014), workers in the private sector typically have higher levels of openness because they work in dynamic situations that demand creativity and flexibility. Private organisations' competitive environment encourages innovation and receptivity to novel

approaches, tools, and procedures. On the other hand, Park and Word (2012) noted that because of inflexible rules and bureaucratic institutions, public sector workers are frequently less transparent. Compliance, stability, and conformity to established policies are given priority in public organisations, which may restrict employees' freedom to experiment with new concepts or solutions.

According to Buelens & Van den Broeck (2007), the hierarchical and procedural structure of public sector work may cause individuals to display lower levels of extraversion. The emphasis placed on conformity, rule-following, and stability in public sector jobs may not be compatible with the proactive and forceful traits of highly extroverted people. Extraversion is prized in both fields, albeit it shows itself in distinct ways, according to De Vries et al. (2016).

Coping styles among employees in the public and private sectors were compared in A Comparative Study of Occupational Stress, Coping Style, Self-Efficacy, and Life Satisfaction Among Public and Private Sector Employees (Basak, 2024). According to the study, personnel in the private sector outperformed those in the public sector in terms of mean scores for avoidance coping mechanisms such behavioural disengagement and self-distraction. But there were no appreciable variations in problem-focused coping between the two groups. This implies that although workers in the private sector can utilise avoidance coping more frequently, both industries use problem-focused techniques in a comparable manner. Employees in the public and private sectors were found to have similar emotion-focused stress management techniques, with no discernible changes in emotion-focused coping between the two groups.

A multidisciplinary strategy is needed to address job overload and emotional exhaustion. This strategy should include organizational measures that reduce burden, offer sufficient resources and support, and encourage work-life balance (Leiter & Maslach, 2009). Individual-level techniques like prioritization, time management, and self-care can also assist lessen the negative consequences of work overload and avoid emotional burnout.

Figure 1

2.7 Conceptual framework:
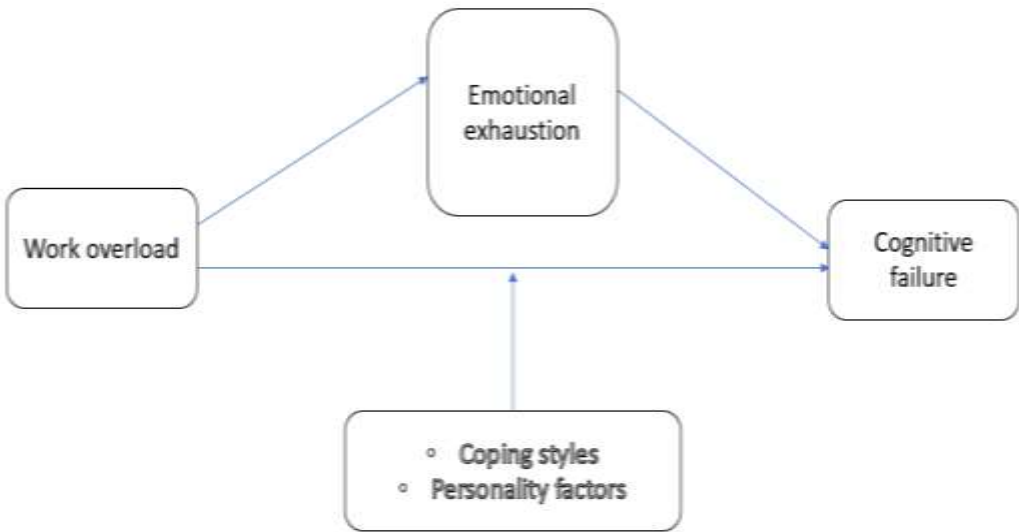
Fig 1: Framework for the present study

2.8 RATIONALE

The current study's goal is to examine the connection between work overload and cognitive failure among university teachers. University teachers have to play multiple roles that are related to teaching and administrative duties. This is especially true with the shift to online instruction, when jobs like revising methodological plans and exercises, editing student work, and offering tutoring have caused anxiety to increase (Bravo, 2022). Notwithstanding these obstacles, elements like student motivation and engagement can have a major impact on instructors' work engagement (Obrad, 2021).

Pressure arises when an individual's workload surpasses their capacity to do the assigned tasks. It's a condition where the individual experiences stress or when the demands of the situation outweigh the capacity of a teacher. These conditions can lead to a variety of behavioral, health, and emotional issues if they persist without intervention over an extended time. Although managers typically employ these strategies to boost employee motivation and output, there are times when they have unfavorable long-term effects.

The purpose of the current study is to investigate the relationship of work overload with the cognitive failure, with the mediating role of emotion exhaustion and the moderating role of coping strategies and personality factors. This study is there in novel contribution in the sense that it is focusing on the negative impact of work overload on cognitive failure, and this study emphasizes whether coping, exhaustion, and personality factors have some mitigating role in the relationship nullifying the negative Impact of work load on cognitive failure.

This study will also be helpful in educating Overloading oneself with work can negatively affect cognitive functioning, which may affect students' learning experiences by lowering the standard of instruction. Examining the connection between workover load and cognitive failure can shed light on how academic institutions should optimize faculty workloads to uphold and improve standards of instruction.

There is a great deal of study on work overload and cognitive failure, but most of it has been done in the corporate world. As a result, there is a big knowledge gap about these dynamics in academia, especially among university instructors. Because of their many roles—which include teaching, research, and administrative duties—teachers encounter particular pressures that are not sufficiently covered in studies on other professions (Kinman & Wray, 2018).

Therefore, the target population for the above mentioned study is university teachers, because they are the ones who go through hectic routines with different tasks (Baillien et al., 2011).

Additionally, not enough research has been done on how personality traits, coping mechanisms, and work overload interact in this population. The majority of research has focused on personality traits or coping strategies alone, with little attention paid to how these elements affect cognitive outcomes when work overload is present (Barber et al., 2019).

In order to fill these gaps and add to the body of knowledge on stress management in educational settings, this study attempts to offer a comprehensive understanding of how personality traits and coping mechanisms affect cognitive failure in university instructors. It is anticipated that this study will provide useful insights for creating therapies specifically suited to the academic setting.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

3.1 Operational definitions

3.1.1 Work overload: Employees who believe they have more work than they can finish in a given amount of time are said to be experiencing work overload (Jex, 1998)

3.1.2 Cognitive failures: The term 'cognitive failures' was coined by Broadbent et al. (1982) to refer to minor slips that cause the normally smooth flow of intended action (physical or mental) to be disrupted.

3.1.4 Coping: is the selection and execution of behaviors evaluating the intrinsic or extrinsic requirements. It produces behavioral efforts of an individual to control problems. As an important mediating and regulating factor in the process of psychological stress, coping plays a regulatory role between stress and response results (Folkman et al., 1986)

3.1.5 Openness to Experience: (also known as Intellect) depicts variations in intellectual curiosity, aesthetic sensitivity, and imaginative capacity. In contrast to people who are close-minded and typically have a limited range of intellectual and creative interests, highly open persons like thinking and learning, are sensitive to art and beauty, and produce innovative ideas. (APA)

3.1.6 Extraversion: represents individual variations in energy level, assertiveness, and social engagement. While introverted people are typically socially and emotionally reticent, highly extraverted people like interacting with others, feel comfortable expressing themselves in front of others, and regularly feel positive feelings like excitement and enthusiasm. (APA)

3.1.7 Exhaustion: is characterized by a lack of energy, feelings of demoralization, and irritability (Appels and Mulder, 1988).

3.2 Objectives

Following were the objectives of the current study

1. To investigate the relationship between work overload ,cognitive failure, emotional exhaustion personality factors and coping among the university teachers

2. To see the mediating role of emotional exhaustion in the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure among university teachers.

3. To study the moderating role of coping styles and personality factors (openness, extraversion) in the relationship between work overload and emotional exhaustion among university teachers.

4. To investigate the differences in study variables across job status (Permanent/visiting) and job type (Public/Private).

3.4 Hypotheses

Following were the hypotheses of the study

1. There is a significant difference in study variables between permanent and visiting faculty.

2. There is a significant difference in study variables between public and private university teachers.

3. There is a positive correlation between work overload, emotional exhaustion, and cognitive failure.

4. Cognitive failure, emotional exhaustion, and work overload are all negatively connected with extraversion.

5. There is a negative correlation between openness and emotional exhaustion, cognitive failure, and work overload.

6. The link between cognitive failure and work overload is mediated by emotional exhaustion.

7. The association between cognitive failure and work overload is moderated by openness.

8. The association between cognitive failure and work overload is moderated by extraversion.

9. The connection between job overload and cognitive impairment is moderated by problem-focused coping.

10. The association between cognitive failure and work overload is moderated by emotional focused coping.

11. The association between cognitive failure and work overload is moderated by avoidant coping.

3.4 Participants

University teachers from both public and private universities in Islamabad, and Rawalpindi made up the study's sample. Teachers serving in public /private sectors in Islamabad, and Rawalpindi participated in the current research. To guarantee familiarity with academic responsibilities, a minimum of one year of teaching experience was required. Participation in administrative and instructional duties was also required. This criterion was applied to ensure participants had sufficient exposure to the academic environment and work-related challenges typically associated with teaching and administrative responsibilities.

3.5 Instruments

3.5.1 Demographic information. Teachers were required to provide personal information on the demographic sheet

3.6 Operational Definition

3.6.1 Work overload: work overload was measured through the scale developed by Kavitha Venugobal (2017) with 10 items 5 point Likert scale (strongly disagree to strongly agree). Reliability of this questionnaire has been found as .70 (Kavitha Venugobal, 2017).

3.6.2 Cognitive failure

To evaluate cognitive failure, Broadbent et al. (1982) CFQ scale was used. The CFQ is a self-report questionnaire consisting of 25 items assessing deficits regarding attention, perception, memory and motor functioning in everyday life. The total CFQ score was calculated by summation of all answers and scores range from 0-100. A higher total score indicates more subjective cognitive failure. The test-retest reliability of the summated CFQ score has been reported as 0.71. (Broadbent et al, 1982)

3.6.3 Emotional exhaustion:

The nine items of the emotional exhaustion sub-scale of Oldenburg burnout inventory (2002) was used to measure emotional exhaustion. Example of the item from this scale include: "There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work". The reliability estimate for this measurement has been found as $\alpha = 0.82$ (Catia et al, 2021)

3.6.4 The HEXACO-60 short personality inventory (Ashton and Lee, 2009). Current study has used openness to experience and the extraversion sub scales, each subscale consists 10-item. Internal consistency for openness to experience is α = **.78** and for extraversion is α = **.80** (Ashton, & Lee 2009)

3.6.5 Brief-COPE: A 28-item self-report questionnaire called the Brief-COPE (dispositional version) developed by Carver (1997).was used to evaluate whether teachers are coping with stress by using emotion focused coping, problem focused coping, or avoidant coping initially Brief COPE has following three subscales namely (1) Problem-focused coping, (2) Emotion-focused coping, and (3) Avoidant coping.

3.7 Procedure

Data for the present study were collected online through the personal references from teaching staff from the different universities of Islamabad and Rawalpindi. Data were collected from 400 teachers, through survey method using purposive convenient sampling technique. A cover letter indicating the study's purpose as well as the ethical protocol that ensures the confidentiality of the responses of participants was provided to the participants. As the targeted population could understand English language, therefore, questionnaires were in English and not translated into any local language. Participants completed the self-reported questionnaires consisting of items related to work overload, emotional exhaustion, cognitive failure, personality, and coping. Participants provided their demographic details such as age, education, marital status total work experience, and type of organization as well their responses on the entire questionnaire.

