

**Arab American University**  
**Faculty of Graduate Studies**  
**Department of Administrative and Financial Sciences**  
**Master Program in Human Resources Management**



**The Mediating Role of Emotional Intelligence in the Relationship between  
Job Stress and Job Satisfaction. Evidence from General Authority of  
Civilian Affairs in Palestine.**

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**202216313**

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**This Thesis Was Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for  
the Master Degree in Human Resource Management**

**Palestine, Feb /2025**

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### **Thesis Approval**

## **The Mediating Role of Emotional Intelligence in the Relationship between Job Stress and Job Satisfaction. Evidence from General Authority of Civilian Affairs in Palestine.**

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This thesis was defended successfully on 20/2/2025 and approved by:

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## **Declaration**

I declare that, except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, this thesis is substantially my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree at the Arab American University or any other institution.

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A handwritten signature in black ink, consisting of a horizontal line with a small loop on the left and a small loop on the right.

Date of Submitting the Final Version of the Thesis: 17/5/2025

## **Dedication**

This thesis is dedicated to my beloved mother, whose unwavering love, sacrifice, and encouragement have been the foundation of my journey. Your strength and kindness inspire me every day, and this achievement is as much yours as it is mine. Thank you for believing in me, thank you for supporting me. I am forever grateful.

Hasan Jamel Farhan Mayyas

## **Acknowledgments**

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to Allah Almighty for His countless blessings, guidance, and strength, which have enabled me to complete this work.

My sincere appreciation goes to my supervisor, Dr. Ahmad Herzallah, for his invaluable guidance, patience, motivation, and unwavering support throughout this research journey. His insightful feedback and continuous encouragement have been instrumental in shaping the direction and quality of this thesis.

I am also profoundly grateful to the committee members, Dr. Raed Oraiqat and Dr. Salwa Barghouti, for their valuable time, thoughtful feedback, and constructive suggestions, which have greatly enriched this study.

Additionally, I extend my heartfelt thanks to the Dean of the Faculty of Graduate Studies, the Head of the Department, and all faculty members whose dedication and expertise have significantly contributed to my academic development and intellectual growth.

Hasan Jamel Farhan Mayyas

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## **Abstract**

This study investigates the mediating role of emotional intelligence (EI) in the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction among employees of the General Authority of Civilian Affairs (GACA) in Palestine. Adopting an explanatory quantitative research design, the study targeted a population of 443 employees across the West Bank and Gaza Strip. Due to accessibility limitations arising from the Israeli aggression on Gaza, the final sample consisted of 183 West Bank employees, selected through simple random sampling. Data were collected via a structured questionnaire and analyzed using SmartPLS4. Findings reveal that job stress has a statistically significant negative impact on job satisfaction, with quality concerns, responsibility pressure, and job vs. non-job conflict being the most influential stressors. Emotional intelligence demonstrated a competitive mediating role, significantly reducing the negative effects of stress on satisfaction. The study also found that job stress negatively impacts EI, while EI positively influences job satisfaction. Descriptive results indicated moderate levels of job stress and satisfaction, and a generally high level of EI among participants. The study contributes theoretically by extending job stress models and reinforcing the mediating role of emotional intelligence within high-stress, public sector environments. Contextually, it offers insight into employee experiences in a uniquely challenging socio-political setting. Practically, the findings support the need for structured interventions such as EI development programs, workload redistribution, conflict resolution training, and supportive HR policies to mitigate stress and enhance job satisfaction. Future research is encouraged to adopt longitudinal designs, explore intervention-based approaches, and examine additional psychological mediators such as self-efficacy and work engagement. Comparative studies across public sectors or cultural settings are also recommended to broaden the generalizability and applicability of findings.

**Keywords:** Emotional intelligence, Job stress, Job satisfaction, General authority of civil affairs, Palestine.

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## List of Definitions of Abbreviations

Abbreviations	Title
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
$R^2$	The R-squared value
$f^2$	Assessment of Effect Size
$Q^2$	Predictive Relevance.
SEM	Structural Equation Models
CR	Composite Reliability
GoF	Goodness of Fit of the Model
JS	Job Stress
JSA	Job Satisfaction
EI	Emotional Intelligence
GACA	The General Authority of Civil Affairs

# **Chapter One: Introduction**

## **1.1 Chapter Overview**

This chapter outlines the general framework of the study. It begins with an introduction to the research topic, followed by the problem statement, research questions, hypotheses, and research objectives. The chapter also highlights the significance of the study from both theoretical and empirical perspectives. Additionally, it presents the study's limits, and concludes with definitions of key terms used throughout the research.

## **1.2 Introduction**

The fast-paced nature of today's world makes a stress-free life nearly impossible. As a result, stress has been described by the World Health Organization as the "Health Epidemic of the 21<sup>st</sup> Century". (Dogan et al., 2022)

Occupational stress, job stress, work stress, and workplace stress are terms frequently used interchangeably to describe a response to pressures or demands associated with one's job (Gunasekera & Perera, 2023). Job stress (JS) is considered a subset of the broader phenomenon "stress" and arises from various factors, including heavy workloads, job insecurity, unfavourable physical conditions, and poor interpersonal relationships, to name a few (Narban et al., 2016). Individuals may experience symptoms of job stress including anxiety, irritability, high blood pressure, heart disease, a reduced resistance to infection, skin conditions and Headaches (Stranks, 2005).

Additionally, high level of job stress can result in emotional exhaustion (Kashif et al., 2017). If employees are unable to manage such stress, it may adversely impact their work attitudes and behaviours, including satisfaction, commitment, productivity, quality, and overall health in the workplace (Ismail et al., 2010).

Job satisfaction (JSA) is one of the most extensively studied constructs among various job attitudes (Judge et al., 2017). From an organizational behaviour perspective, job satisfaction reflects an individual's assessment of their job and work environment, encompassing

perceived job characteristics, the work setting, and emotional experiences in the workplace. Employees who are satisfied generally hold a positive view of their jobs, shaped by both perceptions and emotions (Robbins & Judge, 2023).

Furthermore, job satisfaction can lead to several positive behavioural outcomes, including increased retention, employee commitment, performance, and organizational citizenship (Jiang et al., 2016). Research indicate a strong inverse relationship between job stress and job satisfaction, with up to ninety-nine percent of studies confirming that as job stress increases, job satisfaction tends to decrease (Singh et al., 2019). However, the impact of job stress on job satisfaction can vary depending on the presence of emotional intelligence within organizations (Ismail et al., 2010).

Emotional intelligence (EI), in simple terms, is the ability to use emotions wisely in daily life. Scholars have defined and conceptualized EI in various ways, offering frameworks to deepen our understanding and practical application of the concept (Anbarasan & Nikhil, 2010).

It is noteworthy that scholars often view job stress, emotional intelligence, and job satisfaction as closely interconnected constructs. For instance, the Ability-Based Model of Emotional Intelligence (EI), initially proposed by Mayer and Salovey in 1990 and revised in 1997, suggests that individuals with higher EI can more effectively perceive, understand, manage, and utilize emotions. With this heightened emotional awareness, individuals can better manage stressful situations, which fosters resilience and supports positive attitudes and behaviours. (Caruso & Howe, 2007; Fiori & Vesely-Maillefer, 2018).

Likewise, Bar-On's model of emotional-social intelligence (1997, 2000) proposes that enhanced emotional intelligence can increase personal competencies, which may help individuals manage external pressures more effectively and lead to greater well-being (Bar-On, 2010; Fernández-Berrocal & Extremera, 2006).

Well-being, as described by Bar-On, is a subjective state that arises from feeling satisfied with one's physical health, self-image, close relationships, job, and financial status (Bar-On, 2005). Moreover, Goleman's theory suggests that emotionally intelligent employees

experience greater fulfilment, as they are better equipped to understand and manage both their own emotional needs and those of their colleagues. Additionally, Goleman argues that employees with strong self-regulation can control impulsive reactions, helping them stay calm under pressure and make thoughtful decisions, even in challenging situations (Goleman, 1998).

From a theoretical standpoint, job stress has often been conceptualized through models such as the Demand-Control Model, which argues that stress increases when job demands are high and the individual's control over their work is low (Schonfeld & Chang, 2017). Additionally, the Person–Environment Fit Theory suggests that stress results from a misfit between an individual's abilities and the demands of their work environment (Cooman & Vleugels, 2022). Moreover, the Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) theory provides a flexible and widely applicable model, by distinguishing between job demands and resources, including personal resources (Demerouti et al., 2001). Regarding job satisfaction, one of the most well-known frameworks is Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, which distinguishes between hygiene factors that prevent dissatisfaction and motivators that enhance satisfaction (Muwanguzi & Mugimu, 2022).

The relevance of these and other supporting theories becomes even more pronounced in environments marked by prolonged instability and systemic pressure, such as the Palestinian public sector.

The ongoing Palestinian conflict with the Israeli occupation has created substantial stress for employees in both life and work contexts (Khoury & Analoui, 2010). Public sector employees in Palestine face numerous challenges driven by a combination of socio-political and economic issues. Key difficulties include stagnant wages, social unrest, rapid workforce expansion, and unfavourable working conditions. Wage disparities further exacerbate economic inequality (Farraj & Dana, 2021).

These difficulties are further compounded by the Palestinian Authority's fiscal crisis, which has worsened in 2024 due to an anticipated \$1.86 billion deficit linked to increased Israeli deductions from Clearance Revenues. Coupled with escalating violence, severe movement

restrictions, and disruptions to local businesses and agriculture, these factors have contributed to rising costs and amplified the difficult circumstances (World Bank, 2024).

Despite the recognized importance of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction in the workplace, and the numerous stress-inducing factors specific to the Palestinian context, little is known about the mediating role of emotional intelligence in the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction within Palestinian public sector ministries and authorities. To address this gap, the present study aims to explore the mediating effect of emotional intelligence on the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction, focusing on the General Authority of Civilian Affairs (GACA) as a case study.

The present study seeks to achieve five objectives, including: first, to explore the mediating role of emotional intelligence in the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction among GACA employees. Second, to identify the most significant job stress factors (responsibility pressure, role conflict, workload, quality concerns, and job vs. non-job conflict) that affect job satisfaction among GACA employees. Third, to examine the impact of job stress on emotional intelligence. Fourth, to examine the impact of emotional intelligence on job satisfaction. Fifth, to assess the levels of job stress, job satisfaction, and emotional intelligence among the employees.

By exploring these dynamics, this research aims to provide valuable insights for the Human Resource Department in GACA and the broader Palestinian public sector to develop targeted strategies and training programs that strengthen employees' emotional intelligence, helping them manage stress more effectively. Policymakers within the Palestinian public sector can also leverage the findings to enhance workplace policies that promote employee well-being.

Additionally, this study contributes to the broader literature on emotional intelligence, job stress, and job satisfaction, particularly within unique socio-political contexts such as the Palestinian public sector. Future researchers may build on the findings to examine the mediating role of emotional intelligence in other public sectors globally or to compare diverse cultural and organizational settings for a more comprehensive understanding.

This thesis is organized as follows: Chapter One introduces the research by outlining the background, problem statement, research questions, hypotheses, objectives, significance, and key concepts such as emotional intelligence, job stress, and job satisfaction. Chapter Two presents a comprehensive literature review, covering the origin, definitions, and importance of the study variables, along with major theoretical frameworks related to emotional intelligence, job stress, and job satisfaction. It also explores causes and implications of job stress, key determinants of job satisfaction, and reviews relevant empirical studies, concluding with the conceptual model and hypothesis development. Chapter Three details the research methodology, including the research design, data collection tools, questionnaire validity and reliability, sampling methods, and statistical techniques used for data analysis.

Chapter Four provides a thorough analysis of the data, presenting both descriptive statistics and hypothesis testing through measurement and structural model assessments. Chapter Five concludes the thesis by summarizing the main findings, drawing conclusions based on each research question, discussing practical and theoretical implications, and offering recommendations, study limitations, and suggestions for future research.

### **1.3 The Problem Statement**

Stress is a global issue affecting individuals, organizations, and entire economies (Newton et al., 2016). Prolonged exposure to stress can lead to severe mental and physical health problems for individuals (Cooper et al., 2001) and significantly reduce organizational productivity (Michie, 2002). Consequently, job stress has become a major concern for employees and organizations alike, with increasing awareness of its harmful effects (Muchinsky, 2000). When employees are unable to manage job stress, their work attitudes and behaviours, including job satisfaction, are often negatively impacted (Ismail et al., 2010).

Among various job attitudes, job satisfaction is one of the most extensively studied constructs (Judge et al., 2017). Literature indicates that job satisfaction is linked to numerous positive outcomes, such as increased employee retention, commitment, enhanced performance, and stronger organizational citizenship behaviour (Jiang et al., 2016). Conversely, high levels of

job dissatisfaction correlate with negative outcomes, including turnover intentions, absenteeism, and adverse work-related emotions (Jodlbauer et al., 2011).

Existing research largely supports an inverse relationship between job stress and job satisfaction, where increased stress tends to reduce satisfaction (Singh et al., 2019).

However, the effect of job stress on job satisfaction can vary depending on the presence of emotional intelligence (EI) within organizations (Ismail et al., 2010).

The Palestinian public sector operates within a complex socio-political and economic environment characterized by social unrest, economic inequality, stagnant wages, and rapid workforce growth. Civil servants and professionals in this sector often face challenging working conditions and salary disparities (Farraj & Dana, 2021). Additionally, public sector finances are unstable, heavily reliant on international aid and Israeli-transferred tax revenues, which are frequently delayed or withheld, creating uncertainty around salary payments (Farraj & Dana, 2021).

In 2024, this financial strain has worsened as the fiscal crisis deepens (World Bank, 2024). The ongoing conflict with Israeli occupation also generates substantial stress for employees, affecting both their work and personal lives (Khoury & Analoui, 2010).

With ten years of experience in the Palestinian public sector, I have encountered numerous stressful situations and observed many colleagues who are dissatisfied with their work and daily lives. This experience motivated me to explore studies on job stress, job satisfaction, and the role of emotional intelligence in shaping the impact of stress on job satisfaction. Despite the importance of these factors for both individuals and organizations, I found a surprising lack of research focusing on these variables within Palestinian public sector ministries and authorities.

The lack of targeted research in this area represents a critical gap. Therefore, to bridge this gap, the present study aims to examine the mediating role of emotional intelligence (EI) in the relationship between job stress (JS) and job satisfaction (JSA) within the General Authority of Civilian Affairs (GACA) as a case study. Additionally, the study seeks to assess

the levels of job stress, job satisfaction, and emotional intelligence among employees; identify which job stress factors (e.g., responsibility pressure, role conflict, workload, quality concerns, and job vs. non-job conflict) most significantly affect job satisfaction; examine the impact of job stress on emotional intelligence; and explore the impact of emotional intelligence on job satisfaction.

This study is significant for being the first of its kind in the Palestinian public sector and for its potential to provide valuable insights for the Human Resources Department at GACA and the broader Palestinian public sector. The findings could inform targeted strategies and training programs that strengthen employees' emotional intelligence, helping them manage stress more effectively. Policymakers in the Palestinian public sector may also use the results to improve workplace policies that promote employee well-being.

Furthermore, this study contributes to the broader literature on emotional intelligence, job stress, and job satisfaction, especially within unique socio-political contexts like Palestine. Future researchers may build on these findings to examine the mediating role of emotional intelligence in other public sectors globally or compare cultural and organizational settings for a more comprehensive understanding.