3.8 Ethical concerns

Prior to this they were informed about the objectives of current study, that provided information about the study and their rights to end the participation at any time and that the information provided by participants will remain confidential and will be used for research purposes only. The participants were asked to provide informed consent in case they were willing to participate in the current study.

3.9 Statistical analysis

For current study following analysis were conducted as follows**:** Descriptive analysis, Pearson correlation, moderated Regression, Mediation analysis. SPSS, Andrew Hayes .

Chapter IV

Results

Table 1

characteristics		f(%)
Age	25-34	224(56)
	35-44	103(25)
	45-54	59(14)
	55+	14(3)
Gender	Female	188(47)
	Male	212(53)
marital status	married	224(56)
	unmarried	103(25)
	divorced	59(14)
	other	14(3)
designation	Professor	58(14)
	Associate professor	22(5)
	Assistant professor	15 (3)
	senior lecturer	162 (40)
	lecturer	143(35)
faculty type	permanent	221(55)
	visiting	179(44)

	2	71(17)
Total no. of semester for teaching	3	198(49)
	4+	131(32)
	25	80(20)
total no. of students per semester	40	228(57)
	50	92(23)
Qualification	Ph.D or higher	95(23)
	M.Phil/ MS	305(76)
	others	
type of organization	private	206(51)
	public	194(48)
	less than 1	4(1)
	1--5	23(5)
years of experience	5--10	165(41)
	10--15	133(33)
	15-20	75(18)

Table 2

Item Total correlation for work overload (N=400)

	Inter-Item correlation	Corrected Item Correlation
1	.21**	.08
2	.44**	.32
3	.33**	.24
4	.52**	.41
5	.23**	.11
6	.39**	.27
7	.33**	.19
8	.52**	.41
9	.23**	.12
10	.47**	.35

Table 3

Item Total correlation for Cognitive Failure (N=400)

	Inter-Item correlation	Corrected Item Correlation
1	.6**	.60
2	.6**	.65
3	.1**	.02
4	.8**	.80
5	.11**	.06
6	.51**	.52
7	.15**	.11
8	.53**	.50
9	.12**	.09
10	.6**	.57
11	.1**	.08
12	.5**	.57
13	0.1	.03
14	.6**	.60
15	.1**	.06
16	.7**	.77
17	.1**	.10
18	.7**	.68
19	.13**	.10
20	.5**	.56
21	.4**	.39
22	.8**	.79
23	.7**	.70
24	.7**	.76
25	.7**	.69

Table 4

Item Total correlation for Openness to experience (N=400)

	Inter-Item correlation	Corrected Item Correlation
1	.28**	.18
2	.47**	.04
3	.34**	.35
4	.12**	.08
5	.46**	.36
6	.12**	.14
7	.36**	.14
8	.03	.09
9	.26**	.16
10	.03	.07

Table5

Item Total correlation for Extraversion (N=400)

	Inter-Item correlation	Corrected Item Correlation
1	.11**	.77
2	.32**	.31
3	.4**	.15
4	.34**	.27
5	.48**	.2
6	.28**	.14
7	.59**	.54
8	.25**	.14
9	.12**	.92
10	.23**	.97

Table 6

Item Total correlation for Problem Focused coping (N=400)

	Inter-Item correlation	Corrected Item Correlation
1	.48**	.3
2	.4**	.3
3	.4**	.4
4	.5**	.4
5	.16**	.1
6	.4**	.3
7	.4**	.3
8	.3**	.2

Table 7

Item Total correlation for Emotional Focused coping (N=400)

	Inter-Item correlation	Corrected Item Correlation
1	.45**	.32
2	.46**	.33
3	.35**	.26
4	.4**	.31
5	.4**	.31
6	.21**	.10
7	.4**	.33
8	.3**	.17
9	.32**	.19
10	.16**	.07
11	.38**	.28
12	.13**	.04

Table 8

Item Total correlation for Avoidant Focused coping (N=400)

	Inter-Item correlation	Corrected Item Correlation
1	.27**	.13
2	.51**	.37
3	.41**	.26
4	.31**	.22
5	.47**	.39
6	.45**	.33
7	.4**	.29
8	.57**	.45

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics and Alpha Reliability Coefficient of Study Variables (N=400).

Variables	No. of Items	Alpha	M	SD	Range Actual	Range Potential	Skewness	kurtosis
Work overload	10	.70	27.8	3.9	16-40	10-50	0.2	0.31
Cognitive failure	25	.74	62.51	13.18	32-85	0-100	-0.75	-0.65
Emotional exhaustion	9	.60	23.09	3.1	14-31	9-36	-0.24	0.00
Openness	10	.70	29.8	3.8	19-39	10-50	-0.12	-0.23
Extraversion	10	.80	29.83	3.9	19-41	10-50	-0.07	0.12
Problem-focused coping	8	.60	22.09	3.3	14-31	8-32	0.01	-0.26
Emotion focused coping	12	.60	33.03	3.7	21-42	12-48	0.01	-0.14
Avoidant coping	8	.70	22.2	3.3	13-29	8-32	-0.38	-0.26

Table shows descriptive statistics and the Alpha reliability coefficient of the study variables. Data was normally distributed as all the values of skewness and kurtosis are within the acceptable range. Scales have shown acceptable reliability.

Table 10a:

Age-related post hoc on work overload *(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
work overload	25-34	35-44	-0.59	0.21	-1.52	0.34
		45-54	0.26	0.66	-0.88	1.40
		55+	-2.45	0.03	-4.60	-0.32
	35-44	25-34	0.59	0.21	-0.34	1.52
		45-54	0.85	0.19	-0.42	2.12
		55+	-1.87	0.10	-4.09	0.35
	45-54	25-34	-0.26	0.66	-1.40	0.88
		35-44	-0.85	0.19	-2.12	0.42
		55+	-2.71	0.02	-5.03	-0.41
	55+	25-34	2.45	0.03	0.32	4.60
		35-44	1.87	0.10	-0.35	4.09
		45-54	2.70	0.02	0.41	5.03

According to post hoc testing using Tukey's HSD, significant differences across study variables were found between age group 25-34 (M = 27.6, SD = 3.7) and age group 55+ (M = 30.1, SD = 4.4), $p < .03$, 95% CI [-4.60, -.31], and between age group 45-54 (M = 27.4, SD = 3.4) and age group 55+ (M = 30.1, SD = 4.4), $p = .02$, 95% CI [-5.03, -.41]. However no differences were found in age group 35-44 (M = 28.2, SD = 4.5).

Table 10b:

Age-related post hoc on Cognitive Failure *(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
	25-34	35-44	0.72	0.65	-2.37	3.81
		45-54	-0.37	0.85	-4.17	3.43
		55+	-3.26	0.37	-10.41	3.90
	35-44	25-34	-0.72	0.65	-3.81	2.37
		45-54	-1.09	0.61	-5.33	3.15
Cognitive Failure		55+	-3.98	0.29	-11.38	3.42
	45-54	25-34	0.37	0.85	-3.43	4.17
		35-44	1.09	0.61	-3.15	5.33
		55+	-2.89	0.46	-10.61	4.83
	55+	25-34	3.26	0.37	-3.90	10.41
		35-44	3.98	0.29	-3.42	11.38
		45-54	2.89	0.46	-4.83	10.61

According to post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD age group 25-34 (M = 62.5, SD = 12.7), age group 35-44 (M = 61.8, SD = 14), age group 45-54 (M = 62.9, SD = 13.4) age group 55+ (M = 65.8 , SD = 14.2), did not differ significantly on cognitive failure.

Table 10c:

Age-related post hoc on Emotional Exhaustion *(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
Emotional Exhaustion	25-34	35-44	0.92	0.01	0.19	1.65
		45-54	0.18	0.69	-0.71	1.08
		55+	0.30	0.73	-1.39	1.99
	35-44	25-34	-0.92	0.01	-1.65	-0.19
		45-54	-0.74	0.15	-1.74	0.26
		55+	-0.62	0.48	-2.37	1.12
	45-54	25-34	-0.18	0.69	-1.08	0.71
		35-44	0.74	0.15	-0.26	1.74
		55+	0.12	0.90	-1.71	1.94
	55+	25-34	-0.30	0.73	-1.99	1.39
		35-44	0.62	0.48	-1.12	2.37
		45-54	-0.12	0.90	-1.94	1.71

According to post hoc testing using Tukey's HSD, Significant differences were found between age group 25-34 (M = 23.4, SD = 3.1) and age group 35-44 (M = 22.4, SD = 3.1), p <.01, 95% CI [.19, 1.65]. Rest of the groups 45-54 (M = 23.2, SD = 3.4) and 55+ (M = 23.1, SD = 2.5) are not having significant difference with other groups.

Table 10d

Age-related post hoc on Openness *(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
	25-34	35-44	-0.16	0.72	-1.06	0.74
		45-54	-0.45	0.43	-1.55	0.66
		55+	-0.33	0.76	-2.41	1.75
	35-44	25-34	0.16	0.72	-0.74	1.06
		45-54	-0.28	0.65	-1.52	0.95
Openness		55+	-0.17	0.88	-2.32	1.98
	45-54	25-34	0.45	0.43	-0.66	1.55
		35-44	0.28	0.65	-0.95	1.52
		55+	0.12	0.92	-2.13	2.36
	55+	25-34	0.33	0.76	-1.75	2.41
		35-44	0.17	0.88	-1.98	2.32
		45-54	-0.12	0.92	-2.36	2.13

According to post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD age group 25-34 (M = 29.7 , SD = 4.1), age group 35-44 (M = 29.9, SD = 3.5), age group 45-54 (M = 30.2, SD = 3.7) age group 55+ (M = 30.1, SD = 2.9), did not differ significantly on their response on the study variable.

Table 10e

Age related *post hoc on* Extraversion *(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
	25-34	35-44	-0.55	0.24	-1.47	0.37
		45-54	-0.16	0.78	-1.30	0.97
		55+	-1.08	0.32	-3.22	1.06
	35-44	25-34	0.55	0.24	-0.37	1.47
		45-54	0.39	0.55	-0.88	1.65
		55+	-0.53	0.64	-2.74	1.68
Extraversion	45-54	25-34	0.16	0.78	-0.97	1.30
		35-44	-0.39	0.55	-1.65	0.88
		55+	-0.92	0.43	-3.22	1.39
	55+	25-34	1.08	0.32	-1.06	3.22
		35-44	0.53	0.64	-1.68	2.74
		45-54	0.92	0.43	-1.39	3.22

According to post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD age group 25-34 (M = 29.6, SD = 4.1), age group 35-44 (M = 30.2, SD = 3.4), age group 45-54 (M = 29.8, SD = 3.5) age group 55+ (M = 30.7, SD = 3.1), did not differ significantly on the study variable.

Table 10f

Age-related post hoc on Problem Focused *coping (N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
Problem Focused Coping	25-34	35-44	1.02	0.01	0.26	1.79
		45-54	1.43	0.00	0.49	2.38
		55+	1.90	0.03	0.15	3.70
	35-44	25-34	-1.02	0.01	-1.79	-0.26
		45-54	0.41	0.45	-0.64	1.46
		55+	0.90	0.34	-0.94	2.73
	45-54	25-34	-1.43	0.00	-2.38	-0.49
		35-44	-0.41	0.45	-1.46	0.64
		55+	0.49	0.62	-1.42	2.40
	55+	25-34	-1.92	0.03	-3.70	-0.15
		35-44	-0.90	0.34	-2.73	0.94
		45-54	-0.49	0.62	-2.40	1.42

According to post hoc testing using Tukey's HSD, Significant differences were found between age group 25-34 (M = 22.6, SD = 3.6) and age group 35-44 (M = 21.6, SD = 2.7), p <.01, 95% CI [-2.60, 1.79], age group 25-34 (M = 22.6, SD = 3.6) and age group 55+ (M = 20.7, SD = 2), p =.03, 95% CI [.15, 3.7] and between age group 45-54 (M = 21.2, SD = 3)and age group 25-34 (M = 22.6, SD = 3.6), p =.00, 95% CI [-2.3, -.49].

Table 10g

Age-related post hoc on Emotion Focused *Coping (N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
Emotion Focused Coping	25-34	35-44	0.83	0.06	-0.04	1.70
		45-54	1.05	0.05	-0.01	2.12
		55+	2.60	0.01	0.62	4.65
	35-44	25-34	-0.83	0.06	-1.70	0.04
		45-54	0.23	0.71	-0.96	1.42
		55+	1.81	0.09	-0.27	3.89
	45-54	25-34	-1.05	0.05	-2.12	0.01
		35-44	-0.23	0.71	-1.42	0.96
		55+	1.58	0.15	-0.59	3.76
	55+	25-34	-2.63	0.01	-4.65	-0.62
		35-44	-1.81	0.09	-3.89	0.27
		45-54	-1.58	0.15	-3.76	0.59

According to post hoc testing using Tukey's HSD, Significant differences were found between age group 25-34 (M = 33.5 , SD = 3.9) and age group 55+ (M = 30.9, SD = 2), p <.01, 95% CI [.62, 4.65], and between age group 45-54 (M = 32.4 , SD = 3.6) and age group 25-34 (M = 33.5 , SD = 3.9), p =.05, 95% CI [-2.12, .01]. However age group 35-44 (M = 32.7, SD = 32.7) does not differ with other groups with respect to the scores on the study variable.

Table 10h:

Age-related post hoc on Avoidant Coping *(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
	25-34	35-44	0.12	0.77	-0.66	0.89
		45-54	-0.90	0.06	-1.86	0.05
		55+	-0.35	0.70	-2.15	1.44
	35-44	25-34	-0.12	0.77	-0.89	0.66
		45-54	-1.02	0.06	-2.09	0.04
Avoidant Coping		55+	-0.47	0.62	-2.33	1.39
	45-54	25-34	0.90	0.06	-0.05	1.86
		35-44	1.02	0.06	-0.04	2.09
		55+	0.55	0.58	-1.39	2.49
	55+	25-34	0.35	0.70	-1.44	2.15
		35-44	0.47	0.62	-1.39	2.33
		45-54	-0.55	0.58	-2.49	1.39

According to post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD age group 25-34 (M = 22.1 , SD = 3.3), age group 35-44 (M = 22, SD = 3.4), age group 45-54 (M = 23.1, SD = 3.2) age group 55+ (M = 22.5 , SD = 4.07), does not differ significantly.

Table 11a

Designation related differences on Work Overload *(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LP	UP
	Professor	Associate professor	0.24	0.81	-1.72	2.19
		Assistant professor	0.02	0.97	-1.17	1.22
		senior lecturer	-1.64	0.16	-3.91	0.62
		lecturer	-0.43	0.49	-1.65	0.79
	Associate professor	Professor	-0.24	0.81	-2.19	1.72
		Assistant professor	-0.21	0.82	-1.99	1.57
		senior lecturer	-1.88	0.16	-4.50	0.74
		lecturer	-0.66	0.47	-2.46	1.13
Work Overload	Assistant professor	Professor	-0.02	0.97	-1.22	1.17
		Associate professor	0.21	0.82	-1.57	1.99
		senior lecturer	-1.67	0.12	-3.78	0.45
		lecturer	-0.45	0.32	-1.35	0.45
	senior lecturer	Professor	1.64	0.16	-0.62	3.91
		Associate professor	1.88	0.16	-0.74	4.50
		Assistant professor	1.67	0.12	-0.45	3.78
		lecturer	1.21	0.26	-0.91	3.34
	lecturer	Professor	0.43	0.49	-0.79	1.65
		Associate professor	0.66	0.47	-1.13	2.46
		Assistant professor	0.45	0.32	-0.45	1.35
		senior lecturer	-1.21	0.26	-3.34	0.91

According to post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD Professor (M = 27.6, SD = 3.7), Associate professor (M = 27.4, SD = 3.8), Assistant professor(M = 27.6, SD = 3.8) senior lecturer (M = 29.3, SD = 4), lecturer (M = 28.1, SD = 4.2), does not differ significantly across the study variable.

Table 11b

Designation related differences on Cognitive Failure *(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LP	UP
	Professor	Associate professor	-0.49	0.88	-7.00	6.03
		Assistant professor	1.00	0.62	-2.98	4.98
		senior lecturer	-1.76	0.65	-9.30	5.77
		lecturer	0.79	0.70	-3.26	4.84
	Associate professor	Professor	0.49	0.88	-6.03	7.00
		Assistant professor	1.49	0.62	-4.43	7.40
		senior lecturer	-1.28	0.77	-9.99	7.44
		lecturer	1.28	0.67	-4.68	7.23
Cognitive Failure	Assistant professor	Professor	-1.00	0.62	-4.98	2.98
		Associate professor	-1.49	0.62	-7.40	4.43
		senior lecturer	-2.76	0.44	-9.78	4.26
		lecturer	-0.21	0.89	-3.19	2.78
	senior lecturer	Professor	1.76	0.65	-5.77	9.30
		Associate professor	1.28	0.77	-7.44	9.99
		Assistant professor	2.76	0.44	-4.26	9.78
		lecturer	2.55	0.48	-4.51	9.61
	lecturer	Professor	-0.79	0.70	-4.84	3.26

		Associate professor	-1.28	0.67	-7.23	4.68
		Assistant professor	0.21	0.89	-2.78	3.19
		senior lecturer	-2.55	0.48	-9.61	4.51

According to post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD Professor (M = 63.1 , SD = 13.3), Associate professor (M = 63.5, SD = 12.1), Assistant professor (M = 62.1, SD = 13.2) senior lecturer (M = 64.8, SD = 14.4), lecturer (M = 62.3, SD = 13.3), does not differ significantly.

Table 11c

Designation related differences on Emotional Exhaustion *(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
Emotional Exhaustion	Professor	Associate professor	-0.18	0.82	-1.72	1.37
		Assistant professor	0.03	0.96	-0.92	0.97
		senior lecturer	-0.08	0.93	-1.87	1.71
		lecturer	-0.12	0.81	-1.08	0.85
	Associate professor	Professor	0.18	0.82	-1.37	1.72
		Assistant professor	0.20	0.78	-1.20	1.61
		senior lecturer	0.09	0.93	-1.98	2.16
		lecturer	0.06	0.93	-1.36	1.47
	Assistant professor	Professor	-0.03	0.96	-0.97	0.92
		Associate professor	-0.20	0.78	-1.61	1.20
		senior lecturer	-0.11	0.90	-1.78	1.56
		lecturer	-0.14	0.69	-0.85	0.57
	senior lecturer	Professor	0.08	0.93	-1.71	1.87
		Associate	-0.09	0.93	-2.16	1.98

		professor				
		Assistant professor	0.11	0.90	-1.56	1.78
		lecturer	-0.03	0.97	-1.71	1.64
	lecturer	Professor	0.12	0.81	-0.85	1.08
		Associate professor	-0.06	0.93	-1.47	1.36
		Assistant professor	0.14	0.69	-0.57	0.85
		senior lecturer	0.03	0.97	-1.64	1.71

According to post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD Professor (M = 23.1 , SD = 2.9), Associate professor (M = 23.2, SD = 3.1), Assistant professor (M = 23, SD = 3.1) senior lecturer (M = 23.1, SD = 3.2), lecturer (M = 23.2, SD = 3.3), does not differ significantly.

Table 11d

Designation related differences on Openness *(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
	Professor	Associate professor	0.24	0.80	-1.65	2.13
		Assistant professor	0.71	0.23	-0.44	1.86
		senior lecturer	0.57	0.61	-1.61	2.76
		lecturer	0.16	0.78	-1.01	1.34
Openness	Associate professor	Professor	-0.24	0.80	-2.13	1.65
		Assistant professor	0.47	0.59	-1.24	2.18
		senior lecturer	0.33	0.80	-2.19	2.86
		lecturer	-0.08	0.93	-1.80	1.65
	Assistant professor	Professor	-0.71	0.23	-1.86	0.44
		Associate professor	-0.47	0.59	-2.18	1.24

	senior lecturer	-0.14	0.90	-2.17	1.90
	lecturer	-0.55	0.22	-1.41	0.32
senior lecturer	Professor	-0.57	0.61	-2.76	1.61
	Associate professor	-0.33	0.80	-2.86	2.19
	Assistant professor	0.14	0.90	-1.90	2.17
	lecturer	-0.41	0.69	-2.46	1.64
lecturer	Professor	-0.16	0.78	-1.34	1.01
	Associate professor	0.08	0.93	-1.65	1.80
	Assistant professor	0.55	0.22	-0.32	1.41
	senior lecturer	0.41	0.69	-1.64	2.46

According to post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD Professor (M = 30.2, SD = 3.1), Associate professor (M = 30, SD = 3), Assistant professor (M = 29.5, SD = 4.2) senior lecturer (M = 29.7, SD = 2.2), lecturer (M = 30.1, SD = 3.9), does not differ significantly.

Table 11e

Designation related differences on Extraversion *(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
	Professor	Associate professor	1.87	0.06	-0.07	3.80
		Assistant professor	0.95	0.11	-0.23	2.13
		senior lecturer	-0.05	0.96	-2.29	2.18
		lecturer	0.25	0.68	-0.95	1.46
	Associate professor	Professor	-1.87	0.06	-3.80	0.07
		Assistant professor	-0.92	0.31	-2.67	0.84
		senior lecturer	-1.92	0.15	-4.51	0.66
		lecturer	-1.62	0.07	-3.38	0.15
Extraversion	Assistant professor	Professor	-0.95	0.11	-2.13	0.23
		Associate professor	0.92	0.31	-0.84	2.67
		senior lecturer	-1.00	0.34	-3.09	1.08
		lecturer	-0.70	0.12	-1.58	0.19
	senior lecturer	Professor	0.05	0.96	-2.18	2.29
		Associate professor	1.92	0.15	-0.66	4.51
		Assistant professor	1.00	0.34	-1.08	3.09
		lecturer	0.31	0.77	-1.79	2.40
	lecturer	Professor	-0.25	0.68	-1.46	0.95
		Associate professor	1.62	0.07	-0.15	3.38
		Assistant professor	0.70	0.12	-0.19	1.58
		senior lecturer	-0.31	0.77	-2.40	1.79

According to post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD Professor (M = 30.4, SD = 3.6), Associate professor (M = 28.5, SD = 5.8), Assistant professor (M = 29.5, SD = 4.2) senior lecturer (M = 30.5, SD = 5), lecturer (M = 30.2, SD = 3.2), do not differ significantly.