## **1.4 Research Questions**

**Q1:** What is the effect of job stress on job satisfaction among GACA employees?

Q1a: What is the effect of role conflict on job satisfaction among GACA employees?

Q1b: What is the effect of workload on job satisfaction among GACA employees?

Q1c: What is the effect of quality concerns on job satisfaction among GACA employees?

Q1d: What is the effect of job vs. non-job conflict on job satisfaction among GACA employees?

Q1e: What is the effect of responsibility pressure on job satisfaction among GACA employees?

**Q2:** What is the effect of job stress on emotional intelligence among GACA employees?

Q2a: What is the effect of responsibility pressure on emotional intelligence among GACA employees?

Q2b: What is the effect of quality concerns on emotional intelligence among GACA employees?

Q2c: What is the effect of role conflict on emotional intelligence among GACA employees?

Q2d: What is the effect of job vs. non-job conflict on emotional intelligence among GACA employees?

Q2e: What is the effect of workload on emotional intelligence among GACA employees?

**Q3:** What is the effect of emotional intelligence on job satisfaction among GACA employees?

**Q4:** Does emotional intelligence mediate the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction among GACA employees?

Q4a: Does emotional intelligence mediate the relationship between responsibility pressure and job satisfaction among GACA employees?

Q4b: Does emotional intelligence mediate the relationship between quality concerns and job satisfaction among GACA employees?

Q4c: Does emotional intelligence mediate the relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction among GACA employees?

Q4d: Does emotional intelligence mediate the relationship between job vs. non-job conflict and job satisfaction among GACA employees?

Q4e: Does emotional intelligence mediate the relationship between workload and job satisfaction among GACA employees?

**Q5:** What is the level of job stress among GACA employees?

**Q6:** What is the level of job satisfaction among GACA employees?

**Q7:** What is the level of emotional intelligence among GACA employees?

## **1.5 Research Hypotheses**

**H1:** Job stress has a negative impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees.

H1a: Responsibility pressure has a negative impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees.

H1b: Quality concerns have a negative impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees.

H1c: Role conflict has a negative impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees.

H1d: Job vs. non-job conflict has a negative impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees.

H1e: Workload has a negative impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees.

**H2:** Job stress has a negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.

H2a: Responsibility pressure has a negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.

H2b: Quality concerns have a negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.

H2c: Role conflict has a negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.

H2d: Job vs. non-job conflict has a negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.

H2e: Workload has a negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.

**H3:** Emotional intelligence has a positive impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees.

**H4:** Emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction among GACA employees.

H4a: Emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between responsibility pressure and job satisfaction among GACA employees.

H4b: Emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between quality concerns and job satisfaction among GACA employees.

H4c: Emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction among GACA employees.

H4d: Emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between job vs. non-job conflict and job satisfaction among GACA employees.

H4e: Emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between workload and job satisfaction among GACA employees.

## **1.6 Research Objectives**

The study aims to achieve the following objectives:

1. To explore the mediating role of emotional intelligence in the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction among GACA employees.
2. To examine how emotional intelligence mediates the impact of each job stress dimension (responsibility pressure, role conflict, workload, quality concerns, and job vs. non-job conflict) on job satisfaction.
3. To identify the most significant job stress factors (responsibility pressure, role conflict, workload, quality concerns, and job vs. non-job conflict) affecting job satisfaction among GACA employees.
4. To examine the impact of job stress on emotional intelligence.

5. To examine the impact of emotional intelligence on job satisfaction.
6. To assess the levels of job stress, job satisfaction, and emotional intelligence among GACA employees.

## **1.7 Significance of the Study**

### **1.7.1 Theoretical Significance**

Theoretically, the present study enriches the literature on emotional intelligence, job stress, and job satisfaction by exploring how these constructs interact within a unique socio-political and economic environment. Specifically, it contributes to existing theories in organizational psychology, stress management, and emotional intelligence.

The theoretical contribution can be summarised as follow:

**Extension of Job Stress Models:** By examining how specific dimensions of job stress (e.g., responsibility pressure, role conflict, workload) impact job satisfaction and further explain the mediating role of emotional intelligence, this study extends traditional job stress models. It offers a nuanced understanding of how emotional intelligence can serve as a protective factor against job-related strain, thus contributing to stress and coping theories in organizational psychology.

**Development of Emotional Intelligence Theory:** This research highlights the role of emotional intelligence as a mediator in high-stress workplaces, particularly within public sector organizations facing socio-political pressures. By testing EI's mediating effect on the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction, the study refines theories of emotional intelligence by demonstrating its practical applicability in workplace settings characterized by significant stress and organizational challenges.

**Contributions to Contextualized Organizational Behavior Theory:** Finally, by situating the study within the Palestinian public sector, the research contributes to the broader theory of contextualized organizational behavior. It underscores the importance of socio-political context in shaping employee experiences of stress and satisfaction, adding a cultural and

situational layer to existing organizational theories. This perspective can inform cross-cultural studies on EI, stress, and job satisfaction, encouraging more inclusive and contextually relevant organizational research.

### **1.7.2 Empirical Significance**

The present study's empirical significance lies in its ability to provide localized data and practical applications for the Palestinian public sector includes:

#### **1. Human Resource Departments and Managers in Public Sector Organizations.**

- **Benefit:** HR departments can use insights from the study to develop targeted strategies and training programs that strengthen emotional intelligence among employees, helping them manage stress more effectively.

- **Application:** By understanding the mediating role of emotional intelligence in the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction, HR professionals can develop broader strategies to support employees. These may include designing general EI enhancement programs, such as workshops on self-awareness, stress regulation, and empathy, to foster a more resilient and satisfied workforce. Such initiatives can help employees better manage workplace challenges, even in high-stress environments, contributing to overall organizational effectiveness.

#### **2. Policymakers in the Palestinian Authority**

- **Benefit:** Policymakers responsible for employee welfare and organizational efficiency in the public sector could leverage these findings to improve workplace policies.

- **Application:** Policies could include measures to address the most impactful stressors and promote emotional intelligence development through workshops or EI-based evaluations as part of performance reviews.

#### **3. Training and Development Professionals**

- **Benefit:** Professionals who design and implement employee development programs can benefit by creating EI-focused modules tailored to stress management.
- **Application:** Training that emphasizes emotional intelligence skills like self-awareness, stress management, and empathy could be particularly useful in high-stress roles.

#### 4. Researchers and Academics in Organizational Behaviour and Public Administration

- **Benefit:** the present study will add valuable insights into the literature on emotional intelligence, stress, and job satisfaction, particularly in unique socio-political contexts like the Palestinian public sector.
- **Application:** Future researchers can build on the findings, exploring EI's mediating role in other public sectors globally, or comparing different cultural and organizational settings for a broader understanding.

## 1.8 Study Limits

### 1. **Geographical Limits**

This study is geographically limited to employees of the General Authority of Civilian Affairs (GACA) operating in the West Bank region of Palestine. Employees in the Gaza Strip were excluded due to accessibility constraints.

### 2. **Temporal Limits**

The research is based on data collected during the year 2024. Consequently, it reflects the organizational and socio-political conditions of that specific time period, and trends beyond this timeframe are not addressed.

### 3. **Population/Sample Limits**

- The target population is restricted to GACA employees in the West Bank.
- The study does not perform subgroup analyses by demographic factors such as age, gender, or job rank, focusing instead on general trends across the entire employee population.

### 4. **Theoretical Limits**

- Emotional Intelligence (EI) is conceptualized as a cognitive ability, excluding other frameworks such as trait-based or mixed models.
- The study is grounded in occupational stress theory, primarily focusing on its relationship with job satisfaction, without incorporating other well-being models (e.g., burnout, engagement).

## 5. **Methodological Limits**

- The study employs a quantitative research approach, relying on structured surveys for data collection.
- Qualitative methods such as interviews or focus groups are excluded.
- The research focuses on the mediating role of EI and does not explore moderating effects or bidirectional relationships.

## 6. **Content/Subject Limits**

The research scope is confined to the variables of job stress, emotional intelligence, and job satisfaction. It does not include other relevant organizational factors such as leadership style, motivation, or organizational culture.

## 1.8 **Definition of Terms**

Emotional Intelligence: “the ability to reason validly with emotions and with emotion related information, and to use emotions to enhance thought”. (Mayer et al., 2016, p. 296)

The appraisal and expression of emotions: refer to the ability to recognize, interpret, and communicate emotions in oneself and others through both verbal and non-verbal means. (Punia et al., 2015)

Regulation of emotions: involves understanding and managing a range of emotions, including their causes and suppression, while also influencing the emotional responses of others. (Punia et al., 2015)

Utilization of emotions: refers to the ability to generate and apply emotions to enhance decision-making, solve problems, and consider multiple perspectives. (Punia et al., 2015)

Job stress: “the total amount of negative psychological responses that workers experience performance”. (Jeon et al., 2022, p.5)

Responsibility pressure: is “having too much responsibility for people, process, or products and insufficient human or material assistance”. (House et al., 1979, p. 140)

Role conflict: is “receiving ambiguous and/or conflicting expectations from others at work”. (House et al., 1979, p. 140)

workload: is “reporting a large quantity of work and frequent time pressure”. (House et al., 1979, p. 140)

Quality concerns: is” having concern about not being able to do as good work as one could or should”. (House et al., 1979, p. 140)

job vs. non-job conflict: is “feeling that the job interferes with nonwork (e.g., family) life”. (House et al., 1979, p. 140)

Job satisfaction: “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences”. (Locke,1976, p.1304) cited in (İpşirli & Namal ,2023)

## **Chapter Two: Literature Review**

### **2.1 Chapter Overview**

This chapter reviews the literature on emotional intelligence, job stress, and job satisfaction, focusing on their importance, definitions, origins, causes, implications, interrelationships, and theoretical foundations. It provides a comprehensive understanding of these concepts and their relevance to the study's objectives, laying the groundwork for exploring their dynamics in the workplace context.

### **2.2 The Origin and Definitions of Emotional Intelligence**

Historically, intelligence has been viewed as distinct from emotions, with an emphasis on quantitative rationality over qualitative attitudes. Emotional intelligence (EI) extends the long-standing philosophical debate on the relationship between emotions and reason in human behaviour. Historical references, such as the Bhagavad Gita (5<sup>th</sup> century BC) on mind control and Aristotle's writings (350 BC) on concepts akin to EI, demonstrate that its essence has been explored long before the term became popular. (Anbarasan& Nikhil, 2010)

The concept of EI began to take shape through contributions from various scholars. In 1920, Edward Thorndike, a psychology professor at Columbia University, introduced the concept of social intelligence in an essay for Harper's Magazine. Thorndike defined social intelligence as "the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls—to act wisely in human relations." He emphasized that intelligence should be assessed across three domains: social, mechanical, and abstract. Thorndike also acknowledged the challenges of measuring social intelligence and associated it with qualities like empathy, kindness, and character. (Peltier, 2009)

David Wechsler further expanded the understanding of intelligence in the 1940s by emphasizing "non-intellective" components. After developing his first major IQ test in 1940, he argued that intelligence extends beyond purely cognitive abilities. In 1958, Wechsler stated that intellectual ability was the minimum requirement for general

intelligence. By 1981, he emphasized the influence of personality traits and non-cognitive factors, such as persistence, anxiety, and goal awareness, on intelligence (Mehta & Singh, 2013; Peltier, 2009)

Moving to 1966 Hanscarl Leuner the German psychiatrist were the first who use the term Emotional intelligence in his essay. He talked about the women that refused to accept a particular facets of gender role and conclude they are low in terms of the level of “Emotional Intelligence”. (Peltier, 2009)

Howard Gardner’s theory of multiple intelligences, introduced in his 1983 book *Frames of Mind*. Gardner proposed seven distinct types of intelligence, included two forms of intelligence that significantly influenced the development of EI: 1) intrapersonal intelligence (the ability to understand one’s own emotions and thoughts) and 2) interpersonal intelligence (the ability to understand the emotions, behaviours, and motivations of others). These personal intelligences share core characteristics with modern EI concepts and helped shape its theoretical foundation. (Peltier, 2009)

Wayne Payne mentioned the emotional intelligence in his un published dissertation in 1985, titled “A Study of Emotion: Developing Emotional Intelligence”. Moving to 1987, Keith Beasley introduced the term ‘emotional quotient’ in an article for *Mensa Magazine*, while this is often cited as the first published use, Reuven Bar-On claims to have used it earlier in his unpublished graduate thesis (Dhani& Sharma. 2016).

The term "emotional intelligence" was first introduced in writing In 1990, when John Mayer, a professor at the University of New Hampshire, and Peter Salovey at Yale University published an influential article titled “Emotional Intelligence” in a little-known psychology journal (Peltier, 2009) .They defined EI as “the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 189). This concept was presented as a subset of social intelligence and aligned with Howard Gardner’s 1983 model of multiple intelligences (Punia et al.,2015). In 1997, Mayer and Salovey refined their definition, describing EI as “the ability to perceive and express emotion, integrate emotion

into thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in oneself and others” as cited in (Dhani& Sharma, 2016, p.192)

In 1994, the concept of “Emotional intelligence” was still relatively unknown. Daniel Goleman, a science reporter for The New York Times discovered Mayer and Salovey’s work through their 1990 article and was inspired by its innovative approach to emotions as a bridge between feeling and reasoning. Goleman chose “emotional intelligence” as the title for his book. His work popularized the term globally, far surpassing his initial modest goal of simply making it recognizable, with translations in over forty languages and a significant worldwide impact (Goleman,2020).

Three years later, after Goleman published his first book in 1995, he published his second book "WORKING WITH EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE". Goleman (1998) argued that EI is “the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships” (p.316).

Reuven Bar-On also contributed to the development of. Bar-On asserts that he began exploring EI in an unpublished dissertation in South Africa during the 1980s, He noted the construct includes significant interpersonal and intrapersonal components, leading him to prefer the term (ESI) “emotional-social intelligence” (Peltier, 2009). Bar-On (1997) defined EI as “an array of personal, emotional, and social competencies and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures” as cited in (De Weerd & Rossi, 2012, p.145).

The definition of emotional intelligence (EI) remains a subject of debate, with scholars differing on its nature and measurement. Two dominant perspectives shape the discourse: one views EI as encompassing a broad range of non-IQ factors associated with success, as proposed by Bar-On and Goleman, while the other defines it as the ability to perceive, understand, and regulate emotional information, as emphasized by Mayer and Salovey. Critics argue that the absence of a unified definition poses challenges to the validity and reliability of EI measures. Nevertheless, EI continues to evolve as a multidisciplinary construct, influencing fields such as psychology, education, and organizational behavior. (De Weerd & Rossi, 2012)

## **2.3 The Importance of Emotional Intelligence**

### **2.3.1 The Influence of Emotional Intelligence on Individuals**

Studies emphasize the critical role of emotional intelligence (EI) in enhancing various aspects of life, including well-being, job performance, leadership skills, and mental health. Individuals with high EI excel at managing their emotions, leading to improved social interactions, greater empathy, and increased optimism, self-confidence, and effectiveness. EI also helps reduce stress, fosters healthy relationships, and is linked to broader concepts such as spirituality and love (Sadiku & Olaleye, 2020).

People who are sensitive to their own emotional signals and those of their social environment tend to excel in roles such as friends, parents, spouses, and community members. In professional settings, EI enhances decision-making, conflict resolution, and openness to constructive criticism. In contrast, a lack of EI can lead to counterproductive behaviours, such as avoiding teamwork, blaming others, being overly critical, resisting feedback, or adopting a “victim” mentality (Sadiku & Olaleye, 2020).

Bradberry and Greaves (2006) assert that EI is essential for managing stress and addressing challenges proactively. It enhances happiness, self-comfort, and contentment. Conversely, low EI increases vulnerability to anxiety, depression, substance abuse, and suicidal thoughts. Emotional distress has been linked to serious illnesses like cancer, highlighting the growing emphasis on emotions in medical education. Beyond individual benefits, EI contributes to organizational success, improving job performance, leadership, workplace culture, and overall satisfaction. Importantly, EI is a skill that can be developed with practice (Bradberry & Greaves, 2006).

Bar-On (2010) highlights substantial overlap between EI and positive psychology, noting that EI supports happiness, well-being, performance, and the pursuit of a meaningful life—key aspects of positive psychology. Similarly, Chew et al. (2013) affirm that individuals with high EI lead healthier lives, achieve greater success, and build better relationships compared to those with lower EI.

### **2.3.2 Emotional Intelligence in Organizations and the Future Workplace**

Daniel Goleman (1998) described EI as the “immune system” for organizations, helping them navigate challenges such as market shifts, poor strategic vision, hostile takeovers, and new competitive technologies. Key EI competencies—self-regulation, motivation, empathy, leadership, open communication, and self-awareness—are vital for organizational resilience and growth. Goleman (2020) further argues that as artificial intelligence (AI) automates routine tasks, EI will become increasingly valuable in workplaces. Unlike AI, humans excel in nuanced emotional interactions, especially in managing relationships. A survey of over 2,000 executives found that nearly 75% view EI as an essential skill for the future workplace.

Bradberry and Greaves (2006) believes that EI contributes to organizational success, improving job performance, leadership, workplace culture, and overall satisfaction. Moreover, they affirm that EI is a skill that can be developed with practice.

### **2.3.4 Emotional Intelligence and Leadership**

Emotional intelligence is particularly impactful in leadership and conflict management. Balamohan and Gomathi (2015) emphasize that managers with high EI are better equipped to handle conflict, inspire teams, and foster a positive work environment. Such leaders drive job satisfaction and motivate employees to exceed expectations. Goleman et al. (2017) describe EI as a “different kind of smart,” critical for achieving high performance, particularly in leadership roles.

## **2.4 Emotional Intelligence Theories**

Theories of emotional intelligence (EI) aim to explain the skills, traits, and abilities associated with the concept. While some advocate for a unified framework, others stress the importance of multiple perspectives to fully capture its complexity. EI is typically conceptualized through three main approaches: trait, ability, and mixed models. Mayer and Salovey’s ability model define EI as a purely cognitive ability, whereas Reuven Bar-On’s model emphasizes the interaction between EI abilities and personality traits, particularly their role in well-being. Similarly, Daniel Goleman’s mixed model integrates abilities and

personality traits, highlighting their impact on workplace performance (Dhani & Sharma, 2016). In addition to these models, Petrides, Furnham, and Frederickson's Trait Emotional Intelligence model could be considered a possible fourth framework (Peltier, 2009).

#### **2.4.1 The Ability Model**

The initial definition of (EI) that proposed in 1990 by Salovey and Mayer was part and subset of social intelligence and the seven multiple intelligences model that developed by Howard Gardner in 1983. The initial conceptualization of EI, encompassed three primary abilities: (1) appraisal and expression of emotion (2) regulation of emotion (3) utilization of emotion (Singh et al., 2022). Mayer and Salovey (1993) assert that while EI is separate from IQ, it still relies on the functioning of the brain, more over they noted that they considered using the term "emotional competence" but ultimately chose "emotional intelligence" to align their framework with the historical literature on intelligence (as cited in Singh et al., 2022).

In 1997 John Mayer and Peter Salovey updated their definition to "the ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions, and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth", Also developed four branches of abilities includes (1) identifying emotions (2) utilization of emotion (3) understanding emotion besides (4) managing emotion. The ability model ascending in complexity, the last update of the ability model was introduced in 2016, the four branches remain the same, but Salovey and Mayer in addition to Caruso, further refined some skills within each branch by dividing them into more specific abilities. Additionally, they expanded the using and understanding branches with entirely new skills as shown in figure (1.1). (Rivers et al., 2020)

**Table 1.** The four-branch model of emotional intelligence, with added areas of reasoning<sup>a</sup>.

The Four Branches	Types of Reasoning
4. <b>Managing emotions</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Effectively manage others' emotions to achieve a desired outcome<sup>b</sup></li> <li>• Effectively manage one's own emotions to achieve a desired outcome<sup>b</sup></li> <li>• Evaluate strategies to maintain, reduce, or intensify an emotional response<sup>b</sup></li> <li>• Monitor emotional reactions to determine their reasonableness</li> <li>• Engage with emotions if they are helpful; disengage if not</li> <li>• Stay open to pleasant and unpleasant feelings, as needed, and to the information they convey</li> </ul>
3. <b>Understanding emotions</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Recognize cultural differences in the evaluation of emotions<sup>c</sup></li> <li>• Understand how a person might feel in the future or under certain conditions (affective forecasting)<sup>c</sup></li> <li>• Recognize likely transitions among emotions such as from anger to satisfaction</li> <li>• Understand complex and mixed emotions</li> <li>• Differentiate between moods and emotions<sup>c</sup></li> <li>• Appraise the situations that are likely to elicit emotions<sup>c</sup></li> <li>• Determine the antecedents, meanings, and consequences of emotions</li> <li>• Label emotions and recognize relations among them</li> </ul>
2. <b>Facilitating thought using emotion<sup>d</sup></b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Select problems based on how one's ongoing emotional state might facilitate cognition</li> <li>• Leverage mood swings to generate different cognitive perspectives</li> <li>• Prioritize thinking by directing attention according to present feeling</li> <li>• Generate emotions as a means to relate to experiences of another person<sup>c</sup></li> <li>• Generate emotions as an aid to judgment and memory</li> </ul>
1. <b>Perceiving emotion</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Identify deceptive or dishonest emotional expressions<sup>b</sup></li> <li>• Discriminate accurate vs. inaccurate emotional expressions<sup>b</sup></li> <li>• Understand how emotions are displayed depending on context and culture<sup>c</sup></li> <li>• Express emotions accurately when desired</li> <li>• Perceive emotional content in the environment, visual arts, and music<sup>b</sup></li> <li>• Perceive emotions in other people through their vocal cues, facial expression, language, and behavior<sup>b</sup></li> <li>• Identify emotions in one's own physical states, feelings, and thoughts</li> </ul>

*Note.* <sup>a</sup>The bullet-points are based on Mayer and Salovey (1997) except as indicated in superscripts b and c. Within a row, the bulleted items are ordered approximately from simplest to most complex, bottom to top. The four-branch model depicts the problem-solving areas of emotional intelligence and is not intended to correspond to the factor structure of the area.

<sup>b</sup>An ability from the original model was divided into two or more separate abilities.

<sup>c</sup>A new ability was added.

<sup>d</sup>Note that the Branch 2 abilities can be further divided into the areas of *generating emotions to facilitate thought* (the bottom two bulleted items) and *tailoring thinking to emotion* (the top three bulleted items).

### Figure (2.1) The Updated Four-Branch Model

Note. From "The ability model of emotional intelligence: Principles and updates", by J. D. Mayer, D. R. Caruso, and P. Salovey, 2016, *Emotion Review*, 8(4), p.294, (<https://doi.org/10.1177/1754073916639667>). Copyright 2016 by The Author(s)

The traditional four-branch ability model of Emotional Intelligence (EI) has been instrumental in understanding how individuals process and use emotions. However, recent research highlights limitations in this model, particularly in the domains of Perceiving Emotions and Facilitating Thought, and calls for updates to better reflect the complexity of EI (Mayer et al., 2024).

Mayer et al. (2024) challenge the traditional four-area EI model, arguing that it oversimplifies complex emotional processes. They propose a more nuanced

understanding, particularly for the domains of Perceiving Emotions and Facilitating Thought.

The Perceiving Emotions domain, which focuses on recognizing emotions in oneself and others, is now understood to be more multifaceted than previously believed. Recent findings suggest that this ability is multidimensional. For instance, recognizing emotions in faces may involve distinct cognitive and emotional processes compared to recognizing emotions expressed in music, art, or abstract designs. These distinctions imply that perceiving emotions is not a singular ability but encompasses a range of specialized skills, each shaped by the context or medium through which emotions are conveyed (Mayer et al., 2024).

Similarly, the Facilitating Thought domain, traditionally described as using emotions to guide thinking and decision-making, is undergoing significant reconceptualization. Researchers now propose a broader focus, referred to as Connecting Emotional Features. This updated perspective emphasizes the dynamic interplay between emotions, sensory experiences (e.g., visual or auditory inputs), and contextual factors (e.g., environmental or situational cues). Instead of framing emotions solely as tools for cognitive enhancement, the revised framework highlights their integrative role in shaping perception, judgment, and memory. (Mayer et al., 2024)

In contrast, the domains of Understanding Emotions and Managing Emotions remain robust across studies. However, certain tasks, particularly those related to facilitation, remain unclassified and require further exploration (Mayer et al., 2024).

#### **2.4.2 The Mix Models**

Mixed models of emotional intelligence integrate both ability-based and trait-based elements. Among the most notable are the models proposed by Bar-On and Goleman. Bar-On's framework emphasizes theoretical constructs, whereas Goleman's model is recognized for its practical applications (Kanesan & Fauzan, 2019).

### **2.4.2.1 Goleman's Model**

Goleman's first emotional intelligence (EI) model was introduced in the 1998 Harvard Business Review article, "What Makes a Leader?". The model comprised five key dimensions: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. Later that year, Goleman expanded upon these dimensions in his book *Working with Emotional Intelligence*, offering comprehensive explanations and detailing 25 related competencies. (Goleman, 2020)

In 2001, Daniel Goleman and Cary Cherniss refined Goleman's EI model in their book *The Emotionally Intelligent Workplace*. This updated framework was based on statistical analyses conducted in 2000 by Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee. The revised model consolidated 25 competencies into 20 and reduced the original five dimensions to four. Motivation and Self-Regulation were merged into Emotional Self-Management, resulting in a model with four dimensions and 18 competencies. (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Goleman, 2020)

Following the publication of *Emotional Intelligence*, Goleman conducted an extensive analysis of competence models across approximately 100 organizations to determine the relative importance of distinguishing competencies based on IQ (e.g., analytical reasoning or technical skills) versus those based on EI. The findings revealed that, across various roles and organizational levels, EI was twice as important as cognitive ability in distinguishing top performers. Notably, the importance of EI increased with organizational hierarchy. For C-suite leadership roles, 80–90%, and in some cases up to 100%, of the distinguishing competencies identified by organizations were based on EI. (Goleman et al, 2017)

Building on this analysis, Goleman and Richard Boyatzis reviewed the competencies used by companies to identify exceptional leaders. This led to a refinement of Goleman's EI model, reducing the 18 competencies to 12 while maintaining the model's four primary domain as showing in Figure (2.1). (Goleman et al, 2017)



Figure (2.2) Goleman Twelve Competencies Model

Note. From Emotional Intelligence, by D. Goleman, 2020, p. 15, Bloomsbury Publishing. Copyright 2020 by Bloomsbury Publishing.

Goleman et al. (2017) affirm that Ei is a different kind of smart and it is crucial for achieving great performance, especially in leadership roles also state that EI is focuses on managing own emotions and building strong relationships with others. Moreover, they emphasize on the importance of the competencies, argue that Competencies can be divided into two types:

1-Threshold Competencies: These are the basic requirements for securing a job. For instance, IQ serves as a threshold competence, as it demonstrates the cognitive ability needed to handle the complexity of a position. However, once hired, most employees within a workplace possess similar levels of cognitive ability, resulting in a “floor effect” for IQ.

2- Distinguishing Competencies: These go beyond basic requirements and are the factors that set outstanding performers apart from average ones.

#### **2.4.2.2 Bar-On Model**

Bar-On's Emotional-Social Intelligence (ESI) model, developed over 17 years, consists of two primary components: a theoretical framework and a psychometric assessment. The theoretical framework conceptualizes ESI as a set of emotional and social competencies that enable individuals to understand and express themselves, relate to others, and cope with daily challenges. The psychometric aspect is represented by the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), a tool designed to measure these competencies (Punia et al., 2015).

Bar-On developed his model of emotional and social intelligence to expand psychological assessment, drawing from his doctoral work on psychological well-being. Influenced by positive psychology, he shifted his focus from psychopathology to emotional intelligence, emphasizing it as a crucial component of positive psychology. His work was also inspired by Charles Darwin's 1872 study on the adaptive significance of emotional expression. (Bar-On, 2010)

In 1997, Bar-On introduced his initial model, which encompassed emotional, personal, and social abilities. While categorized under emotional intelligence (EI) models, his approach is broader and more inclusive, integrating both social and emotional intelligence. The model includes 15 factors theoretically grouped into five broader conceptual categories: 1- Intrapersonal Skills 2- Interpersonal Skills 3-Adaptability 4-Stress Management 5-General Mood. (Fernández-Berrocal & Extremera, 2006)

In 2000, Bar-On published a refined version of the ESI model, reorganizing its components into two distinct categories:

a) **Constituent Competencies:** Specific skills and abilities related to emotional intelligence, including self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, empathy, interpersonal relationships, problem-solving, flexibility, reality testing, stress tolerance, and impulse control.

b) **Facilitating Factors:** Underlying characteristics that support the development and application of constituent competencies, including independence, self-actualization, social responsibility, optimism, and happiness. (Kanesan& Fauzan,2019)

The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), first conceptualized in 1982 and published in 1997, consists of 133 items organized into 15 scales across five meta-factors. It was the first emotional intelligence measure published by a psychological test publisher and was reviewed in the *Mental Measurements Yearbook*, confirming its validity and reliability (Bar-On, 2006).

Since then, the EQ-I has been widely adopted, translated into over 30 languages, and used globally. Additional versions include: Bar-On EQ-360™ (2003) for multi-rater assessments and the Bar-On EQ-i:YV (2000) a youth version for children and adolescents, endorsed by the University of Oxford and recommended for use in UK schools. (Bar-on, 2006)

A revised version, EQ-I 2.0 was later released by Multi-Health Systems to modernize the language while preserving the original model's structure (Stein et al., 2011).

### **2.4.3 The Trait Model**

British psychologists Petrides, Furnham, and Frederickson argue that emotional factors are not cognitive abilities and, therefore, should not be classified as “intelligence.” Their research conceptualizes emotional intelligence (EI) as a personality trait rather than an ability. Although they prefer the term “emotional self-efficacy,” they continue to use “emotional intelligence” to maintain connection with the existing EI literature. They emphasize that emotional experiences are inherently subjective, making self-report instruments more appropriate for measuring EI traits compared to abilities, which can be observed and measured objectively (Peltier, 2011).