Table 11f

Designation related differences on Problem Focused coping *(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
		Associate professor	-0.63	0.44	-2.26	0.99
	Professor	Assistant professor	-1.29	0.01	-2.29	-0.3
		senior lecturer	-0.60	0.54	-2.48	1.29
		lecturer	-1.05	0.04	-2.06	-0.04
		Professor	0.63	0.44	-0.99	2.26
	Associate professor	Assistant professor	-0.66	0.38	-2.14	0.82
		senior lecturer	0.04	0.97	-2.14	2.22
		lecturer	-0.42	0.58	-1.91	1.07
Problem Focused coping		Professor	1.29	0.01	0.30	2.29
	Assistant professor	Associate professor	0.66	0.38	-0.82	2.14
		senior lecturer	0.70	0.44	-1.06	2.46
		lecturer	0.24	0.52	-0.50	0.99
		Professor	0.60	0.54	-1.29	2.48
	senior lecturer	Associate professor	-0.04	0.97	-2.22	2.14
		Assistant professor	-0.70	0.44	-2.46	1.06
		lecturer	-0.46	0.61	-2.22	1.31
	lecturer	Professor	1.05	0.04	0.04	2.06
		Associate	0.42	0.58	-1.07	1.91

professor				
Assistant professor	-0.24	0.52	-0.99	0.50
senior lecturer	0.46	0.61	-1.31	2.22

According to post hoc testing using Tukey's HSD, Significant differences were found between age Professor (M = 21.1, SD = 2.8) and Assistant professor (M = 22.4, SD = 3.6), p <.01, 95% CI [-2.29, -0.30], and between Professor (M = M = 21.1, SD = 2.8) and lecturer (M = 22.2, SD = 3.3), p =.04, 95% CI [-2.06, -0.04]. However no difference were found for Associate professor (M =21.8, SD = 2.1) and senior lecturer (M =21.7, SD = 3).

Table 11g

Designation related differences on Emotion Focused coping*(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
	Professor	Associate professor	-1.29	0.17	-3.13	0.54
		Assistant professor	-1.35	0.02	-2.48	-0.2
		senior lecturer	0.11	0.92	-2.01	2.23
		lecturer	-1.60	0.01	-2.74	-0.4
	Associate professor	Professor	1.29	0.17	-0.54	3.13
		Assistant professor	-0.07	0.94	-1.73	1.60
		senior lecturer	1.40	0.26	-1.05	3.86
		lecturer	-0.31	0.72	-1.99	1.37
Emotion Focused coping	Assistant professor	Professor	1.35	0.02	0.24	2.48
		Associate professor	0.07	0.94	-1.60	1.73
		senior lecturer	1.47	0.15	-0.51	3.45
		lecturer	-0.24	0.57	-1.08	0.60
	senior lecturer	Professor	-0.11	0.92	-2.23	2.01
		Associate professor	-1.40	0.26	-3.86	1.05
		Assistant professor	-1.47	0.15	-3.45	0.51
		lecturer	-1.71	0.09	-3.70	0.27
	lecturer	Professor	1.60	0.01	0.46	2.74
		Associate professor	0.31	0.72	-1.37	1.99
		Assistant professor	0.24	0.57	-0.60	1.08
		senior lecturer	1.71	0.09	-0.27	3.70

According to post hoc testing using Tukey's HSD, significant differences were found between age Professor (M = 31.8, SD = 3.6) and lecturer (M = 33.4, SD = 4), p <.01, 95% CI [-2.74, -0.46], and between Assistant professor (M = 33.2, SD = 3.7) and Professor (M = 31.8, SD = 3.6), p =.02, 95% CI [0.24, 2.48]. However no difference found for Associate professor (M =33.1, SD = 3.4) and senior lecturer (M =31.7 SD = 2.5) group.

Table 11h

Designation related differences on Avoidant Coping *(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
Avoidant Coping	Professor	Associate professor	0.22	0.79	-1.41	1.85
		Assistant professor	0.92	0.07	-0.08	1.91
		senior lecturer	-0.46	0.64	-2.34	1.43
		lecturer	0.51	0.32	-0.50	1.52
	Associate professor	Professor	-0.22	0.79	-1.85	1.41
		Assistant professor	0.70	0.36	-0.78	2.18
		senior lecturer	-0.68	0.54	-2.86	1.51
		lecturer	0.29	0.70	-1.20	1.78
	Assistant professor	Professor	-0.92	0.07	-1.91	0.08
		Associate professor	-0.70	0.36	-2.18	0.78
		senior lecturer	-1.37	0.13	-3.13	0.39
		lecturer	-0.41	0.29	-1.15	0.34
	senior lecturer	Professor	0.46	0.64	-1.43	2.34
		Associate professor	0.68	0.54	-1.51	2.86
		Assistant professor	1.37	0.13	-0.39	3.13

		lecturer	0.97	0.28	-0.80	2.73
		Professor	-0.51	0.32	-1.52	0.50
	lecturer	Associate professor	-0.29	0.70	-1.78	1.20
		Assistant professor	0.41	0.29	-0.34	1.15
		senior lecturer	-0.97	0.28	-2.73	0.80

According to post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD Professor (M = 22.8, SD = 3.8), Associate professor (M = 22.6, SD = 3), Assistant professor (M = 21.9, SD = 3.3) senior lecturer (M = 23.3, SD = 3.6), lecturer (M = 22.3, SD = 3.2), does not differ significantly.

Table 12a

Differences related to no. of semester teaching on Work Overload *(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
	2	3	-0.7	0.2	-1.7	0.4
		4	-0.1	0.9	-1.2	1.1
Work Overload	3	2	0.7	0.2	-0.4	1.7
		4	0.6	0.2	-0.3	1.5
	4	2	0.1	0.9	-1.1	1.2
		3	-0.6	0.2	-1.5	0.3

According to post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD 2 (M = 27.1, SD = 3.1), 3 (M = 28.1, SD = 4.2), 4 (M = 27.6, SD = 3.8), does not differ significantly.

Table 12b

Differences related to no. of semester teaching on Cognitive Failure   *(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
	2	3	0.6	0.8	-3.0	4.1
		4	1.0	0.6	-2.8	4.8
Cognitive Failure	3	2	-0.6	0.8	-4.1	3.0
		4	0.4	0.8	-2.5	3.4
	4	2	-1.0	0.6	-4.8	2.8
		3	-0.4	0.8	-3.4	2.5

According to post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD 2 (M = 63.1, SD = 11.3), 3 (M = 62.6, SD = 13.3), 4 (M = 62.1, SD = 14), does not differ significantly.

Table 12c

Differences related to no. of semester teaching on Emotional Exhaustion *(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
	2	3	0.0	0.9	-0.8	0.9
		4	0.1	0.8	-0.8	1.0
Emotional Exhaustion	3	2	0.0	0.9	-0.9	0.8
		4	0.1	0.9	-0.6	0.8
	4	2	-0.1	0.8	-1.0	0.8
		3	-0.1	0.9	-0.8	0.6

According to post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD 2 (M = 23.1 , SD = 2.5), 3 (M = 23.1, SD = 3.3), 4 (M = 23, SD = 3.2), does not differ significantly.

Table 12d

Differences related to no. of semester teaching on Openness *(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
	2	3	0.2	0.7	-0.8	1.2
		4	-0.7	0.2	-1.8	0.4
Openness	3	2	-0.2	0.7	-1.2	0.8
		4	-0.9	0.0	-1.8	-0.1
	4	2	0.7	0.2	-0.4	1.8
		3	0.9	0.0	0.1	1.8

According to post hoc testing using Tukey's HSD, Significant differences were found between 3 (M = 29.5 , SD = 3.9) and 4 (M = 30.5, SD = 3.7), p <.00, 95% CI [-1.8, -0.1], Nevertheless, 2 (M = 29.7, SD = 3.7), does not differ significantly .

Table 12e

Differences related to no. of semester teaching on Extraversion *(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
	2	3	-0.5	0.4	-1.6	0.6
		4	-0.3	0.6	-1.5	0.8
Extraversion	3	2	0.5	0.4	-0.6	1.6
		4	0.2	0.7	-0.7	1.1
	4	2	0.3	0.6	-0.8	1.5
		3	-0.2	0.7	-1.1	0.7

According to post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD 2 (M = 29.5 , SD = 3.9), 3 (M = 30, SD = 4), 4 (M = 29.8, SD = 3.9), does not differ significantly.

Table 12f

Differences related to no. of semester teaching on Problem Focused Coping *(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
	2	3	0.7	0.1	-0.2	1.6
		4	1.0	0.0	0.0	1.9
Problem Focused coping	3	2	-0.7	0.1	-1.6	0.2
		4	0.3	0.4	-0.4	1.0
	4	2	-1.0	0.0	-1.9	0.0
		3	-0.3	0.4	-1.0	0.4

According to post hoc testing using Tukey's HSD, Significant differences were found between 2 (M = 22.7 , SD = 3.5) and 4 (M = 21.8, SD = 3.1), p <.00, 95% CI [0.0, 1.9], Nevertheless, 3 (M = 22.1, SD = 3.4), did not differ significantly.

Table 12g

Differences related to no. of semester teaching on Emotion Focused

Coping *(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
	2	3	-0.2	0.8	-1.2	0.9
		4	0.0	1.0	-1.1	1.1
Emotion Focused coping	3	2	0.2	0.8	-0.9	1.2
		4	0.1	0.8	-0.7	1.0
	4	2	0.0	1.0	-1.1	1.1
		3	-0.1	0.8	-1.0	0.7

According to post hoc comparisons using Tukey's HSD 2 (M = 32.9, SD = 4.3), 3 (M = 33.1, SD

= 3.6), 4 (M = 33, SD = 3.7), does not differ significantly.

Table 12h

Differences related to no. of semester teaching on Avoidant Coping *(N=400)*

Dependent Variable	(i)	(j)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					LB	UB
	2	3	0.0	1.0	-0.9	0.9
		4	0.7	0.1	-0.2	1.7
Avoidant Coping	3	2	0.0	1.0	-0.9	0.9
		4	0.7	0.05	0.0	1.5
	4	2	-0.7	0.1	-1.7	0.2
		3	-0.7	0.05	-1.5	0.0

According to post hoc testing using Tukey's HSD, Significant differences were found between 3 (M = 22.5, SD = 3.2) and 4 (M = 21.8, SD = 3.3), p <.05, 95% CI [0.0, 1.5], Nevertheless, 2 (M = 22.5, SD = 3.6), does not differ significantly.

Table 13

Mean differences on study variables across permanent and visiting faculty members (N=400)

Variable	Permanent (n=221)		visiting (n=179)		CI%				Cohen's d
	M	SD	M	SD	LL	UL	t	p	
Work overload	27.5	3.7	28.3	4.2	-1.5	-.005	-1.9	0.05	0.2
Cognitive failure	62.1	12.8	63	13.7	-3.5	1.7	-0.7	0.5	0.06
Emotional Exhaustion	23.1	3.2	23.08	3.02	-0.59	0.60	0.10	0.9	0.006
Openness	29.7	3.9	30	3.7	-1.0	0.5	-0.7	0.5	0.07
Extraversion	29.9	3.83	29.80	4.1	-0.7	0.8	0.10	0.9	0.02
Problem focused coping	22.1	3.6	22.1	3.03	-0.59	0.70	0.2	0.8	0.0
Emotion focused coping	32.8	3.8	33.4	3.7	-1.4	0.1	-1.6	0.1	0.1
Avoidant coping	22.3	3.4	22.2	3.3	-0.6	0.7	0.2	0.8	0.029

In the above table mean differences were found across work load.