Unlike traditional EI models, the trait model identifies distinct facets reflecting self-perceptions in various emotional and social domains. These include adaptability, assertiveness, emotion perception and regulation, stress management, and optimism (Peltier, 2011).

The trait model composed of fifteen emotion-related facets grouped into four factors include: well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability (Petrides, 2009).

Petrides (2009) consistently emphasized that EI should be considered a personality trait tied to self-perceived abilities rather than a form of intelligence. However the trait model has faced criticism for its classification as a personality construct. Critics argue that EI shares key characteristics with cognitive intelligence, particularly its role in processing emotional information and solving problems. Additionally, EI has been shown to develop with age, mirroring the developmental patterns of intelligence. In contrast, personality traits are generally stable over time (Kanesan & Fauzan, 2019).

## **2.5 Stress Concept**

The term stress has been in use for over 500 years (McShane & Von Glinow, 2017). “stress” term originates from the Latin word *stringere*, meaning “to draw tight.” In the 14<sup>th</sup> century, it referred to adversity or hardship. By the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> centuries, during periods of scientific and industrial progress, “stress,” along with “strain” and “resilience,” entered the language of physical sciences, particularly engineering, to describe the properties of physical materials. (Ross, 2020)

In the 1930s, Hans Selye, often regarded as the “father of stress research,” formalized the concept with his General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS), a three-stage model of stress response. The first stage, the alarm reaction, triggers an automatic physiological response to perceived threats. This stage initially reduces energy levels and coping effectiveness. The second stage, resistance, involves the activation of mechanisms that boost energy and coping responses, during which the body diverts resources from non-essential functions, such as the immune system, to address the stressor (McShane & Von Glinow, 2017).

This redirection explains why prolonged stress can increase vulnerability to illness. If the stress persists, individuals may enter the third stage, exhaustion, where the body’s resistance is depleted, leading to significant physical and psychological risks (McShane & Von Glinow, 2017). Moreover, Hans Selye was the first to differentiate between two forms of stress: eustress, which referred to good stress, and distress, which referred to bad stress. (Gunasekra & Perera, 2023)

Although most individuals resolve stress before reaching the exhaustion stage, frequent or prolonged exposure can result in serious health problems over time. (McShane & Von Glinow, 2017)

Defining stress is challenging due to its varied conceptualizations across disciplines. It is commonly understood as a stimulus, response, or interaction (Cooper et al., 2001). The following points outline the major approaches:

1. Response-Based Definitions focus on stress as the body's reaction to demands, rooted in physiological research like Selye's General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS).
2. Stimulus-Based Definitions define stress as external forces (stressors) that disrupt equilibrium, such as noise or heat. However, this approach overlooks individual differences in perception.
3. Interactional Approaches describe stress as the relationship between a stimulus and a response, acknowledging both environmental and individual factors but lacking depth in explaining stress dynamics.
4. Transactional Models emphasize stress as a dynamic and ongoing transaction between the individual and their environment. This perspective integrates cognitive appraisal and coping processes, highlighting stress as relational. Stress occurs when demands exceed available resources, requiring adaptation and disrupting equilibrium. (Cooper et al., 2001)

Stressors can be categorized by their nature: sensory (e.g., extremes of temperature, noise, odours), cognitive-emotional (e.g., fear, ambiguity, threat), and physiological (e.g., illness, drugs, or alcohol). These stressors accumulate, pushing individuals toward or beyond their tolerance levels, potentially leading to stress responses. (Stranks, 2005)

## **2.6 Job Stress Concept**

Job stress is considered a subset of the broader concept of stress and is frequently referred to as occupational stress, work stress, or workplace stress, all describing reactions to job-

related demands or pressures (Gunasekera & Perera, 2023). Definitions in the literature approach job stress from diverse perspectives, highlighting aspects such as workplace dynamics, job environment, and performance. Despite these variations, most definitions share three essential components: the output (feelings, reactions, or surpassing individual capacities), the input (causes, reasons or triggers of stress), and a clear connection to the work context (Gunasekera & Perera, 2023).

For example, Dipboye (2018) defines stress as “the total experience of specific physical and/or psychological demands on a person that exceeds the resources of the person to deal with the circumstances, leading to unusual psychological, physiological, and/or behavioural responses and long-term negative consequences for health, performance, and well-being” (p. 214). Jeon et al. (2022) further describe job stress as “the total amount of negative psychological responses that workers experience during performance” (p. 5). Additionally, Gunasekera and Perera (2023) explain job stress as a “reaction, to pressure or demands, as a result of a person’s occupation ” (p. 109).

## **2.7 Job Stress Theories**

### **2.7.1 The ISR Model**

The ISR Model, developed by the University of Michigan’s Institute for Social Research in the 1960s, was one of the first models to explicitly address workplace stress. It outlines a process involving several steps that influence an individual’s experience of stress at work. The first step focuses on the objective work environment, encompassing factors like temperature, noise, work hours, and physical space. The second step considers the psychological environment, where an employee’s perception of these factors determines whether they are viewed as stressors, leading to cognitive, behavioural, or physiological activation. Over time, this activation can result in strain outcomes such as burnout, depression, reduced performance, or withdrawal. (Sliter& Yuan, 2015)

The ISR Model acknowledges that individual differences, including demographic traits, personality, and interpersonal relationships, influence perceptions and responses to stressors. While the model has not been empirically tested, it has served as a foundational framework for workplace stress research, influencing both earlier models like the Job

Demands-Control (JDC) model and more contemporary ones like the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model. This foundational work has significantly shaped the theoretical development of stress models. (Sliter& Yuan, 2015)

### **2.7.2 The Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory**

The theory adopts an ecological perspective on stress by integrating environmental and internal processes through the lens of resources. Resources encompass objects, personal traits, conditions, and energies that individuals value or utilize to achieve desired goals. The theory posits that individuals are motivated to acquire, retain, and safeguard these resources, with psychological strain arising when resources are threatened, lost, or fail to produce expected outcomes. Notably, resource loss exerts a greater impact than resource gain, often resulting in cycles of loss or gain depending on resource availability (Sliter& Yuan, 2015).

The theory provides a dynamic perspective on stress, addressing both environmental and personal factors, and has been widely applied to research on workplace and traumatic stress despite critiques of its broad scope. (Sliter& Yuan, 2015)

### **2.7.8 Effort–Reward Imbalance (ERI) Model**

The Effort–Reward Imbalance (ERI) model, proposed by Johannes Siegrist in 1996, provides a framework for understanding how psychosocial working conditions contribute to stress and its adverse health outcomes. The model highlights the reciprocal relationship in work, where employees invest effort and expect corresponding rewards. When this balance is disrupted, particularly when efforts exceed rewards, distress and negative health outcomes can result. (Schonfeld & Chang, 2017)

Rooted in foundational sociological theories (e.g., Homans, 1958; Gouldner, 1960; Mead, 1934), Siegrist’s model challenges the idea that cognitive appraisal is necessary to perceive stress. Instead, it argues that stress-related information can be processed unconsciously through neurobiological pathways, intensifying emotional and physical responses (Schonfeld & Chang, 2017).

Work-related efforts in this model arise from two sources: extrinsic effort, driven by external job demands, and intrinsic effort, stemming from personal motivations. Rewards, on the other hand, encompass both tangible elements (e.g., salary, career opportunities) and intangible elements (e.g., recognition, self-esteem). (Schonfeld & Chang, 2017)

In 2004, Siegrist and colleagues updated the ERI model to enhance its applicability. Physical demands were added to the effort dimension to account for their significance in certain types of jobs, complementing the psychological demands already included. Another significant addition was the concept of work-related commitment, often described as overcommitment, which reflects an individual's intrinsic drive to succeed. Overcommitted individuals are particularly at risk of health issues due to their tendency to exert disproportionate effort compared to the rewards they receive, further exacerbating the negative impacts of an imbalanced effort-reward relationship. (Schonfeld & Chang, 2017)

### **2.7.9 Demand-Control-Support Model (DCS)**

The Demand–Control (DC) Model, introduced by Robert Karasek in 1979, offers a framework for understanding how workplace conditions affect mental health (Schonfeld & Chang, 2017). The model focuses on two primary dimensions: job demands and decision latitude.

- Job demands refer to psychological workload factors such as task complexity and work pace.
- Decision latitude consists of two components:
  1. Decision authority: Control over meaningful job-related decisions.
  2. Skill discretion: Opportunities to develop and apply a variety of skills (Schonfeld & Chang, 2017).

According to Karasek, jobs with high demands and low decision latitude are classified as high-strain jobs, which are linked to stress, psychological distress, and adverse health outcomes. Workers in such roles often lack the control needed to manage demands

effectively, leading to unresolved, harmful residual strain. Over time, chronic exposure to these stressors may disrupt the body's stress regulation systems, increasing the risk of depression and cardiovascular disease (Schonfeld & Chang, 2017).

In contrast, active jobs (high demands with high decision latitude) promote job satisfaction due to opportunities for accomplishment and learning. Low-strain jobs (low demands with high latitude) support mental well-being, while passive jobs (low demands with low latitude), although less stressful, may lead to dissatisfaction and learned helplessness over time (Schonfeld & Chang, 2017).

Karasek proposed that decision latitude acts as a buffer, reducing the negative effects of job demands on psychological health. However, some researchers debate whether job demands and control interact in this way or exert independent additive effects on mental health outcomes (Schonfeld & Chang, 2017).

In 1981, Karasek and colleagues expanded the DC model to examine its relevance to cardiovascular disease (CVD). This extension laid the foundation for the Demand–Control–Support (DCS) Model, developed by Johnson, Hall, and Theorell in 1989. The DCS model incorporated social support—or its absence—as an additional factor influencing both CVD and mental health. DCS also known as the iso-strain model, it highlights the role of coworker and supervisor support in mitigating workplace stress and enhancing well-being. The inclusion of social support as a psychosocial workplace factor was a pivotal development, acknowledging its potential to buffer stress and improve mental health outcomes. (Schonfeld & Chang, 2017)

#### **2.7.10 The Person–Environment (P–E) Fit Theory**

The concept of Person–Environment (P–E) Fit emerged from the foundational work of Kurt Lewin, who proposed that behaviour results from the interaction between personal and environmental factors. This idea laid the groundwork for researchers like French et al. (1974), who formalized the P–E fit concept, highlighting that both objective and subjective perceptions of fit significantly influence stress and job satisfaction. Over time, theoretical expansions by scholars like Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) introduced a multidimensional

approach, identifying distinct types of fit, including person-job, person-organization, and person-group fit, to address the complexities of workplace alignment. (as cited in Cooman & Vleugels, 2022)

P–E Fit theory, rooted in Kurt Lewin’s principle that behaviour is a function of both the person (P) and the environment I, suggests that a good fit leads to better performance, satisfaction, and health, while misfit results in stress, dissatisfaction, and health problems. A good fit occurs when job conditions match an individual’s abilities, values, and needs. For example, a job that aligns with a person’s skills and offers meaningful rewards creates motivation and engagement. Conversely, when there is a mismatch, such as overwhelming demands or conflicting values, individuals may feel stress and dissatisfaction. (Cooman & Vleugels, 2022)

#### **2.7.10 Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) Model**

Introduced by Demerouti et al. (2001), the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model classifies job characteristics into two primary dimensions: job demands and job resources. This model expands on earlier demand-control frameworks by broadly defining resources to include factors such as autonomy, social support, and personal characteristics like optimism and self-efficacy (Perrewé & McAllister, 2024).

Initially, the JD-R model focused on burnout as its primary outcome, particularly emphasizing exhaustion and disengagement. Job demands were defined as “those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs”. In contrast, job resources were described as “those physical, social or organizational aspects of the job that may do any of the following: (a) be functional in achieving work goals; (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; I stimulate personal growth and development” (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501).

Later refinements by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) expanded the model to include engagement—comprising vigor, dedication, and absorption—as a positive outcome. These updates also highlighted the dynamic interplay between demands and resources.

Furthermore, personal resources, such as self-efficacy and resilience, were integrated into the model, illustrating their roles as antecedents, mediators, and moderators influencing work outcomes (as cited in Taris & Schaufeli, 2015).

Recent advancements in the JD-R framework distinguish between challenge stressors and hindrance stressors (Taris & Schaufeli, 2015). Challenge stressors, such as high workload and responsibility, are seen as growth-promoting, often associated with increased motivation and performance. Hindrance stressors, such as role conflict and job insecurity, are viewed as goal-obstructing, negatively impacting motivation and performance. While this distinction has been widely adopted, some researchers question its predictive utility, emphasizing the need for further investigation (Perrewé & McAllister, 2024).

One of the model's key insights lies in its acknowledgment of individual differences. Employees' responses to job demands vary depending on their available resources and coping strategies (Perrewé & McAllister, 2024). The current JD-R model proposes two primary processes: (1) a health impairment process, where excessive job demands contribute to stress and health issues, and (2) a motivational process, where abundant job resources enhance motivation and job performance (Taris & Schaufeli, 2015).

## **2.8 Job Stress Causes**

Job stress is a global issue affecting employee well-being, productivity, and job satisfaction while imposing substantial financial costs on organizations through decreased efficiency and increased healthcare expenditures. It arises from various factors, including excessive workload, job insecurity, lack of control, interpersonal conflicts, and time pressures. These stressors often result from insufficient staffing, organizational changes, unrealistic expectations, poor communication, and limited autonomy (Vallasamy et al., 2023).

Schonfeld and Chang (2017) identify several psychosocial factors influencing occupational stress, including organizational justice, job insecurity, long working hours, shift work, and workplace social stressors.

- Organizational justice refers to fairness in decision-making (procedural justice) and respectful treatment by supervisors (relational justice). Both forms are linked to mental health outcomes such as depression and anxiety, although research findings are sometimes inconsistent.
- Job insecurity, often stemming from economic or organizational changes, is a significant stressor associated with depression, anxiety, and increased alcohol use. Its impact varies by gender and region.
- Long working hours have been connected to depression and burnout, but findings remain inconsistent, warranting further longitudinal studies.
- Shift work, especially night or rotating shifts, disrupts circadian rhythms and social relationships, leading to symptoms such as depression and irritability. While nursing studies show that extended exposure to such schedules increases psychological distress, these findings may not apply to all occupations.
- Stressful occupational events, such as organizational changes, and social stressors, like conflicts or unfair treatment, indirectly contribute to depression through mechanisms like irritation.

Stranks (2005) emphasizes that work stress stems from diverse sources that affect individuals differently:

- Task-related factors, such as mental overload, boredom, or excessive demands.
- Interpersonal factors, including conflicts, abuse, or harassment.
- Role ambiguity, where expectations are unclear.
- Role conflict, involving contradictory demands.
- Lack of recognition for accomplishments.
- Personal threats, such as fears of redundancy or dismissal.

- Environmental factors, like poor lighting, extreme temperatures, noise, or cramped and unsanitary workspaces.

## **2.9 Job Stress Implications**

### **2.9.1 Effects on Individuals**

Stress triggers emotional, cognitive, behavioural, and physical changes. Emotionally, it leads to tiredness, anxiety, and lack of motivation. Cognitively, it increases errors and accidents. Behaviourally, it causes irritability, poor relationships, absenteeism, and unhealthy habits like smoking or excessive eating. Physically, it contributes to headaches, heart disease, weakened immunity, and other ailments. (Stranks,2005)

Vallasamy et al.,2023 affirm that job stress leading to physical health issues like fatigue and cardiovascular problems, mental health challenges such as anxiety and burnout, more over reduced job satisfaction and motivation.