Table 14

Independent sample t-test for the study variables on university type (N=400)

Variable	Public (n=206)		Private (n=194)		CI%				Cohen's d
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*LL*	*UL*	*t*	*p*	
Work overload	27.8	3.9	27.9	4.0	-0.66	0.9	.3	0.75	0.02
Cognitive failure	62.1	12.8	63.0	13.7	-3.1	2.1	-0.3	0.7	0.1
Emotional Exhaustion	23.1	3.2	23.1	3.0	-0.7	0.5	-0.4	0.7	0.0
Openness	29.7	3.9	30.0	3.7	-1.2	0.3	-1.2	0.2	0.1
Extraversion	29.9	3.8	29.8	4.1	-0.4	1.2	1.0	0.3	0.03
Problem focused coping	22.1	3.6	22.1	3.0	-0.1	1.2	1.7	0.1	0.0
Emotion focused coping	32.8	3.8	33.4	3.7	-0.2	1.3	1.4	0.2	0.2
Avoidant coping	22.3	3.4	22.2	3.3	-0.6	0.8	0.3	.76	0.03

In the above table, no significant differences were observed across the study variables.

Table 15

Correlation among the study variables (N=400)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Work overload	-	0.41**	0.16**	-0.02	-0.04	0.02	0.00	-0.02
2	Cognitive failure		-	0.5**	-0.14**	-0.29**	0.27**	0.17**	0.21**
3	Emotional Exhaustion			-	-0.04	-0.24**	0.21**	0.11*	0.24**
4	Openness				-	0.03	-0.10*	-0.14**	-0.07
5	Extraversion					-	-0.12*	-0.18**	-0.12*
6	Problem focused coping						-	0.34**	0.23**
7	Emotional focused coping							-	0.21**
8	Avoidant coping								-

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). **

Above mentioned table shows the correlational values among the study variables. It shows that work overload has a positive relationship with cognitive failure ($r = .41$, $p < .05$). work overload also has a positive relationship with exhaustion ($r = 0.16$, $p > .05$) while exhaustion has a positive relationship with cognitive failure ($r = .57$, $p < .05$). work overload is having a negative relationship with openness ($r = -.02$, $p > .05$) while openness is having a negative relationship with cognitive failure ($r = -.14$, $p < .05$). work overload also has a negative relationship with extraversion ($r = -.041$, $p > .05$) also cognitive failure is having a negative relationship with extraversion ($r = -.29$, $p < .05$). work overload is also having a positive relationship with problem-focused coping ($r = 0.027$, $p < .05$) whereas cognitive failure is having weak positive relationship with problem focused coping ($r = .27$, $p < .05$). work overload is positively correlated with emotion focused coping ($r = 0.001$, $p < .05$) whereas cognitive failure is having a positive relationship with emotional focused coping ($r = 0.17$, $p < .05$). work overload is having a negative relationship with avoidant coping style ($r = -0.023$, $p > .5$) while cognitive failure is having a positive relationship with avoidant coping style ($r = 0.215$, $p < .05$).

Table 16

Mediation Analysis of Emotional Exhaustion as a Mediator of work overload and Cognitive

Failure (N=400)

| | | Estimate | S.E | %CI | | t | p |
				LL	UL		
Indirect effect	WOL→EE→CF	.287	.089	0.1	0.45		
Direct effect	WOL→CF	1.09	.12	.8	1.34	8.59	0.00
Total effect	WOL→CF	1.37	.151	1.08	1.67	9.13	0.00

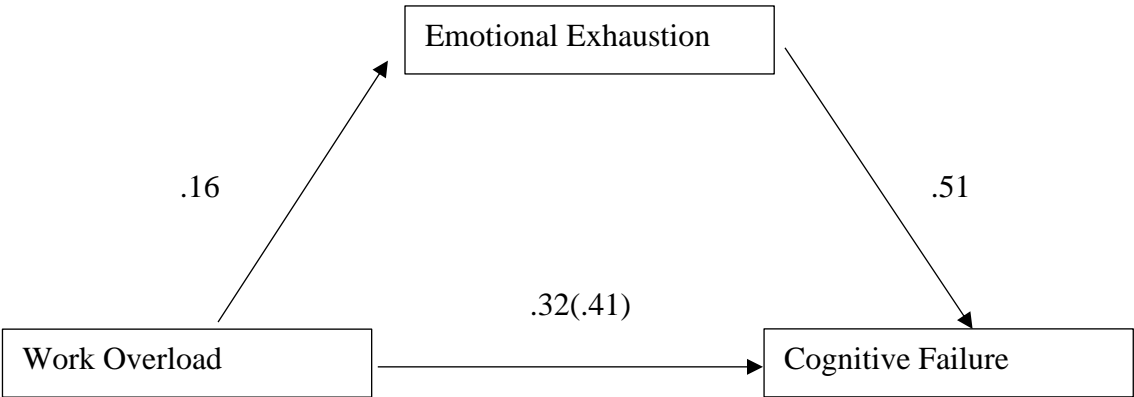Note: WOL=Work Overload, CF= Cognitive Failure, EE=Emotional Exhaustion

Fig : The figure mentioned above shows standardized regression coefficient for the relationship

between work overload and cognitive failure as mediated by emotional exhaustion. *p< .05,

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

A mediation analysis was conducted with 5000 bootstrapped samples and 95%

confidence intervals by using process model 4 to determine whether emotional exhaustion

mediates the influence of work overload on cognitive failure (see figure 2). The results show that

the indirect effect of work overload is positive (B= .287, CI, 0.11 to .45). The direct impact of

work overload on cognitive failure is substantial (B=1.09, t=8.59, p<.05). The results

demonstrate that emotional exhaustion considerably mediates the association between work

overload and cognitive failure.

Table 17

Moderating Effect of Openness on Work Overload and Cognitive Failure (N=400)

		Openness	95% CI	
Predictors	B	t	LL	UL
Constant	62.5	104.9	61.34	63.6
Work Overload	1.36	9.09	1.070	1.66
Openness	-.44	-2.8	-.75	-.137
WOL*OPP	.004	.119	-.07	.08
R^2	.189			
F (3.00) = 30.9, p> .005				

Note: WOL=Work Overload OPP= Openness, *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

Table 10 shows the regression coefficients for the moderating effect of openness on the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure. Moderation was tested using Model 1 of Hayes' regression analysis through the PROCESS macro. The regression coefficients, calculated F values, direct and interaction effects which indicate that openness does not moderate the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure among university teachers, as hypothesized. Moderation is indicated by a significant interaction effect. However, in this case the interaction was non-significant, b = .004, 95% CI [-.7, .08], t = .11, p>.001. This result suggests that the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure is not moderated by openness.

Table 18

Moderating Effect of Extraversion *on Work Overload and Cognitive Failure (N=400)*

| | Extraversion | | 95% CI | |
Predictors	B	*t*	LL	UL
Constant	62.4	109.1	61.36	63.6
Work Overload	1.39	8.9	1.08	1.69
Extraversion	-.91	-6.2	-1.20	-.63
WOL*EXT	-.034	-.9	-.10	.040
R^2	.252			
F (3.00) = 44.6, p> .005				

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

Note: WOL= Work Overload, EXT= Extraversion

Table shows the regression coefficients for the moderating effect of extraversion on the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure. Moderation was tested using Model 1 of Hayes' regression analysis through the PROCESS macro. The regression coefficients, calculated F values, and direct and interaction effects indicate that extraversion does not moderate the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure among university teachers, as hypothesized. A significant interaction effect indicates moderation. However, in this case the interaction was non-significant, b = -.034, 95% CI [-.10, .040], t = -.09, p>.001. This result suggests that the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure is not moderated by extraversion.

Table 19

Moderating Effect of Problem-focused Coping on Work Overload and Cognitive Failure

(N=400)

Predictors	PFC		95% CI	
	B	*t*	*LL*	*UL*
Constant	62.5	109.2	61.4	63.6
Work Overload	1.29	8.8	1.008	1.58
Problem Focused Coping	1.06	6.13	.720	1.4
WOL*PFC	-.09	-2.3	-.18	-.015
R^2	.25			
F (3.00) = 44.31, p< .005				

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

Note: WOL= Work Overload, PFC= Problem focused coping

Table shows the regression coefficients for the moderating effect of problem-focused coping on the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure. Moderation was tested using Model 1 of Hayes' regression analysis through the PROCESS macro. The regression coefficients, calculated F values, and direct and interaction effects indicate that problem-focused coping moderates the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure among university teachers, as hypothesized. Moderation is indicated by a significant interaction effect. However, in this case, the interaction was significant, b = -.09, 95% CI [-.18, -.015], t = -2.3, p<.001. This result suggests that the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure is moderated by problem-focused coping.
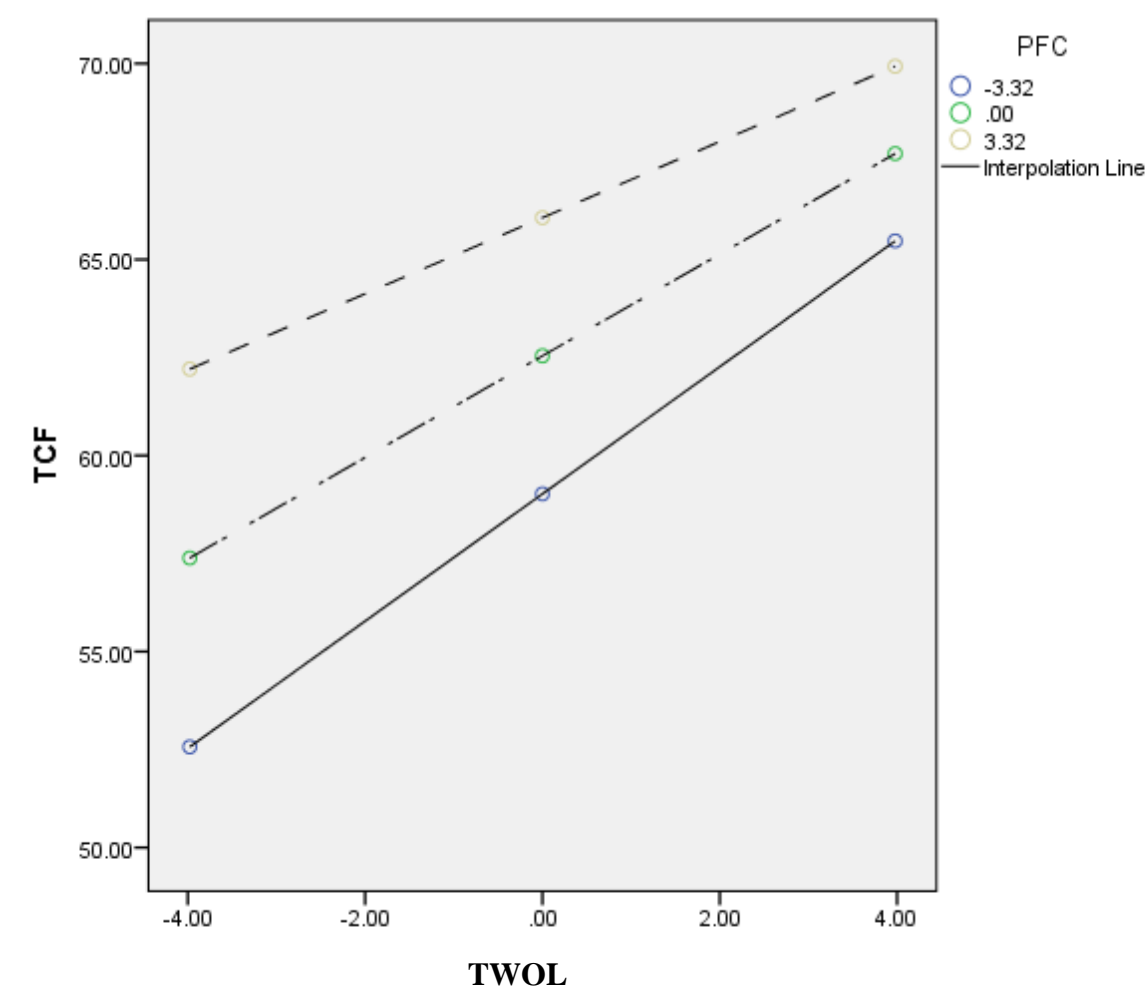
Figure 3

TWOL

Table 20

Moderating Effect of Emotion Focused Coping on Work Overload and Cognitive Failure

(N=400)

	EFC		95% CI	
Predictors	B	*t*	*LL*	*UL*
Constant	62.5	106.5	61.3	63.6
Work Overload	1.37	9.29	1.082	1.66
Emotion Focused Coping	.65	4.17	.348	.968
WOL*EFC	-.08	-2.15	-.16	-.007
R^2	.213			
F (3.00) = 35.8, p> .005				

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

Note : WOL= Work Overload, EFC= Emotion Focused Coping

Table shows the regression coefficients for the moderating effect of emotional focused coping on the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure. Moderation was tested using Model 1 of Hayes',regression analysis through the PROCESS macro. The regression coefficients, calculated F values, and direct and interaction effects indicate that emotional-focused coping moderates the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure among university teachers, as hypothesized. Moderation is indicated by a significant interaction effect. However, in this case, the interaction was significant, b = -.08, 95% CI [-.16, -.007], t = -2.15, p<.001. This result suggests that the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure is moderated by emotion focused coping.
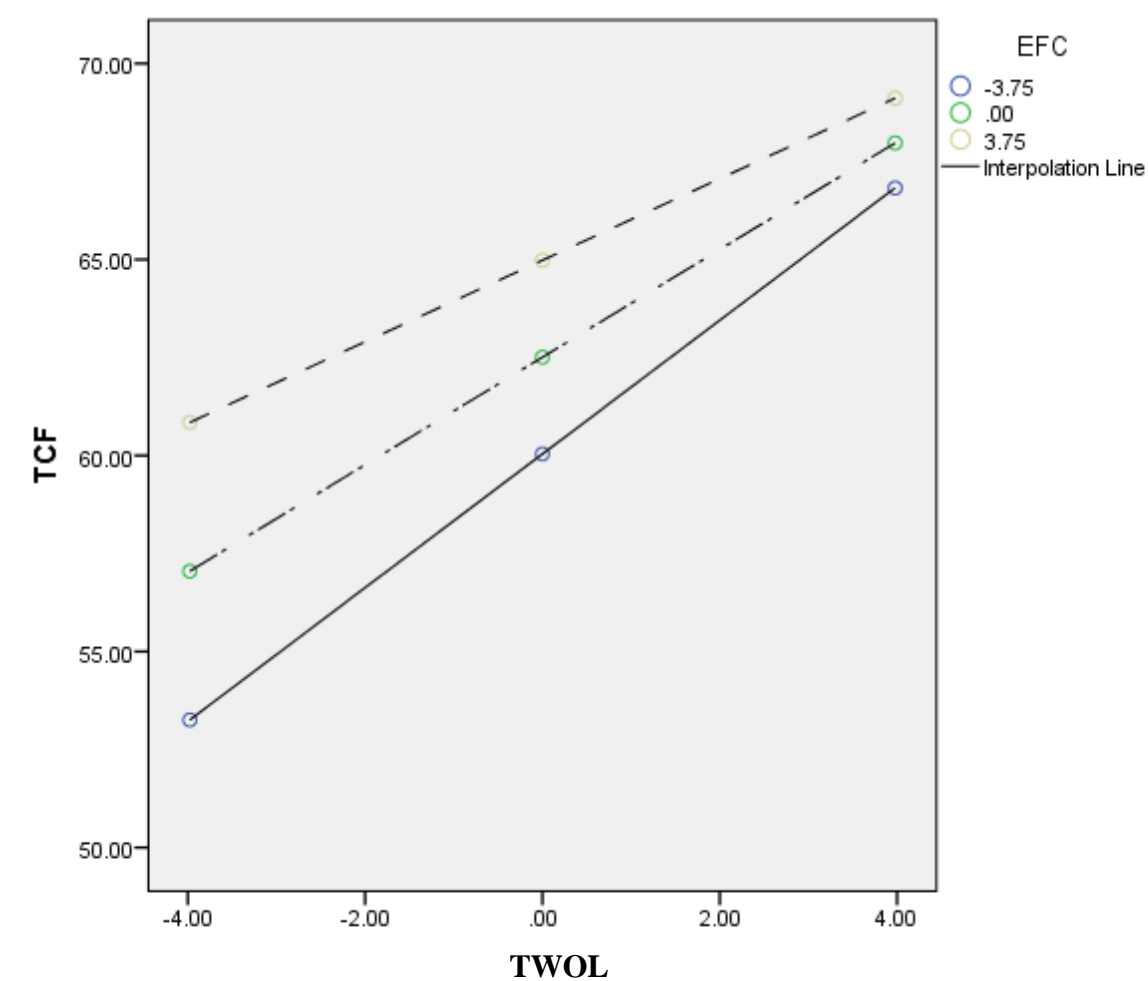
Figure 4

Table 21

Moderating Effect of Avoidant Coping *on Work Overload and Cognitive Failure (N=400)*

	Avoidant		95% CI	
Predictors	B	*t*	*LL*	*UL*
Constant	62.4	107.4	61.3	63.6
Work Overload	1.3	8.6	1.02	1.63
Avoidant Coping	.90	5.14	.55	1.24
WOL*AC	-.065	-1.3	-.159	.028
R^2	.227			

F (3.00) = 38.8, p> .005

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

Note: WOL= Work Overload, AC= Avoidant Coping

Table 14 shows the regression coefficients for the moderating effect of Avoidant Coping on the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure. Moderation was tested

using Model 1 of Hayes' regression analysis through the PROCESS macro. The regression coefficients, calculated F values, and direct and interaction effects indicate that Avoidant Coping does not moderates the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure among university teachers, as hypothesized. Moderation is indicated by a significant interaction effect. However, in this case, the interaction was non-significant, $b = -.065$, 95% CI [-.159, .028], $t = -1.3$, $p > .001$. This result suggests that the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure is not moderated by Avoidant Coping.

CHAPTER V

5.1 DISCUSSION

Present study aimed to examine the mediating role of emotional exhaustion in the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure among university teachers. Moreover, this study also investigated the moderating role of coping styles and personality traits (openness, extraversion, etc.) in the above mentioned relationship. This study tested mean differences across the demographic characteristics and job related variables namely age, designation, type of organization, and faculty type among the research participants.

Hypothesis: There is a mean difference across study variables between permanent and visiting faculty. According to the study's findings, the observed disparity in work overload between visiting and permanent professors is consistent with previous research. Due to budgetary limitations, teaching at several schools, and a lack of institutional support, visiting teachers frequently face increased job demands that worsen their sense of work overload (Lantsoght, 2024). Permanent professors, on the other hand, benefit from institutional stability and resources, which may lessen these constraints even as they balance teaching, research, and service. This may suggest that academic pressures typically affect both groups, but they may have different causes, such as visiting faculty members' job uncertainty and permanent faculty members' research responsibilities (Koh, 2017). Based on these results, it may be possible to create a more equal workplace for all faculty members by tackling systemic and institutional issues, which could lessen differences in workload and promote their general well-being.

Hypotheses: There is a difference across study variables between public and private university teachers. Our study's findings shows no significant differences between instructors at public and private universities on the study variables save avoidant coping, this finding is consistent with previous research. For instance, Basak (2024) found that because of the performance-driven and stressful work settings they experience, employees in the private sector typically display stronger avoidance coping. Public personnel, on the other hand, may use more structured and goal-oriented coping mechanisms in spite of bureaucratic obstacles and resource limitations. This illustrates how organizational culture has varying effects on coping strategies, with public institutions emphasizing procedural adherence and stability and private organizations' profit-

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driven   demands   encouraging   disengagement.
 The lack of substantial variations on other variables, like work overload, emotional exhaustion, and cognitive failure, indicates that stressors in both sides are similar. . For example, Schaufeli et al. (2016) and Hakanen et al. (2008) show that whereas inefficiencies and bureaucratic difficulties are major factors in public institutions, task intensification and performance demands are the main causes of work overload in the private sector. This overlap supports the lack of statistical difference in your findings by demonstrating how stress presents similarly in many contexts, even when it is caused by different organizational variables.

Hypothesis: There is a positive correlation between work overload, emotional exhaustion, and cognitive failure. This hypothesis was supported by our data; work overload, emotional exhaustion, and cognitive failure were positively related to each other. . Same has been found in the earlier studies, work overload has detrimental effects on performance, health, and the level of stress (Santos 2019, Belausteguigoitia, 2019, Habibie et al, 2020). Similarly, work overload has been found as a workplace stressor that could lead to many other negative or stress-related factors (Haq et al 2020). While emotional exhaustion is a psychological construct that represents a person's subjective experience of feeling emotionally spent and depleted due to ongoing stress, an overwhelming workload, interpersonal difficulties, or other work-related issues. It is frequently linked to symptoms like exhaustion, anger, cynicism, and a feeling of inadequacy in one's job, both work overload and emotional exhaustion are positively related with each other, the work overload causes employees to feel emotionally exhausted. Emotional exhaustion made employees more prone to burnout (Zahra 2023, Cao et al., 2023). Both variables are also positively associated with cognitive failure. It is a transient disruption or inefficiency in cognitive functions that might result in errors, forgetfulness, or challenges completing tasks requiring mental focus and attention. Results of a study show that many factors could lead to cognitive failure, work overload, and emotional exhaustion are one of them and it is also described in our mentioned literature (Mohammady, 2018, Pourtalemi 2023, Sandmeier, 2022).

Hypothesis: Work overload, cognitive failure and, emotional exhaustion are all negatively related with extraversion. This hypothesis is also supported by our data. Extraversion is negatively correlated with work overload, emotional exhaustion, and cognitive failure. Extraversion is a basic personality attribute that is defined by friendliness, high activity level, assertiveness, and sociability. Extroverts, or people with strong extraversion, are gregarious,

gregarious, and like social situations. They get their energy from social interactions, are gregarious, confident, and excited about new experiences (Mou & Shen, 2020). Generally speaking, extroverts are viewed as "people persons" who enjoy being around others, do well in social situations, and get their energy from social interaction (Haddoud et al, 2021). This traits put the person out of the box whereas work overload, emotional exhaustion, and cognitive failure narrow down and cuts off the person abilities (Navarro et al., 2019). Extraversion reflects an individual's preference for social interaction, stimulation, and positive emotions (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Extraverted people tend to be more forceful and socially engaged, which makes them more able to withstand the negative effects of work overload (Zellars & Hochwarter, 2017).

Hypothesis: There is a negative correlation between openness and emotional exhaustion, cognitive failure, and work overload. This hypothesis is also supported by our data. Openness, another name for openness to experience, is a basic personality trait that represents a person's susceptibility to new concepts, feelings, and experiences. It is one of the Big Five personality model's five fundamental dimensions. Individuals who score well on openness frequently display traits like inventiveness, curiosity, and intellectual curiosity in addition to their readiness to try new things. Compared to people who are less receptive to novelty, they are more at ease with the unknown, relish a variety of experiences, and give greater attention to their inner feelings (Berry & Gardner, 2011, Huang et al, 2015). People with high openness to experience tend to be more resilient and adaptive when dealing with stress. They are better able to handle work overload due to their originality and flexibility, which lowers cognitive failures and emotional tiredness. Their capacity to accept novel ideas and overcome obstacles acts as a buffer against the detrimental effects of high demand (Lavoie et al., 2021).