### **2.9.2 Effects on Job Performance**

Stress adversely affects productivity and decision-making. Factors such as repetitive tasks, poor working conditions, isolated work environments, and managerial harassment lower efficiency and morale. Employees who feel undervalued are more likely to miss deadlines, demonstrate poor time management, and exhibit absenteeism, directly reducing organizational performance. (Stranks, 2005)

### **2.9.3 Effects on Organizations**

Organizations face reduced performance and increased issues like absenteeism, staff turnover, client complaints, and workplace accidents. Aggressive workplace cultures and poorly managed appraisals exacerbate stress, leading to low employee commitment and higher liability for stress-induced injuries. Failure to address stress results in decreased motivation, productivity, and industrial relations, highlighting the need for informed stress management to maintain organizational health and efficiency. (Stranks,2005)

Vallasamy et al.2023 further emphasize that job stress results in decreased productivity, innovation, and employee retention, as well as higher absenteeism and healthcare costs.

Addressing job stress requires a combination of strategies, such as mindfulness, flexible work options, improved communication, and greater decision-making autonomy.

(Vallasamy et al., 2023)

## **2.10 Job Satisfaction Origin and Definitions**

The exploration of job satisfaction originated in the late 1920s and early 1930s, influenced by the industrial and employment crises of the Great Depression. Early studies, such as Fisher and Hanna's *The Dissatisfied Worker* (1931), highlighted emotional maladjustments as primary causes of job dissatisfaction. (Judge et al., 2020)

By the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century, significant advancements in both conceptual and methodological approaches revolutionized the field. Researchers critiqued earlier studies (e.g., Brayfield & Crockett, 1955) and improved measurement tools, focusing on components of job satisfaction (e.g., Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; Kunin, 1955). (Judge et al., 2020)

During the 1950s, the effects of job satisfaction on performance and turnover became key areas of study. A major theoretical contribution was Herzberg's two-factor theory (Herzberg et al., 1959), which differentiated factors causing satisfaction from those causing dissatisfaction. (Judge et al., 2020)

A universally accepted definition of job satisfaction does not exist, as its meaning varies among individuals based on personal characteristics, needs, values, and expectations. Additionally, organizational differences—such as working conditions, job attributes, and growth opportunities—contribute to its variability. (Hasan et al., 2017)

In 1935 Hoppock was the first to introduce the concept of job satisfaction. He describes it as a Psychological and physiological reactions to the work environment that reflect individuals' subjective feelings about their work situation. Following Hoppock, many scholars explored and defined job satisfaction (Cheng, 2024). One of the most accepted definitions of job satisfaction is proposed by Locke (1976), argued that job satisfaction is “a

pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences". (as cited in Hasan et al., 2017, p.97)

However, Definitions of job satisfaction can be grouped into three primary categories:

**Comprehensive Definitions:** These definitions describe job satisfaction as a broad concept reflecting an employee's overall attitude and emotional response to their job and work environment. They do not focus on specific dimensions or causes. Job satisfaction is also viewed as the gap between employees' expectations and what they actually receive, such as salary or work conditions (Cheng, 2024).

**Referential Definitions:** These definitions emphasize employees' subjective interpretations of job characteristics based on their personal frame of reference (Cheng, 2024).

**Definition of Dimensionality:** This approach views job satisfaction as an emotional response to specific dimensions of work (Cheng, 2024). For instance, Smith (1969) identified five dimensions (job itself, promotion, supervision, salary, and coworkers), and later Vroom (1964) expanded this to seven, including organization, job content, and work environment (as cited in Cheng, 2024).

## **2.11 Job Satisfaction Importance**

Job satisfaction is a critical factor influencing organizational and individual outcomes. It improves performance, encourages positive behaviors, and reduces withdrawal tendencies, with its effects mediated by individual and situational factors. This highlights the importance of cultivating job satisfaction to enhance both organizational success and employee well-being (Judge & Glerum, 2020). Satisfied employees generally hold positive perceptions and emotions about their jobs (Robbins & Judge, 2023).

Robbins and Judge (2023) argue that organizations prioritizing employee satisfaction achieve higher productivity, stronger customer relationships, and a healthier workplace culture, ultimately driving long-term success.

Key outcomes associated with job satisfaction include:

- **Job Performance:** Research shows a strong positive link between job satisfaction and performance, with satisfied employees contributing more effectively to organizational goals (Robbins & Judge, 2023).
- **Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB):** Satisfied employees are more likely to engage in OCB, such as helping colleagues, going beyond job requirements, and fostering trust within the workplace (Robbins & Judge, 2023).
- **Customer Satisfaction:** Satisfied employees in service roles directly enhance customer satisfaction and loyalty. Companies like Zappos exemplify the importance of aligning employee satisfaction with customer experiences (Robbins & Judge, 2023).
- **Life Satisfaction:** Job satisfaction is deeply tied to life satisfaction, as work is a significant part of many individuals' lives. Fulfilling work enhances overall happiness, while dissatisfaction or unemployment reduces it (Robbins & Judge, 2023).

Similarly, Jiang et al. (2016) assert that job satisfaction leads to several positive outcomes, including higher retention, stronger employee commitment, improved performance, and increased organizational citizenship behaviors. Silitonga et al. (2020) reinforce this idea, emphasizing that job satisfaction impacts organizational commitment in the workplace, fostering greater enthusiasm among employees to accomplish organizational objectives.

The significance of job satisfaction is also highlighted by the negative consequences of job dissatisfaction, such as a lack of loyalty, higher absenteeism rates, and an increased occurrence of accidents (Aziri, 2011). Ntimba et al. (2021) further argue that dissatisfaction leads to withdrawal from organizational commitment, reduced productivity, higher turnover intentions, voluntary departures, and a loss of trust in employers. This erosion of trust severely undermines morale and motivation, further harming organizational effectiveness (Ntimba et al. 2021).

## **2.12 Job Satisfaction Determinants**

Job satisfaction arises from a combination of job conditions, personality traits, and perceptions of pay. Intrinsic job characteristics, such as variety, training, independence, and control, are key contributors, alongside social factors like feedback, interdependence, and coworker interactions (Robbins & Judge, 2023).

A supportive and inclusive workplace, free from discrimination, is essential for maintaining satisfaction and avoiding negative outcomes (Robbins & Judge, 2023). Safe and comfortable work environments are critical to employee well-being, as they promote mental and physical health, which ultimately enhances job satisfaction. Transparent and inclusive policies foster a sense of fairness and empower employees, contributing to greater satisfaction even in demanding roles. Additional benefits, such as healthcare and retirement plans, go beyond monetary compensation to fulfil employees' broader expectations, further improving satisfaction (Ntimba et al., 2021).

Relationships with coworkers and supervisors also play a vital role. Positive interpersonal relationships encourage collaboration and improve task performance, while conflicts can create stress and reduce workplace efficiency. Similarly, the quality of leadership has a significant impact on job satisfaction. Strong leader-employee relationships are particularly important in individualistic cultures, while alignment with teams or supervisors is emphasized in collectivist cultures (Robbins & Judge, 2023; Ntimba et al., 2021).

Personality traits and individual differences also influence job satisfaction. Employees with positive core self-evaluations (CSEs), who value their competence and self-worth, report higher satisfaction. Likewise, intelligent individuals tend to thrive in complex, intellectually stimulating roles, which enhance their satisfaction. Alignment between personal interests and job roles further boosts satisfaction (Robbins & Judge, 2023).

While pay is often discussed as a factor, its influence is relatively limited. Pay discrepancies can reduce satisfaction, but income has a weak correlation with satisfaction once basic living needs are met. In contrast, job security consistently emerges as a critical determinant of employee satisfaction. The assurance of continued employment mitigates

anxiety and fosters greater engagement and performance. Furthermore, employees who feel acknowledged and valued for their contributions tend to exhibit stronger organizational commitment and elevated performance levels (Robbins & Judge, 2023).

İpşirli and Namal (2023) emphasize that positive relationships with colleagues and supervisors, flexible working hours, recognition, and secure employment significantly enhance job satisfaction. Conversely, high workloads, stress, and poor working conditions are major drivers of dissatisfaction. Similarly, Aziri (2011) identifies five key factors influencing satisfaction: the nature of work, pay and benefits, relationships with coworkers, supervisor attitudes, and opportunities for advancement.

Hoppock (1935) argued that job satisfaction is primarily influenced by the nature of the job and the surrounding environment, including job diversity and management style. Vroom (1962) highlighted job characteristics and promotion opportunities as key factors. Seashore and Taber (1975) categorized job satisfaction determinants into 12 types, including demographic characteristics, perceptions, political environment, and the organizational internal environment. Personal factors such as gender and marital status also influence satisfaction, though their effects vary (as cited in Cheng, 2024).

Locke (1996) identified ten key factors affecting job satisfaction, including working conditions, coworker relationships, advancement opportunities, benefits, compensation, and recognition (as cited in Cheng, 2024).

## **2.13 Job Satisfaction Theories**

Theories of job satisfaction have evolved over time, offering frameworks to organize knowledge and guide action. While early discussions often cite Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, the roots can be traced back to Frederick W. Taylor's Scientific Management (1911), or Taylorism. Taylor portrayed humans as economic men, emphasizing money as the primary motivator for job satisfaction. (Hasan et al., 2017)

This perspective began to change with Elton Mayo and the Hawthorne Studies, which demonstrated that job satisfaction is influenced by factors beyond monetary rewards. These

include personal morale, positive relationships, and management practices that address individual and group behaviours through skills like motivation, counselling, leadership, and communication. (Hasan et al., 2017)

Employee job satisfaction has been extensively studied through key motivational theories, including Job Characteristics Theory, ERG Theory, Two-Factor Theory, and Equity Theory. These theories have considerable influence, both theoretically and practically, in the fields of business and education management, serving as essential frameworks for analysing job satisfaction (Cheng, 2024).

Additionally, Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs remains the most frequently cited theory in discussions of motivation and satisfaction (Hasan et al., 2017). Vroom's Expectancy Theory, on the other hand, is often regarded as the most comprehensive framework for explaining motivation and its relationship to job satisfaction (Patricia & Asoba, 2021).

### **2.13.1 Job Characteristics Theory**

Hackman and Laura proposed the modern Job Characteristics Theory, which posits that employees' responses to their jobs are shaped by their perceptions of job characteristics rather than the objective attributes of the job. According to the theory, clearer and well-defined tasks contribute to greater job satisfaction (Muwanguzi & Mugimu, 2022).

The model identifies five core job characteristics of skill variety: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback. These characteristics influence three critical psychological states: experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of actual results. Together, these states drive work outcomes, such as job satisfaction, motivation, and reduced absenteeism. (Muwanguzi & Mugimu 2022)

### **2.13.2 Maslow's Model**

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943), Drawing from humanistic psychology and clinical experiences, Maslow proposed that motivational needs are arranged in a hierarchy, where satisfying one level no longer motivates, prompting activation of the next higher level to sustain motivation and satisfaction. He identified five levels: physiological, safety, social,

esteem, and self-actualization needs. Individual satisfaction depends on the importance of these needs and the extent to which they are fulfilled. Maslow's theory is considered foundational for job satisfaction research, providing a basis for developing early theories in this field. (Hasan et al., 2017)

### **2.13.3 ERG Theory**

Building on Maslow's hierarchy theory, Alderfer introduced the ERG. According to this theory the needs categorizes into three groups: Existence (survival and security), Relatedness (social connections and acceptance), and Growth (personal development and self-worth). In contrast to Maslow, ERG Theory suggests that needs can exist simultaneously and in varying orders depending on the individual. It also highlights that unmet higher-level needs may cause employees to regress to lower-level needs, potentially reducing job satisfaction.

The theory emphasizes the practical application for managers to focus on employee growth and higher-level needs, adapting to changing needs over time to maintain motivation and satisfaction. (Cheng, 2024)

### **2.13.4 Herzberg Two Factors Theory**

Herzberg formulated a work motivation theory through a study involving 200 accountants and engineers in Pittsburgh, utilizing the critical incident method. Participants were asked to identify factors that made them feel good regards their jobs ("motivators") or bad ("hygiene factors") about their jobs (Hasan et al., 2017).

The theory classifies workplace factors into two groups:

- **Motivators:** These factors, including achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, and growth, lead to job satisfaction and improved productivity.
  - **Hygiene Factors:** These factors, such as company policies, salary, and supervision, prevent job dissatisfaction but are insufficient for creating satisfaction.
- (Muwanguzi & Mugimu, 2022)

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory is widely regarded as a valuable framework for studying job satisfaction, with applications in fields such as education and law enforcement. However, the theory has faced criticism for its lack of empirical validation, particularly due to its assumption that all employees respond uniformly to motivators and hygiene factors. Additionally, it lacks a clear methodology for measuring the factors that contribute to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Hasan et al., 2017).

### **2.13.5 Equity Theory**

Adams' Equity Theory (1963) proposes that job satisfaction arises from employees' perceptions of fairness, which are shaped by comparing the ratio of their inputs (e.g., time, effort, commitment) to outcomes (e.g., salary, recognition, job security) against those of others or their own past experiences (Muwanguzi & Mugimu, 2022). This comparison influences their judgments and attitudes toward their current work situation. The theory emphasizes that factors such as compensation, job content, advancement opportunities, management practices, workgroups, and working conditions play a significant role in shaping individual satisfaction (Cheng, 2024).

### **2.13.6 Vroom's Expectancy Theory**

Vroom's Expectancy Theory (1964) proposes that individuals are motivated to work based on anticipated outcomes and their belief that their efforts will help them achieve their goals. The theory is built on three key components:

- **Valence:** The value an individual places on a desired outcome or reward, shaped by personal needs and goals.
- **Expectancy:** The belief that effort will lead to effective performance.
- **Instrumentality:** The perception that successful performance will result in the desired reward.

This theory emphasizes that motivation arises from the interaction of these factors—how much a reward is valued (valence), the belief that effort leads to performance (expectancy), and the confidence that performance yields the reward (instrumentality). It underscores the

importance of aligning rewards with individual values and needs to effectively influence behaviour. (Patricia & Asoba, 2021)

## **2.14 The Palestinian Public Sector**

The establishment of most government departments in the civil service coincided with the formation of the Palestinian National Authority (PNA) in 1994. During this period, the PNA began constructing public institutions in Palestine. Among the vital sectors is the civil service sector, which comprises integrated and interconnected elements, including legislation, institutions with their production and human resource components, and the relationships between them (Prime Minister's Office, 2021).

The civil service sector encompasses various institutions and government departments. The Palestinian civil service model adopts a comprehensive approach, including professionals such as doctors, nurses, school teachers, university professors, construction engineers, and agricultural experts within the central public administration. However, employees of local government institutions, such as municipalities and local councils, are not considered part of the civil service and operate under separate regulations (Prime Minister's Office, 2021).

Supervision of government departments affiliated with the civil service operates across five distinct levels:

1. The Palestinian Legislative Council.
2. The Presidency Institution.
3. The Palestinian Council of Ministers.
4. The General Personnel Council.
5. Government departments affiliated with the civil service (Prime Minister's Office, 2021).