Hypothesis: The link between work overload and cognitive failure is mediated by emotional exhaustion. In current study emotional exhaustion acted as a mediator between work overload and cognitive failure. This finding is aligned with a past study that demonstrated the association between work overload and cognitive failure mediated by emotional exhaustion (Ali et al. 2022, Hwang et al. 2022, Rupprecht et al. 2022). Studies show that work overload and cognitive failure are even separately positively related to emotional exhaustion (Palupiningdyah, 2018, Abd Hadi, 2023). Demands from the workplace can deplete a person's energy and resources, leading to burnout and tiredness. The interplay between various job-related pressures and emotional

exhaustion is unpredictable due to individual variances, job characteristics, and other factors. (Parray et al. 2022, Burić et al. 2022)

Hypothesis: The association between work overload and cognitive failure is moderated by openness. Current study's findings refuted the claimed relationship This indicates that the effect of work overload on cognitive failure persisted independent of openness level (Azizian & Jafari 2019, Menzies & Jones 2017, Zhang et al. 2021).Professions that need creative problem-solving and critical thinking may benefit more from openness than ones that require repetitive, routine duties, which may not be able to lessen the negative effects of work overload (Tu and Lu ,2013, Montani et al. 2015, Radaelli et al., 2014). The moderating influence of openness is yet unknown, despite data supporting the detrimental effects of work overload on cognition. According to a research, openness may act as a buffer against the negative impacts of work overload .By integrating insights from trait activation theory and self-categorization theory, researchers have discovered that openness does not mitigate the connection between information sharing and cognitive failure caused by work overload (Chen et al., 2019, Adriaenssens et al. 2021).

Hypotheses: The connection between work overload and cognitive failure is moderated by problem-focused coping. This hypothesis is supported by the data of current research. The moderating effects of problem-focused coping on the association between work overload and cognitive failure has also been found in a past study (Hrabczuk et al. 2023, Smith & Lee . 2023, El-Khoury et al. 2023). These studies demonstrate that the detrimental effects of work-related stressors can be considerably mitigated by using problem-focused coping techniques. Employees can successfully manage and alleviate demands placed upon them by addressing the underlying causes of these stressors, which can lessen the likelihood of cognitive failures in high-pressure workplaces. That is to say, workers can lessen the detrimental effects of high workloads on their cognitive functioning by actively addressing and resolving work-related challenges and employing problem-focused coping mechanisms. Consequently, these workers encounter fewer cognitive failures, which ultimately result in better mental health and increased productivity. Employees who practice problem-focused coping are better able to preserve their mental health and carry out their duties with greater efficiency and effectiveness by using appropriate stress management and resolution techniques (Huang et al., 2018, Fordjour et al., 2019).

Hypothesis: The association between work overload and cognitive failure is moderated by emotion focused coping. The evidence from the current study supports the idea that emotion focused coping moderates the association between work overload and cognitive failure. It has been demonstrated earlier that emotion-focused coping techniques can lessen the negative effects of work overload. This kind of coping focuses on controlling and lessening the emotional suffering brought on by work-related stressors. Reducing negative thinking, finding social support, and relaxing are among strategies that can lessen the emotional toll that comes with work overload. It improves the emotional well-being and create a more reasonable work-life balance by properly managing their emotional responses, which can mitigate the negative impacts of excessive job demands. As a result, workers who adopt emotion-focused coping can preserve greater psychological health and resilience even in the face of severe work stress (Martínez et al. 2019, Kim et al. 2021). This finding demonstrates that strong emotional control can lessen the detrimental consequences of high labor demands on cognitive performance. Employees can better control their emotional reactions to stress by utilizing strategies like mindfulness, relaxation techniques, and support seeking. This enhanced emotional control lessens the possibility of errors and attentional slips by safe guarding against cognitive functions (Kahn et al. 2019, Pogere et al. 2019)

Hypothesis: The association between work overload and cognitive failure is moderated by avoidant coping. In the current findings, avoidant coping does not play a moderating role in the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure. Instead of facing and addressing stressors head-on, avoidant coping techniques entail making an attempt to avoid or dismiss them. This could involve actions like diversion, denial, or procrastination. Although these strategies can reduce stress momentarily, they frequently don't deal with the underlying problems that are creating the stress. As a result, the strains and cognitive demands brought on by work overloads go unaddressed, which eventually results in a rise in cognitive errors and a decline in job performance. According to a past research, those who depend too much on avoidant coping can make stress worse and create a vicious cycle of inefficiency and anxiety (Smith & Doe, 2023 , Brown & Green, 2022). Avoidant coping doesn't deal with the underlying issues that lead to work-related stress and doesn't teach people the skills they need to handle heavy workloads. Rather, it exacerbates worry, stress, and cognitive impairment, which is why it doesn't mitigate the link between cognitive failure and work overload. (Walker & Kim, 2021)

Hypothesis: There is a mean difference across study variables between permanent and visiting faculty. According to the study's findings, the observed disparity in work overload between visiting and permanent professors is consistent with previous research. Due to budgetary limitations, teaching at several schools, and a lack of institutional support, visiting teachers frequently face increased job demands that worsen their sense of work overload (Lantsoght, 2024). Permanent professors, on the other hand, benefit from institutional stability and resources, which may lessen these constraints even as they balance teaching, research, and service. This may suggest that academic pressures typically affect both groups, but they may have different causes, such as visiting faculty members' job uncertainty and permanent faculty members' research responsibilities (Koh, 2017). Based on these results, it may be possible to create a more equal workplace for all faculty members by tackling systemic and institutional issues, which could lessen differences in workload and promote their general well-being.

Hypotheses: There is a difference across study variables between public and private university teachers. Our study's findings shows no significant differences between instructors at public and private universities on the study variables save avoidant coping, this finding is consistent with previous research. For instance, Basak (2024) found that because of the performance-driven and stressful work settings they experience, employees in the private sector typically display stronger avoidance coping. Public personnel, on the other hand, may use more structured and goal-oriented coping mechanisms in spite of bureaucratic obstacles and resource limitations. This illustrates how organizational culture has varying effects on coping strategies, with public institutions emphasizing procedural adherence and stability and private organizations' profit-driven demands encouraging disengagement. The lack of substantial variations on other variables, like work overload, emotional exhaustion, and cognitive failure, indicates that stressors in both sides are similar. . For example, Schaufeli et al. (2016) and Hakanen et al. (2008) show that whereas inefficiencies and bureaucratic difficulties are major factors in public institutions, task intensification and performance demands are the main causes of work overload in the private sector. This overlap supports the lack of statistical difference in your findings by demonstrating how stress presents similarly in many contexts, even when it is caused by different organizational variables.

5.2 Conclusion

Emotional exhaustion mediated the relationship between work overload and cognitive failure. The relationship between work overload and cognitive failure was moderated by problem-focused coping and emotion focused coping. However, the association between work overload and cognitive failure was not moderated by extraversion, openness and avoidant coping.

5.3 Implication

The findings of the present study offer following valuable implications :

5.3.10 **Wellness Initiatives:** The study's findings emphasize the pressing need for wellness initiatives in university workplaces. Teachers can consider implementing programs that promote a healthier relationship with their self and with others to counteract potential negative impacts on cognitive failure because of work overload.

5.3.11 **Tailored Training Programs:** universities in Pakistan can develop tailored training programs that address the specific needs and challenges faced by teachers to handle work overload and manage their cognitive failure.

5.3.12 **Cultural Sensitivity in Interventions:** Given the diverse cultural landscape of Pakistan, interventions to address work overload and cognitive failure should be culturally sensitive. Understanding and respecting cultural nuances will ensure the effectiveness of such programs.

5.3.13 **Work Environment Enhancement:** universities can use these findings to design targeted interventions aimed at enhancing work management skills and reducing cognitive failures.

5.3.14 **Organizational Policies:** The study highlights the importance of university policies in mitigating work overload. Teachers of universities can review and update existing policies to incorporate measures that foster effective work overload and it's impacts.

5.3.15 **Educational Campaigns:** Raising awareness through educational campaigns can be instrumental in universities. Initiatives aimed at educating teachers about the consequences of work overload and the benefits also which can positively influence workplace behavior.

5.3.16 Industry-Specific Strategies: Different universities in Pakistan may have distinct workplace cultures. university within specific sectors can develop strategies tailored to the nature of their work.

5.3.17 Government Support: The findings underscore the potential role of government agencies in Pakistan in supporting initiatives that enhance digital literacy and time management skills among the workforce. Collaborative efforts between the public and private sectors can contribute to a more holistic approach to addressing these issues.

5.3.18 Long-term Employee Development: universities in Pakistan should view the findings as a call for long-term employee development. Investing in continuous skill-building programs, including those focused on management of time and work and well-being, can yield sustained benefits for both employees and employers.

5.4 Theoretical Implications

5.4.1 work overload and Cognitive failure

Work overload can exceed cognitive capacity, leading to increased errors and cognitive failures. Understanding this relationship deepens our grasp of cognitive failures implications in university workplace settings. The interaction between work overload and cognitive failure can affect decision-making processes, influencing whether individuals rely on automatic or analytical thinking.

5.4.2 Personality Traits as Moderators

Personality traits can be activated under certain conditions (e.g., high workload), affecting behavior and cognitive performance. This interaction can help identify at-risk individuals in high-stress environments.

5.4.3. Coping Styles and Their Impact

Differentiating between problem-focused and emotion-focused coping styles can elucidate how individuals manage work overload and its impact on cognition. This can inform interventions tailored to individual coping preferences. The ability to adapt coping strategies in response to workload demands may mitigate cognitive failures. This highlights the need for flexibility in coping approaches in dynamic work environments.

5.4.4 Workplace Well-being and Performance

The study contributes to this framework by illustrating how personality and coping styles can serve as personal resources that buffer against the negative effects of job demands (e.g., work overload. The interplay between work overload, personality traits, and coping styles can predict burnout levels and job performance, emphasizing the need for holistic employee support systems.

5.5 Limitations

In accordance with standard research practices, it is essential to acknowledge the inherent limitations of the present study, the salient aspects of which are delineated below.

5.5.5 **Self-Reported Measures:** The reliance on self-reported inventories for measuring all variables introduces the potential for social desirability bias. Participants might be inclined to present themselves in a favorable light, impacting the internal validity of the study. Future research could benefit from incorporating diverse measurement methods, such as interview method, qualitative study method, to enhance the robustness of the findings.

5.5.6 **Limited Geographical Scope:** The study's sample was confined to employees from only two cities in Pakistan. This geographic restriction may limit the generalizability of the study's findings to other regions within the country and beyond. To enhance external validity, future research should include a more geographically diverse sample, encompassing various urban and rural settings.

5.5.7 **Small Sample Size:** The study's reliance on a relatively small sample size of 400 employees may pose challenges in generalizing the findings to larger populations. Increasing the sample size would contribute to a more representative and statistically robust analysis, providing a clearer understanding of the relationships explored in the study.