Following its establishment, the Palestinian National Authority worked to unify the various legal systems that had been in force before 1994, including those governing the civil service.

Initially, the Civil Service Law of 1996 was not published in the Palestinian Official Gazette, rendering it without legal force. However, in 1998, the Palestinian Legislative Council issued Civil Service Law No. (4) of 1998, which was gradually implemented starting in October 1998, albeit with delays due to various challenges. In 2005, amendments were introduced under the amended Civil Service Law No. (4) of 2005 (Prime Minister's Office, 2021).

At the end of 2011, the total number of public employees, including both civilian and military personnel, was approximately 152,098, with their salaries amounting to about 1.71 billion dollars. Women comprised 40% of the civil service workforce, and employees were distributed across seven categories. Notably, Palestine ranks within the lower range of civil service employees relative to population size compared to other countries. By the end of 2019, the total number of employees had decreased to 85,945, spread across 86 ministerial and non-ministerial government departments, with 68% of these employees working in the Ministries of Education and Health (Prime Minister's Office, 2021).

#### **2.14.1 The General Authority of Civil Affairs:**

The General Authority of Civil Affairs (GACA) traces its historical roots to the Oslo Accords signed between the Palestinian and Israeli sides in 1994. Article 10 of the agreement, under the title "Palestinian-Israeli Joint Liaison Committee," laid the groundwork for its establishment (General Authority of Civil Affairs, 2023).

The Civil Affairs Commission was officially formed on July 1, 1994, during the first ministerial formation. Its primary aim was to organize and coordinate civil affairs between the Palestinian National Authority (PNA) and its institutions (both governmental and non-governmental) and Palestinian citizens on one side, and the relevant Israeli authorities on the other. The commission sought to manage this relationship within the framework of an official Palestinian umbrella, ensuring alignment with signed agreements (General Authority for Civil Affairs, 2023).

Initially structured as a ministry, the General Authority for Civil Affairs operated in this capacity from 1994 until the formation of the ninth government in 2005. However, following the tenth government in 2006, the Israeli side refused to engage with civil affairs at that time.

This prompted the Office of the Palestinian President to transform the Civil Affairs from a ministry into a General Authority under Presidential Decree No. (7) of 2007, affiliating it directly with the President's office (General Authority for Civil Affairs, 2023).

The nature of GACA's work can be summarized as follows:

2. Acting as a Liaison: Serving as the primary link between the Palestinian National Authority and all Civil Authority institutions on the Israeli side.
3. Problem Resolution: Addressing various issues through available mechanisms and civil authorities transferred from the Israeli side to the Palestinian side since the establishment of the Authority.
4. Population Registration Supervision: Managing key registration files, including internal reunification, late registration, granting permits for humanitarian cases and official delegations, and arranging residency permits for investors.
5. Crossing and Border Management: Overseeing crossings such as the Rafah Crossing, Karama Crossing (Allenby), and Karni Wairez Crossing. GACA's liaison and coordination teams work to resolve daily issues faced by Palestinian citizens, alleviating burdens and facilitating smoother movement.
6. Goods Entry Coordination: Supervising the entry of goods into Palestinian areas, including essential items such as medicines, equipment, and grants provided to the Palestinian National Authority (General Authority for Civil Affairs, 2023).

## 2.15 Former Studies

This section summarizes and discusses prior research related to the present study and its key variables to identify gaps, guide further investigation, and highlight areas to avoid. Table (2.1) provides a detailed empirical literature review of these studies.

Table (2.1): Empirical Literature Review

#	The author	The title	Design	The population and the sample	The Tools	The Results
1	(Holder & Vaux, 1998)	African American professionals: Coping with occupational stress in predominantly White work environments.	Quantitative research	Human service and business. Sample size: 112 African American professionals	Survey questionnaires	The study revealed that: - -Stress was correlated positively with role ambiguity, role conflict, and personal discrimination. -Job satisfaction was significantly associated with routine work stressors, race-related work stressors, internal locus of control, and work-related social support. - Workplace spirituality and nonwork social support was not significantly related to job satisfaction. -No significant differences in the examined variables were found between different work settings or genders. - Limited support was found for the buffer model, which suggests that personal and social resources mitigate the impact of stressors on job satisfaction. Only a few instances showed moderation effects of personal and social resources
2	(Ahsan et al., 2009)	A Study of Job Stress on Job Satisfaction	Quantitative research	a public university academician.	Survey questionnaires	revealed a significant negative relationship between job stress and job satisfaction. Workload pressure, family and financial demands, role ambiguity, and

		among university Staff in Malaysia: Empirical Study		Klang Valley– Malaysia Sample size: 300		performance pressure were positively associated with job stress. However, relationships with others and management roles showed no significant impact on job stress.
3	(Khoury & Analoui,2010)	How Palestinian managers cope with stress.	Quantitative research	Privat and public besides NGO managers. Sample size: 310 employees	Survey questionnaires	The study identified several key findings regarding workp stress among Palestinian employees: -Employees with Type A personalities are more prone to stress. -Employees reported stress due to lack of recognition, limited management support, exclusio from decision-making, heavy workloads, and insufficient employer initiatives to manage stress. -Private sector employees experienced more stress compared to those in public or NG sectors.
4	(Brackett et al., 2010)	EMOTION-REGULATION ABILITY, BURNO AND JOB SATISFACTION AMONG BRITISH SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHE	Quantitative research	secondary school teachers in Kent, England. Sample size: 123 teachers.	Survey questionnaires	the findings revealed that emotion regulation ability significantly enhanced job satisfaction and personal accomplishment while reducing burnout, with principal support serving as a moderating factor.
5	(Rafiee et al., 2013)	Investigating the effect of job stress and emotional	Descriptive-analytic, base correlation	Registry Office in Arak city	Observation, interview,	The findings reveal that job stress impacts emotional, organizational, and moral intelligence but does not affect job performance. Additionally, while organizational and

		intelligence on job performance.		Sample size: 130 employees.	standard questionnaires	moral intelligence significantly influence job performance, emotional intelligence does not.
6	(Azhar& Hassar 2014)	Effect of emotional intelligence on employee's job satisfaction: A case of private bank in Karachi.	Quantitative research	private banks in Karachi Sample size:386 employees	Survey questionnaires	The findings, demonstrate that all constructs of emotional intelligence positively influence job satisfaction. The study concludes that emphasizing emotional intelligence enhances not only job satisfaction but also employee efficiency and effectiveness in their roles.
7	(Rashid et al., 2016)	Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Job Stress, Job – Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment among Bank Employees.	Quantitative research	(Government and private) banks of Multan, Punjab province, Pakistan. Sample size:330 bank employees	Survey questionnaires	The findings reveal that emotional intelligence significantly predicts job stress, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. It shows a positive correlation with organizational commitment, a negative correlation with job stress, and no correlation with job satisfaction.
8	(Miao et al., 2017)	A meta-analysis of emotional intelligence and work attitudes. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology.	Quantitative Research. Meta-analysis	-----	Data Source: Secondary (Previous studies)	The findings revealed that the dimensions of EI (ability EI, report EI, and mixed EI) and work attitudes, reporting significant positive effects on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions.
9	(Pecino et al., 2019)	Organizational Climate, Role Stress, and Public	Quantitative research	Spanish public sector employees Sample size: 442	Survey questionnaires	The study highlights that a positive organizational climate is associated with reduced role stress and burnout while enhancing job satisfaction and employee

		Employees' Job Satisfaction.				well-being. Additionally, it shows that role stress (role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload) contributes to higher burnout and lower job satisfaction, while burnout negatively impacts job -satisfaction.
10	(Safadi et al., 2019)	Life and Job Satisfaction Among Public-Sector Social Workers in the occupied Palestinian Territory	Quantitative research	Palestinian Public sector Sample size: 221 social workers	Survey questionnaires	The findings revealed that: - Life Satisfaction directly affected by job security. - Job Satisfaction as a Mediator: Organizational support and job stress impact life satisfaction indirectly by influencing job satisfaction.
11	(Angreni, & Ardana ,2020)	The Effect of Work Motivation and Work Stress on Job Satisfaction with Emotional Intelligence as a Moderating Variable in CV. Pondok Antik	Quantitative research	CV. Pondok Antik (contractor company) Sample size: 37 peoples	Questionnaires, interviews, observations.	The analysis revealed the following key findings: - Work Motivation Positively and significantly impacts job satisfaction. - Work Stress Negatively and significantly impacts job satisfaction. - Emotional Intelligence Positively and significantly impacts job – satisfaction. - EI moderates the relationship between work stress and job satisfaction, mitigating the negative effects of stress.

12	(Mérida-López & Extremera, 2020).	The Interplay of Emotional Intelligence Abilities and Work Engagement on Job Life Satisfaction: Which Emotional Abilities Matter Most for Secondary-School Teachers?	Quantitative research	secondary-school teachers Southern Spain. Sample size: 190 teachers .	Survey questionnaires	The findings revealed that emotion regulation ability (ERA) the only EI ability significantly associated with engagement, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction. Additionally, ERA moderated the relationship between work engagement both job and life satisfaction, amplifying the positive effect of work engagement on these outcomes.
13	(Suong & Tho, 2021)	Emotional Intelligence, Work Stress, Job Satisfaction, and Employee Creativity: A Critical Study on Vietnamese Universities.	Quantitative research	Vietnamese Universities lecturers Sample size: 207	Survey questionnaires	work stress negatively affects job satisfaction, while emotional intelligence has a positive effect on it. Additionally, both job satisfaction and emotional intelligence positively influence employee creativity.
14	(Mahadiputra & Piartrini, 2021)	The Moderating Role of Emotional Intelligence on the Relationship Among Job Stress, Organizational Justice and Counterproductive Behavior.	Quantitative research	Peppers Hotel, Bali Sample size: 71 employees	Survey questionnaires	The results show that emotional intelligence acts as a moderator, reducing the negative effects of work stress and organizational injustice on counterproductive work behaviours.
15	(Naseer et al., 2021)	Impact of role conflict and workload on	Quantitative research	degree holder nurse of diverse hospitals	Survey questionnaires	The results indicate that workload and role conflict have a significant negative correlation with job satisfaction.

		job satisfaction: moderating role of perceived organizational support.		and nursing colleges of public hospitals Pakistan. Sample size: 300 nurses		
16	(Sirhan et al., 2021)	Assessment of job satisfaction and job-related stress Among pharmacists in the West Bank, Palestine	Quantitative research	Pharmacists registered and practicing in Palestine. Sample size :554 Pharmacists	Survey questionnaires	The findings revealed: -overall level of job satisfaction among the pharmacists surveyed was moderate, with an average score of 58.5%. Additionally, two factors —region (geographical location) and monthly income— were found to have a significant impact on job satisfaction. -Key stressors included excessive workload, lack of promotion opportunities, and poor physician-pharmacist relationships. -Hospital pharmacists reported fewer job-family conflicts but felt less professional recognition compared to community pharmacists.
17	(Fransiska, 2021)	The importance of emotional intelligence for the sales associate's profession as a mediation between job stress and job satisfaction.	Quantitative research	sales associates in Jakarta-Indonesia. Sample size:100 employees	Survey questionnaires	The finding indicates: - higher levels of emotional intelligence strengthen the mediating effect on the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction. - Job stress has a positive and significant impact on emotional intelligence. - Emotional intelligence has a positive and significant influence on job satisfaction.

18	(Sari & Saputra, 2022)	The Effect of Work Stress and Emotional Intelligence Mediation on Performance.	Quantitative research	“Gojek “service application drivers in Bandar Lampung City. Sample size: 97 drivers	Survey questionnaires	The study found that higher work stress decreases both emotional intelligence and performance, while higher emotional intelligence enhances performance.
19	(Dwaikat, 2023)	The impact of job stress and job satisfaction on employee performance: The case of the Software Companies in Palestine.	Quantitative research	Software Companies in Palestine. Sample size: 250 employees	Survey questionnaires	The results confirm that job satisfaction, job stress, and emotional intelligence are key factors influencing employee performance. Emotional intelligence also mediates the relationship between job stress and employee performance, highlighting the critical role of these variables in shaping productivity.
20	(Charlin & Imran, 2023)	Impact of emotional intelligence on work performance and job satisfaction amongst Indian working Professionals.	Quantitative research	Indian working professionals from various occupational fields Sample size 160 employees	Survey questionnaires	The study found that emotional intelligence significantly predicts both work performance and job satisfaction. It also reveals a moderate positive relationship between emotional intelligence and these two factors among Indian working professionals.

## 2.16 Gaps in the Literature

From the review of the existing literature on emotional intelligence (EI), job stress, and job satisfaction, it is evident that numerous studies have examined these constructs in various global contexts. Many of these studies have focused on the direct relationships among these variables, highlighting their significance in organizational settings. However, a critical gap persists in understanding the mediating role of emotional intelligence in the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction, especially within public sector organizations.

Most prior studies have primarily explored emotional intelligence as a standalone predictor or direct influencer of job satisfaction and stress management. Few have delved into how EI shape the effects of job stress on employee satisfaction, which is crucial for designing targeted interventions in high-stress environments. Furthermore, while various dimensions of EI have been investigated, these studies often lack a comprehensive approach, failing to analyse the cumulative effects of all dimensions of EI on workplace outcomes.

Specific to the context of Palestine, the literature reveals a limited body of research addressing the interplay between job stress, job satisfaction, and emotional intelligence within public sector organizations. The unique socio-political and economic challenges faced by employees in Palestine necessitate a deeper understanding of how emotional intelligence influences the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction.

Additionally, given the cultural and contextual differences, it is essential to examine whether findings from other regions are applicable in the Palestinian context or if unique dynamics exist that shape the mediating role of emotional intelligence.

Finally, while research in other regions has provided valuable insights, the lack of studies conducted within the General Authority of Civilian Affairs—a key Palestinian public sector organization—represents a significant gap. This study, therefore, aims to bridge these gaps by investigating the mediating role of emotional intelligence in the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction, offering practical recommendations tailored to the Palestinian context.

## **2.17 Hypothesis Development**

### **2.17.1 The Relationship between Job Stress and Job Satisfaction with Emotional Intelligence as a Mediator**

Theories widely agree on the importance of emotional intelligence in enhancing personal competencies, managing stress, and improving overall effectiveness, particularly in workplace settings. However, multiple models emphasize different aspects and mechanisms through which emotional intelligence achieves these outcomes. Scholars frequently regard job stress, emotional intelligence, and job satisfaction as closely interconnected constructs for instance:

The Ability-Based Model of Emotional Intelligence (EI), proposed by Mayer and Salovey in 1990 and refined in 1997, argues that individuals with higher EI possess superior abilities to perceive, understand, regulate, and use emotions effectively. This emotional awareness enhances their capacity to handle stress, fostering resilience and promoting positive behaviours and attitudes. (Caruso & Howe, 2007; Fiori & Vesely-Maillefer, 2018).

Similarly, Bar-On's Emotional-Social Intelligence Model (1997, 2000) emphasizes that heightened emotional intelligence bolsters personal competencies, enabling individuals to manage external pressures more effectively and achieve greater overall well-being. (Bar-On, 2010; Fernández-Berrocal & Extremera, 2006)

In a similar vein, Goleman's theory posits that employees with high emotional intelligence experience greater fulfilment, as they can better understand and address both their own emotional needs and those of their colleagues. Goleman further asserts that individuals with strong self-regulation are capable of controlling impulsive reactions, enabling them to remain calm in high-pressure situations and make well-considered decisions, even when faced with challenges. (Goleman, 1998)

These models highlight that EI affects how individuals respond to stress, thereby reducing its negative impact on job satisfaction. This aligns with the concept of mediation, where EI serves as the intermediary that explains how and why job stress influences job satisfaction.