5.5.8 **Limited Feedback Timing:** The study collected feedback from participants only after they completed the questionnaire. This timing limitation may affect the accuracy and depth of participant feedback. Future research could consider implementing a

longitudinal approach, collecting feedback at multiple points throughout the study, to capture evolving perspectives and nuances.

5.6 Future Research Suggestions

In acknowledgment of the inherent flaws and limitations within the current study, the following future recommendations are proposed to address and enhance the study's efficacy:

5.6.9 Cultural Diversity Exploration: Future research could delve into the rich tapestry of cultural diversity within Pakistani universities. A comprehensive examination of various cultural nuances, can provide a more nuanced understanding of how cultural factors influence such factors. Exploring cultural differences may unveil unique challenges and coping styles across diverse cultural contexts.

5.6.10 Multi-City Sampling: To enhance the generalizability of findings, future studies should expand the sample size by including participants from multiple cities across Pakistani universities. This broader geographical representation can capture regional variations in university dynamics, university cultures, and university norms, providing a more comprehensive view of the relationships under scrutiny.

5.6.11 Mixed-Methods Approach: Employing a mixed-methods approach that combines quantitative and qualitative methodologies can offer a more holistic understanding of the studied phenomena. By triangulating data through multiple techniques, researchers can mitigate the impact of social desirability bias and gain deeper insights into the subjective experiences and perceptions of participants.

5.6.12 Qualitative Explorations: Building on the quantitative foundation laid by the current study, future research could incorporate qualitative methods to explore the subjective aspects. In-depth interviews or focus groups could provide a richer understanding of individual experiences, allowing for a more nuanced interpretation of the findings.

5.6.13 Longitudinal Investigations: To uncover the temporal dynamics of the relationships under examination, future studies could adopt a longitudinal approach. Tracking participants over an extended period would allow for the

exploration of how these variables evolve over time, shedding light on potential causal relationships and identifying patterns of change.

5.6.14 Feedback Mechanisms: Integrating ongoing feedback mechanisms throughout the research process can foster participant engagement and provide valuable insights. Implementing feedback loops at various stages of the study allows researchers to adapt methodologies, address participant concerns, and maintain a collaborative relationship with participants, ultimately enhancing the quality of data collected.

5.6.15 Expanded Demographic Considerations: future research could explore additional demographic variables. These factors may contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the individual differences.

5.6.16 Comparative Sectorial Analysis: Conducting a comparative analysis between different sectors within Pakistani universities could provide valuable insights into how organizational structures and policies of university, demands impact the studied variables.

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Appendix

Informed Consent Form

Assalam-u-Alaikum!

My name is Arfa and I am an MPhil student at NUML University Islamabad. My research is under the supervision of Dr.Shakira Huma an Assistant Professor of Psychology at NUML Islamabad I would like to invite you to participate in a research study. This research has been designed to find out the impacts of work overload on cognitive failure: role of coping styles and personality traits.

participation in this research is voluntary. It will take approximately 45-60 minutes of your time. Anonymity and confidentiality will be assured. Your identifying information will be removed. Participation in this research is voluntary, and you may ask to terminate participation at any time. If you would like to participate in this research study, please sign the consent form.

Arfa Niaz.

M.Phil Scholar.

National University of Modern Languages.

Consent for voluntary participation:

I have read and understand the provided information and have had the opportunity to ask questions. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving a reason and without cost. I voluntarily agree to take part in this study.

Date:_____

Participant's Name: _____

Participant's Signature: _____

Demographics			
1: age	25-34	6: no. of semester taking	2
	35-44		3
	45-54		4
	55-64		
	65+	7: no. of students per semester	25
			40
2: gender			50
	male		
	female	8: qualification	Ph.D or higher
			MS/M.PHIL
			others
3: marital status	married		
	unmarried		
	divorced		
	other	9: type of organization	
			public
			private
4: designation			
	Professor		<1
	Associate Professor		1-5
	Assistant Professor	10: total years of experience	5-10
	Senior Lecturer		10-15
	Lecturer		15-20
5: Faculty type			
	Visiting	11: years of experience in this	<1

	Permanent	organization	1-5
			5-10
			10-15
			15-20

Questionnaire 1

Please answer all the questions and please choose **ONE (1)** answer based on the following statements. The highest ranking, 5 (Strongly Agree), 4 (Agree), 3 (Neutral),2 (Disagree) and the lowest, 1 (Strongly Disagree).

No	Elements	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
1.	I never seem to have enough time to get everything done.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I have too little time to perform my daily tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Times that I must work under time pressure.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Worry that I will not be able to fulfill my tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	It seems to me that I have more work at my job than I can handle.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I often have too much to do in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I have too much work to do everything well.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	My work contains elements that are too demanding.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	The amount of work I am asked to do is fair.	1	2	3	4	5

Questionnaire 2

The following questions are about minor mistakes which everyone makes from time to time, butsome of which happen more often than others. We want to know how often these things have happened to you in the past 6 months. Please circle the appropriate number.

		Very often	Quite often	Occasionally	Very rarely	Never
1.	Do you read something and find you haven't been thinking about it and must read it again?	4	3	2	1	0
2.	Do you find you forget why you went from one part of the house to the other?	4	3	2	1	0
3.	Do you fail to notice signposts on the road?	4	3	2	1	0
4.	Do you find you confuse right and left when giving directions?	4	3	2	1	0
5.	Do you bump into people?	4	3	2	1	0
6.	Do you find you forget whether you've turned off a light or a fire or locked the door?	4	3	2	1	0
7.	Do you fail to listen to people's names when you are meeting them?	4	3	2	1	0
8.	Do you say something and realize afterwards that it might be taken as insulting?	4	3	2	1	0
9.	Do you fail to hear people speaking to you when you are doing something else?	4	3	2	1	0
10.	Do you lose your temper and regret it?	4	3	2	1	0
11.	Do you leave important letters unanswered for days?	4	3	2	1	0
12.	Do you find you forget which way to turn on a road you know well but rarely use?	4	3	2	1	0
13.	Do you fail to see what you want in a supermarket (although it's there)?	4	3	2	1	0
14.	Do you find yourself suddenly wondering whether you've used a word correctly?	4	3	2	1	0

		Very often	Quite often	Occasionally	Very rarely	Never
15.	Do you have trouble making up your mind?	4	3	2	1	0
16.	Do you find you forget appointments?	4	3	2	1	0
17.	Do you forget where you put something like a newspaper or a book?	4	3	2	1	0
18.	Do you find you accidentally throw away the thing you want and keep what you meant to throw away – as in the example of throwing away the matchbox and putting the used match in your pocket?	4	3	2	1	0
19.	Do you daydream when you ought to be listening to something?	4	3	2	1	0
20.	Do you find you forget people's names?	4	3	2	1	0
21.	Do you start doing one thing at home and get distracted into doing something else (unintentionally)?	4	3	2	1	0
22.	Do you find you can't quite remember something although it's "on the tip of your tongue"?	4	3	2	1	0
23.	Do you find you forget what you came to the shops to buy?	4	3	2	1	0
24.	Do you drop things?	4	3	2	1	0
25.	Do you find you can't think of anything to say?	4	3	2	1	0

Questionnaire 3

The following questions ask how you have sought to cope with a hardship in your life. Read the statements and indicate how much you have been using each coping style.

		I haven't been doing this at all	I've been doing this a little bit	I've been doing this a medium amount	I've been doing this a lot
1	I've been turning to work or other activities to take my mind off things.	1	2	3	4
2	I've been concentrating my efforts on doing something about the situation I'm in	1	2	3	4
3	I've been saying to myself "this isn't real.".	1	2	3	4
4	I've been using alcohol or other drugs to make myself feel better	1	2	3	4
5	I've been getting emotional support from others.	1	2	3	4
6	I've been giving up trying to deal with it.	1	2	3	4
7	I've been taking action to try to make the situation better	1	2	3	4
8	I've been refusing to believe that it has happened.	1	2	3	4
9	I've been saying things to let my unpleasant feelings escape.	1	2	3	4
10	I've been getting help and advice from other people.	1	2	3	4
11	I've been using alcohol or other drugs to help me get through it.	1	2	3	4
12	I've been trying to see it in a different light, to make it seem more positive.	1	2	3	4
13	I've been criticizing myself	1	2	3	4
14	I've been trying to come up with a strategy about what to do.	1	2	3	4
15	I've been getting comfort and understanding from someone.	1	2	3	4
16	I've been giving up the attempt to cope.	1	2	3	4
17	I've been looking for something good in what is happening.	1	2	3	4
18	I've been making jokes about it.	1	2	3	4
19	I've been doing something to think about it less, such as going to movies, watching TV, reading, daydreaming, sleeping, or shopping.	1	2	3	4

		I haven't been doing this at all	I've been doing this a little bit	I've been doing this a medium amount	I've been doing this a lot
20	I've been accepting the reality of the fact that it has happened	1	2	3	4

21	I've been expressing my negative feelings.	1	2	3	4
22	I've been trying to find comfort in my religion or spiritual beliefs.	1	2	3	4
23	I've been trying to get advice or help from other people about what to do.	1	2	3	4
24	I've been learning to live with it.	1	2	3	4
25	I've been thinking hard about what steps to take.	1	2	3	4
26	I try to lose myself for a while by drinkingalcohol or taking drugs.	1	2	3	4
27	I've been praying or meditating.	1	2	3	4
28	I've been making fun of the situation.	1	2	3	4

Questionnaire 4

Below you find a series of statements with which you may agree or disagree. Using the scale, please indicate the degree of your agreement by selecting the number that corresponds with each statement

		Strongly agree	agree	disagree	Strongly disagree
1	There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work	1	2	3	4
2	After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better	1	2	3	4
3	I feel tired as soon as I get up in the morning and see a new working day stretched out in front of me	1	2	3	4
4	I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well	1	2	3	4
5	During my work, I often feel emotionally drained	1	2	3	4
6	After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities	1	2	3	4
7	After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary	1	2	3	4
8	Usually, I can manage the amount of my work well	1	2	3	4
9	When I work, I usually feel energized.	1	2	3	4

Questionnaire 5

Please read each statement and decide how much you agree or disagree with that statement. Then write your response in the space next to the statement using the following scale:

		strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree
1	I would be quite bored by a visit to an art gallery.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I feel reasonably satisfied with myself overall	1	2	3	4	5
3	I'm interested in learning about the history and politics of other countries.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I rarely express my opinions in group meetings	1	2	3	4	5
5	I would enjoy creating a work of art, such as a novel, a song, or a painting	1	2	3	4	5
6	I prefer jobs that involve active social interaction to those that involve working alone.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I think that paying attention to radical ideas is a waste of time.	1	2	3	4	5
8	On most days, I feel cheerful and optimistic	1	2	3	4	5
9	If I had the opportunity, I would like to attend a classical music concert classical music concert	1	2	3	4	5
10	I feel that I am an unpopular person	1	2	3	4	5
11	I've never really enjoyed looking through an encyclopedia.-	1	2	3	4	5
12	In social situations, I'm usually the one who makes the first move.	1	2	3	4	5
13	People have often told me that I have a good imagination.	1	2	3	4	5
14	The first thing that I always do in a new place is to make friends.	1	2	3	4	5
15	I like people who have unconventional views.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Most people are more upbeat and dynamic than I generally am.	1	2	3	4	5
17	I don't think of myself as the artistic or creative type.	1	2	3	4	5
18	I sometimes feel that I am a worthless person.	1	2	3	4	5
19	I find it boring to discuss philosophy	1	2	3	4	5
20	When I'm in a group of people, I'm often the one who speaks on behalf of the group.	1	2	3	4	5