The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model provides a useful lens for exploring the relationship among stress, Job satisfaction and Emotional Intelligence. The model categorizes work characteristics into two main dimensions: job demands and job resources (Demerouti et al., 2001).

Job demands are “those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs”. On the other hand, Resources are “those physical, social or organizational aspects of the job that may do any of the following: (a) be functional in achieving work goals; (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; (c) stimulate personal growth and development” (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501).

Excessive job demands contribute to stress and health impairment, while abundant resources enhance motivation and performance (Taris & Schaufeli, 2015). Furthermore, the JD-R model highlights the role of personal resources as antecedents, mediators, and moderators influencing work outcomes (Taris & Schaufeli, 2015). The flexibility of the JD-R model allows it to encompass any job demands and resources that impact employee health and well-being, making it adaptable to diverse work settings and contexts (Taris & Schaufeli, 2015).

In this framework Job Stress aligns with the concept of demands and the strain process in the JD-R model. Conversely, while job satisfaction is often viewed as an outcome, its influence on motivation, well-being, and productivity allows it to also function as a resource.

The Occupational Stress Scale (OSS), utilized in the present study to measure job stress, was developed by House and colleagues in 1979. The OSS includes five key dimensions: job responsibilities, quality concerns, role conflict, job vs. non-job conflict, and workload (Fields, 2002). These dimensions align closely with the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model’s concept of demands, as they represent work-related aspects requiring sustained physical or mental effort.

Supporting this alignment, Taris and Schaufeli (2015) note that job demands often involve challenges such as excessive workloads and conflicting roles. Similarly, Vaux (1998) confirms that stress is positively correlated with factors like role ambiguity, role conflict, and personal discrimination. The connection between OSS dimensions and job demands has also been supported by additional research, highlighting these factors as major sources of workplace stress (e.g., Vallasamy et al., 2023; Stranks, 2005; Schönfeld & Chang, 2017).

Role theory further supports the link between the OSS dimensions and job stress. This theory conceptualizes organizations as systems of interrelated roles, defined by actions and expectations rather than personal identities. Individuals' behaviours and thoughts are shaped by their roles, duties, and interactions with others—such as superiors or subordinates—who communicate expectations and provide feedback. Stress, within this framework, arises from role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload, as these factors create challenges in fulfilling behavioural expectations tied to status, function, or responsibilities (Stranks, 2005).

The concept of personal resources in the JD-R model suggests that these resources shape how individuals perceive job characteristics, respond to those perceptions, and experience their work environment. (Schaufeli and Taris, 2014)

Emotional intelligence aligns closely with the JD-R model's concept of personal resources. Mayer and Salovey's Ability-Based Model of EI defines EI as the ability to perceive, understand, regulate, and use emotions effectively. This heightened emotional awareness enhances individuals' ability to manage stress, build resilience, and foster positive behaviours and attitudes. (Caruso & Howe, 2007; Fiori & Vesely-Maillefer, 2018)

The JD-R model's conceptualization of personal resources and its alignment with EI are further supported by the ISR model, which emphasizes the role of perception in the stress process. According to the ISR model, stress arises from the objective work environment (e.g., noise, work hours) and how employees perceive these conditions. When perceived as stressors, these conditions can trigger negative responses that, over time, lead to burnout, depression, reduced performance, and withdrawal (Sliter & Yuan, 2015). EI, as a personal resource, mediates these perceptions by enabling individuals to regulate emotions and adopt

constructive coping strategies, thereby mitigating the negative impact of stress on job satisfaction.

A limited number of studies have investigated the mediating role of emotional intelligence in the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction. Nevertheless, certain earlier research findings are consistent with the theoretical assumptions of these frameworks. For instance:

Dwaikat (2023) point out that Emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between job stress and employee performance, highlighting the critical role of these variables in shaping productivity. His findings underscore the critical role of EI as a mechanism through which job stress influences outcomes such as job satisfaction and productivity. Further evidence comes from Fransiska (2021) who highlight that higher levels of emotional intelligence strengthen the mediating effect on the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction.

Based on the previous theories and the former studies, that mentioned above, it can be hypothesized that:

**H4:** Emotional intelligence significantly mediates the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction among GACA employees.

H4a: Emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between responsibility pressure and job satisfaction among GACA employees.

H4b: Emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between quality concerns and job satisfaction among GACA employees.

H4c: Emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction among GACA employees.

H4d: Emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between job vs. non-job conflict and job satisfaction among GACA employees.

H4e: Emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between workload and job satisfaction among GACA employees.

### **2.17.2 The Relationship between Job Stress and Job Satisfaction**

In addition to the JD-R and ISR theories, the Person–Environment (P–E) Fit Theory offers a valuable framework for understanding the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction. According to this theory, stress arises when there is a misfit between the individual’s characteristics (e.g., abilities, values, needs) and the work environment (e.g., demands, resources, expectations), which negatively impacts job satisfaction (Cooman & Vleugels, 2022). Put simply, when job demands (e.g., workload, role conflict) exceed an employee’s abilities or resources, it creates stress, negatively impacting job satisfaction.

House et al. (1979) state that the five stress dimensions (responsibility pressure, role conflict, work load, quality concerns, and job vs. non-job conflict) correlated negatively with job satisfaction and extrinsic job rewards (as cited in Fields, 2002). Additionally, several studies have confirmed the negative relationship between job stress and job satisfaction. For instance, Narban et al. (2016) found that job stress and job satisfaction are negatively correlated.

Similarly, Singh et al. (2019) report that 99% of studies affirm a direct and often negative impact of job stress on job satisfaction. Ahsan et al. (2009) further demonstrated a significant negative relationship between job stress and job satisfaction, emphasizing that workload pressure, family and financial demands, role ambiguity, and performance pressure all have a significant positive relationship with job stress. Supporting these findings, a study by Pecino et al. (2019) in the Spanish public sector highlighted that role stress—including role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload—negatively affects job satisfaction.

Based on the aforementioned theories and empirical evidence, the following hypotheses are proposed:

**H1:** Job stress has a negative impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees.

- H1a: Role conflict negatively impacts job satisfaction among GACA employees.
- H1b: Workload negatively impacts job satisfaction among GACA employees.
- H1c: Quality concerns negatively impact job satisfaction among GACA employees.
- H1d: Job vs. non-job conflict negatively impacts job satisfaction among GACA employees.
- H1e: Responsibility pressure negatively impacts job satisfaction among GACA employees.

### **2.17.2 The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction**

The connection between emotional intelligence (EI) and job satisfaction is grounded in multiple theoretical frameworks, including emotional intelligence models (ability model, Bar-On model, and Goleman's model), the Job Demands-Resources (JDR) model, and the Input-Output Stress-Response (ISR) model. In addition, the Affective Events Theory (AET) provides a robust framework for understanding how EI influences job satisfaction. AET posits that workplace incidents trigger emotional and cognitive responses, which subsequently shape employees' moods, attitudes, and behaviors. These responses, in turn, impact job performance, satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Miao et al., 2017).

Empirical research corroborates these theoretical foundations. Angreni and Ardana (2020) demonstrated a positive correlation between EI, work motivation, and job satisfaction. Similarly, Miao et al. (2017) conducted a comprehensive meta-analysis on various dimensions of EI (ability EI, self-report EI, and mixed EI) and work attitudes, reporting significant positive effects on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. Brackett et al. (2010) focused on emotion-regulation ability (ERA) in a sample of 123 secondary school teachers, revealing that ERA significantly enhanced job satisfaction and personal accomplishment while reducing burnout, with principal support serving as a moderating factor.

Further validation comes from Azhar and Hassan (2014), who demonstrated that the five core constructs of EI—self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills—positively influence job satisfaction. Their findings underscore that EI not only enhances satisfaction but also improves employee effectiveness and efficiency in their roles.

Thus, based on both theoretical and empirical evidence, the following hypotheses are proposed:

**H3:** Emotional intelligence positively impacts job satisfaction.

### **2.17.3 The Relationship between Job Stress and Emotional Intelligence**

The Conservation of Resources (COR) theory provides a useful framework for understanding how job stress and emotional intelligence (EI) are interconnected.

According to COR theory, individuals aim to acquire, maintain, and protect valuable resources, including objects, personal attributes, conditions, and energies that support goal achievement (Sliter & Yuan, 2015).

Stress occurs when these resources are threatened, lost, or fail to meet expectations. Crucially, resource loss has a greater impact than resource gain, often resulting in cycles of depletion or accumulation depending on resource availability (Sliter & Yuan, 2015).

As a cognitive ability, EI can be viewed as a personal resource that helps individuals perceive, regulate, and manage emotions effectively in the workplace. On the other hand, Job stress, characterized by excessive demands and limited resources, can deplete the cognitive and emotional reserves required for EI, impairing an individual's ability to process and regulate emotions.

Despite the limited number of studies directly investigating the relationship between job stress and EI, existing research offers some insight. For example, Rafiee et al. (2013) confirmed the connections between job stress, emotional intelligence, organizational intelligence, and moral intelligence. Similarly, Sari and Saputra (2022) reported that higher levels of work stress negatively affect both emotional intelligence and job performance, while individuals with higher EI demonstrate improved workplace performance.

Drawing from COR theory and existing research, the following hypothesis is proposed:

**H2:** Job stress negatively impacts emotional intelligence.

H2a: Responsibility pressure has a negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.

H2b: Quality concerns have a negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.

H2c: Role conflict has a negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.

H2d: Job vs. non-job conflict has a negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.

H2e: Workload has a negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.

## 2.18 The Conceptual Model

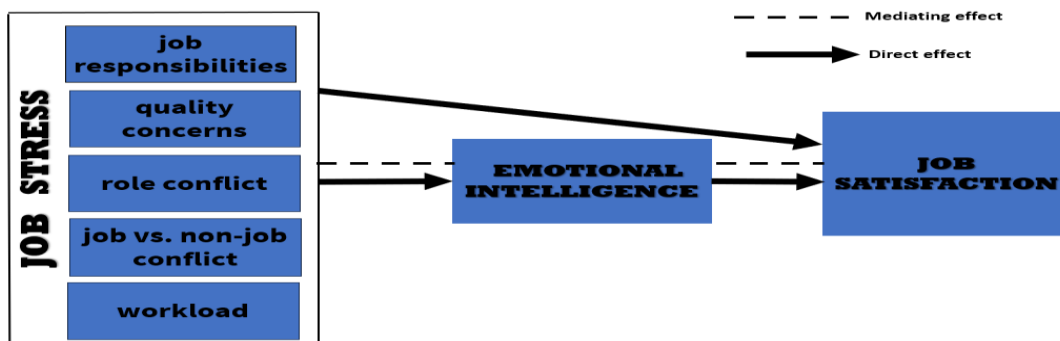


Figure (2.3) The Conceptual Model

### 2.18.1 Conceptual Model Explanation

The conceptual model visually represents the primary relationships examined in this study, emphasizing the mediating role of emotional intelligence in the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction. Job stress is illustrated as a multidimensional construct, comprising job responsibilities, quality concerns, role conflict, job vs. non-job conflict, and workload, each of which is hypothesized to negatively impact job satisfaction (H1a–H1e).

The model further incorporates the hypothesis that job stress negatively influences emotional intelligence (H2a–H2e), recognizing that different dimensions of job stress may impact emotional intelligence to varying degrees. In turn, emotional intelligence is

expected to positively impact job satisfaction (H3), reinforcing its potential role as a mediating factor.

A key aspect of the conceptual model is the mediation hypothesis (H4a–H4e), which proposes that emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between each dimension of job stress and job satisfaction. This structure allows for an in-depth analysis of how different stressors interact with emotional intelligence to influence job satisfaction, rather than treating job stress as a single construct.

Additionally, the model highlights both the direct effects of job stress on job satisfaction (H1) and the indirect effects through emotional intelligence (H4), ensuring a comprehensive understanding of these relationships. The differentiation between direct and mediated pathways provides insights into the extent to which emotional intelligence buffers the negative effects of job stress on job satisfaction.

While the conceptual model provides a simplified visualization for clarity, all the hypotheses are explicitly presented in the hypotheses section, and the detailed interactions between job stress dimensions, emotional intelligence, and job satisfaction are further analysed in the discussion section. The scales and measures used to assess these variables and dimensions are detailed in Chapter 3 (Methodology), ensuring a robust and validated approach to examining these relationships.

## Chapter Three: Methodology

### 3.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter outlines the methodological approach adopted in this study. It presents the research design, procedures for ensuring the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, details regarding the population and sampling strategy, and a description of the data collection tool. Each section is designed to provide a clear understanding of the steps taken to ensure methodological rigor and the credibility of the research findings.

### 3.2 Research Type

The word research is derived from the French term *recherche*, which means “to search closely.” It refers to a systematic, replicable process designed to produce new knowledge by identifying problems, gathering and analysing data, and disseminating findings to support, refine, or challenge existing theories (Hunziker & Blankenagel, 2024).

From the Objectives Perspective the researcher may choose from the following types of research (Kumar, 2014):

- **Exploratory research** is often conducted when a topic is relatively new or not yet well understood. Its main purpose is to explore the phenomenon, generate insights, and help clarify concepts or formulate hypotheses for future research and it often relies on qualitative data, although quantitative elements may also be used (Hunziker & Blankenagel, 2024; Saunders et al., 2023)
- **Descriptive research** aims to provide an accurate and systematic account of a particular phenomenon or population. It is more structured than exploratory research and involves clearly defined questions, methods, and data collection tools. Descriptive research is used to answer questions such as “what,” “who,” “when,” and “how many (Hunziker & Blankenagel, 2024; Saunders et al., 2023)

- **Explanatory research** seeks to identify causal relationships between variables. It goes beyond mere description to explain why and how certain phenomena occur. This type of research is commonly associated with hypothesis testing and is typically conducted using quantitative methods (Hunziker & Blankenagel, 2024; Saunders et al., 2023).
- **Correlational Research** Seeks to identify relationships or associations between two or more variables, without necessarily determining causality (Kumar, 2014).

This study adopts an Explanatory research design, as its primary aim is to examine cause-and-effect relationships among key variables. Specifically, the research investigates how job stress influences job satisfaction and how emotional intelligence mediates this relationship among employees of the General Authority of Civilian Affairs (GACA). Explanatory research is particularly suitable when the objective is to explore the direction and strength of relationships between variables and to understand the underlying mechanisms behind these relationships. (Saunders et al., 2023)

### **3.3 Research Approach**

Research approaches refer to the overall plans and procedures that guide a study from underlying assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation. These approaches involve a series of comprehensive decisions about how a topic will be studied (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

According to Creswell and Creswell (2018), research approaches can be categorized into three main types: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods.

- **Qualitative research** seeks to explore and understand the meanings individuals or groups assign to social or human problems. It relies on flexible methods, inductive reasoning, and interpretation of rich, non-numerical data.
- **Quantitative research:** focuses on testing objective theories by measuring relationships among variables through numerical data and statistical procedures. It follows a structured format and emphasizes objectivity, generalizability, and replication.
- **Mixed methods research** integrates both qualitative and quantitative approaches to provide a more comprehensive understanding. It combines data types and analytical techniques within a single study, often under specific philosophical and theoretical frameworks.

This study adopts a quantitative research approach, as it is well-suited for examining relationships between variables, testing predefined hypotheses, and producing findings that can be generalized to a broader population. Quantitative methods allow for objectivity, precision, and replicability, aligning closely with the study's aim to derive statistically significant insights. Data were collected through standardized questionnaire, which ensured consistency across respondents and facilitated the measurement of key constructs. (Saunders et al., 2023)

### **3.4 Research Philosophy**

Research Philosophy refers to the set of beliefs or worldviews—sometimes referred to as paradigms—that underpin the researcher's assumptions about reality (ontology), knowledge (epistemology), and values (axiology), which in turn guide the selection of research design, methodology, and methods. These philosophical foundations influence how researchers formulate problems, collect data, and interpret findings (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

This study is guided by a post-positivist research philosophy, which aligns with its quantitative nature. Post-positivism assumes that while an objective reality exists, it can only be partially known due to human limitations. It supports the use of structured instruments, hypothesis testing, and statistical analysis, while recognizing the importance of rigor, replication, and critical evaluation of findings (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). This philosophy is well-suited to the study's focus on examining measurable relationships among job stress, emotional intelligence, and job satisfaction.

### **3.5 Hypotheses Development Approach**

The hypotheses in this study were developed using a deductive reasoning approach, which is commonly applied in quantitative research, deduction involves formulating testable hypotheses based on established theories and prior empirical evidence (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). This approach is consistent with the post-positivist philosophy, which emphasizes objective theory testing through empirical observation and statistical analysis.

### **3.6 Data Collection**

A combination of primary and secondary data was employed in this study. The primary data was gathered through structured questionnaires distributed to the selected sample of GACA employees. This method allowed for the collection of quantifiable data aligned with the study's objectives. In addition, secondary data was sourced from academic books, international journals, and credible internet resources, providing the necessary theoretical foundation and supporting literature for the research.

### **3.7 Questioner Design**

The questionnaire is a written set of questions where respondents read, interpret, and record their answers independently (Kumar, 2014). The use of a questionnaire is particularly appropriate for this study for several reasons. It enables the collection of a large volume of responses from geographically dispersed participants, thereby enhancing efficiency in terms of both time and cost. Furthermore, it ensures the acquisition of standardized data through

consistent questioning without the influence of personal interaction. Importantly, the design of the questionnaire allows respondents to interpret and complete the questions independently, minimizing the potential for misinterpretation. (Denscombe, 2014)

The questionnaire was designed by adapting items from three established scales: the Job Satisfaction Scale (WJSAT), originally developed by Warr et al. (1979); the Brief Emotional Intelligence Scale (BEIS-10) developed by Davies et al. (2010) as a shortened version of the Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS; Schutte et al., 1998); and the Job Stress Scale (OSS) developed by House et al. (1979).

Minor adaptations were made to ensure clarity and relevance to the research context. These adaptations included slight rewording of a few items and adjusting the Likert scale format where necessary. Specifically, for greater consistency, the original 7-point Likert scale of the Job Satisfaction Scale was modified to a 5-point Likert scale, aligning it with the response format of the other scales. The questionnaire was divided into four sections, each designed to capture specific data relevant to the study's objectives:

- Section 1: Demographic Information (3 items)

This section collected general information about the respondents, including gender, age, and level of education.

- Section 2: Occupational Stress (15 items)

This section aimed to measure job stress among GACA employees. It was divided into five sub-dimensions, each consisting of three items: responsibility pressure, quality concerns, role conflict, job vs. non-job conflict, and workload. Respondents were asked: "How often are you bothered by each of the following in your work?" Each item was rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Not at all) to 5 (Nearly all the time). This section was adapted from the Job Stress Scale (OSS) developed by House et al. (1979).

- Section 3: Job Satisfaction (15 items)

This section assessed the level of job satisfaction among GACA employees. Respondents were asked: “Please indicate how satisfied or dissatisfied you feel with each of these features of your present job.” Responses were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Very dissatisfied) to 5 (Very satisfied). This section was adapted from the Job Satisfaction Scale (WJSAT) developed by Warr et al. (1979).

- Section 4: Emotional Intelligence (10 items)

This section measured the extent of emotional intelligence among GACA employees. Respondents were instructed: “To what extent do you agree with the following statements?” Each item was rated on a five-point Likert scale from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). This section was adapted from the Brief Emotional Intelligence Scale (BEIS-10) developed by Davies et al. (2010), a shortened version of the Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) by Schutte et al. (1998).

### **3.8 Questionnaire Validity**

Validity refers to the extent to which a measurement instrument accurately captures the concept it is intended to measure (Bryman, 2016; Babbie, 2020). It plays a critical role in ensuring that research findings are meaningful, credible, and applicable. According to Creswell and Creswell (2018), validity can be assessed through various forms, including content validity, construct validity, internal and external validity, and statistical validity. In particular, statistical validity focuses on the accuracy of inferences drawn from the data, ensuring the instrument genuinely reflects the theoretical constructs under investigation (Saunders et al., 2019).

To ensure the questionnaire’s validity, it was reviewed by multiple experts affiliated with nearby universities, who kindly provided feedback on its structure and content. The final version of the survey was originally written in English (see Appendix 1). However, considering that Arabic is the native language in Palestine, the survey was translated into Arabic (see Appendix 2).

Furthermore, statistical validity—including convergent validity, discriminant validity, and internal consistency—was assessed in the results chapter (Chapter 4) using Smart PLS 4. Composite Reliability (CR), Average Variance Extracted (AVE), and Fornell–Larcker criterion were employed to confirm the measurement model’s robustness.

### 3.9 Questionnaire Reliability

The degree to which a measuring instrument maintains its consistency as well as its precision or accuracy is referred to as its reliability. The higher an instrument’s level of reliability becomes, the less variation in results it produces in repeated measurements of the same attribute it produces. When discussing reliability, the terms dependability, stability, and predictability are often used interchangeably (Zikmund et al., 2012). The Cronbach’s Alpha Method is the technique that is utilized to determine the reliability of the questionnaire (Bougie & Sekaran, 2019). The reliability was computed, and the results are displayed in table (3.1) as follows:

Table (3.1): Cronbach’s Coefficient Alpha

Factor	Number of items	Cronbach’s Alpha value
Job Stress	15	0.823
Responsibility pressure	3	0.912
Quality concerns	3	0.851
Role conflict	3	0.773
Job vs. non-job conflict	3	0.748
Workload	3	0.718
Job satisfaction	15	0.755
Emotional Intelligence	10	0.745

Source: Researcher Analysis using SPSS

Table (3.2) shows that Cronbach’s alpha values are higher than (0.70) and as per (Bougie & Sekaran, 2019) this shows a high reliability.

### 3.10 Research Population and Sample

The present study utilized probability sampling, specifically simple random sampling, to ensure representativeness and reduce selection bias. The target population included all employees of the General Authority of Civilian Affairs in Palestine, distributed across two geographic regions: the West Bank and the Gaza Strip. The total population was  $N = 443$ , with 318 employees in the West Bank and 125 in Gaza.

However, due to the ongoing aggression against the Gaza Strip by the Israeli occupation, it was not possible to communicate with employees based in Gaza. This limitation arose primarily because the Authority's headquarters was bombed, and both electricity and internet services were unavailable throughout the region. Consequently, the accessible population was restricted to employees in the West Bank.

#### 3.10.1 Sample Size Calculation:

The sample size was calculated using the following Stephen Thompson formula (Thompson, 2012):

$$n = \frac{N \times p(1-p)}{\left[ \left[ N - 1 \times \left( d^2 \div z^2 \right) \right] + p(1-p) \right]}$$

Where:

- **N**: Population size, representing the number of employees in the study (318).
- **Z**: Standard score corresponding to the significance level (0.95), which equals (1.96).
- **d**: Margin of error, which equals (0.05).
- **P**: Proportion of the characteristic availability or neutrality, which equals (0.50).

Substituting the aforementioned values into the formula yielded a calculated sample size of 175 participants.

### 3.10.2 Random Selection and Distribution:

- A list of West Bank employees, including their mobile numbers, was obtained from GACA. Each individual was assigned a unique identifier.
- Participants were selected using a random number table to eliminate researcher bias and ensure equal probability of inclusion for all West Bank employees.
- 190 Questionnaires were distributed via WhatsApp, a widely used mobile application in Palestine, to ensure accessibility and ease of response. Selected participants received a direct message containing a link to the questionnaire, along with instructions and a consent form.
- Follow-up reminders were sent to non-respondents after 7 and 14 days to improve response rates.
- After the questionnaires were distributed, 183 participants responded. The demographic characteristics of the respondents are presented in Table (3.2)

Table (3.2) Sample Demographic Variable Distribution

Variable	Variable level	Number	Percentage
Sex	Male	106	57.9%
	Female	77	42.1%
	Total	183	100%
Age	Less than 20	1	0.5%
	20 – less than 30	27	14.8%
	30 – less than 40	52	28.4%
	40 – less than 50	60	32.8%
	50 and more	43	23.5%
Education	Bachelors	109	59.6%
	Diploma or lower	42	23%
	Post graduate	32	17.5%
	Total	183	100%

Source: Researchers Analysis using SPSS

The demographic characteristics of the study sample, as shown in Table (4.1), provide valuable insights into the distribution of key variables. The sample consists of 183 participants, with a slight majority being male (57.9%) compared to female participants (42.1%). Regarding age, the largest proportion of respondents falls within the age group of 40 to less than 50 years (32.8%), followed by those aged 30 to less than 40 years (28.4%). Participants aged 50 and above constitute 23.5%, while the age group of 20 to less than 30 years accounts for 14.8%, and only 0.5% of respondents are under 20 years. Educationally, the majority of participants hold a bachelor's degree (59.6%), followed by those with a diploma or lower (23%), while a smaller segment has a postgraduate degree (17.5%). This distribution highlights a well-educated sample, with a significant representation of mid-aged individuals and a gender balance slightly favouring males.

### **3.11 Statistical Methods**

The data was processed and evaluated using an advanced statistical analysis program using quantitative data analysis techniques (Smart PLS4). The research used the following statistical instruments (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002; George, 2003; Zikmund et al., 2012):

1. Cross loading: "Examines that the loading of an indicator on its assigned latent variable should be higher than its loadings on all other latent variables".
2. Composite reliability: "to test the reliability of the questionnaire which must be greater than (0.7)".
3. Average Variance Extracted (AVE): "It examines the correlations between the constructs".
4. The R-squared value ( $R^2$ ): "It represents the proportion of variation in the dependent variable(s) that can be explained by one or more predictor variable".
5. Assessment of Effect Size ( $f^2$ ): "Measuring the effect size indicates the relative effect of a particular exogenous latent variable on endogenous latent variable(s) by means of changes in the R-squared".
6.  $Q^2$ : Testing Predictive Relevance.

7. T value: “is used to determine whether a specific association is significant or not, depending on the P value”.
8. Structural Equation Models (SEM).

### 3.12 Model Estimation

In order to conduct an analysis of the PLS path model, the Smart PLS4 software was utilized. The results of the calculation performed by the PLS algorithm display the independent variables, the dependent variables, the relationships between the variables, as well as indicators for all of the variables.

#### 3.12.1 Assessment of Reflective/ Formative Measurement Models

This includes the use of average variance extracted (AVE) to determine convergent validity, the Fornell-Larcker criterion and cross loads to determine the validity of discriminates, and composite reliability assessments for determining internal consistency (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002; D. George, 2003; Zikmund et al., 2012).

The conceptual model includes multiple independent and dependent variables, with each construct measured through specific indicators, as shown in Table (3.3)

Table (3.3) Variables and indicators in the model

Variable	Symbol	Indicator
Job Stress	OS	A (1-15)
Responsibility pressure	RP	A (1-3)
Quality concerns	QC	A (4-6)
Role conflict	RC	A (7-9)
Job vs. non-job conflict	JC	A (10-12)
Workload	WL	A (13-15)
Job satisfaction	JS	B (1-15)
Emotional Intelligence	EI	C (1-10)

Source: Developed by the researcher

## Chapter Four: Results

### 4.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis conducted using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) in Smart PLS 4. It includes descriptive statistics, assessment of the measurement model, and evaluation of the structural model to test the study's hypotheses and examine the relationships among job stress, emotional intelligence, and job satisfaction.

### 4.2 Descriptive Statistics

#### A. Job Stress

Table (4.1): Means, standard deviation, for Job Stress

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Rank
Responsibility pressure			
Feeling you have too much responsibility for the work of others.	3.46	1.088	1
Having to do or decide things where mistakes could be quite costly.	2.37	1.024	3
Not having enough help or equipment to get the job done well	2.78	1.025	2
Responsibility pressure	2.8725	0.74586	
Quality concerns			
Thinking that the amount of work you have to do may interfere with how well it gets done.	2.41	1.033	2
Feeling that you have to do things that are against your better judgment	2.24	1.062	3
Feeling unable to influence your immediate supervisor's decisions and actions that affect you.	2.66	1.141	1
Quality concerns	2.4372	0.82662	
Role conflict			
Thinking that you'll not be able to meet the conflicting demands of various people you work with.	2.58	0.991	2
Not knowing what the people you work with expect of you	2.56	0.981	3
Having to deal with or satisfy too many people	2.93	1.124	1
Role conflict	2.6903	0.71187	
Job vs. non-job conflict			
Feeling that your job tends to interfere with your family life	2.05	1.135	3
Being asked to work overtime when you don't want to	2.13	1.121	2
Feeling trapped in a job you don't like but can't get out of	2.29	1.362	1
Job vs. non-job conflict	2.1566	0.93356	
Workload			
How often does your job require you to work very fast?	3.40	0.978	1
How often does your job require you to work very hard (physically or mentally)	3.20	1.036	2
How often does your job leave you with little time to get everything done?	2.63	0.860	3
Workload	3.0783	0.78170	

Job Stress	2.6470	0.57050
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Source: Researcher Analysis using SPSS

The analysis of Table (4.1) provides insight into the means and standard deviations of various dimensions of job stress. For Responsibility Pressure, the highest mean (3.46) indicates that employees feel the greatest stress from having too much responsibility for others' work, while the lowest mean (2.37) reflects lower stress levels related to decision-making with costly mistakes. The total mean for this dimension is 2.87, suggesting a moderate level of stress overall.

For Quality Concerns, the highest mean (2.66) shows that employees feel the most stress from being unable to influence their supervisor's decisions, while the lowest mean (2.24) reflects less stress from acting against their better judgment. The total mean is 2.44, indicating a relatively lower level of stress compared to other dimensions.

In Role Conflict, the highest mean (2.93) reveals that dealing with or satisfying too many people causes the most stress, while the lowest mean (2.56) reflects lower stress from unclear expectations. The total mean is 2.69, indicating a moderate level of stress.

For Job vs. Non-job Conflict, the highest mean (2.29) highlights the stress of feeling trapped in an undesirable job, while the lowest mean (2.05) pertains to job interference with family life. The total mean of 2.16 suggests relatively low stress in this dimension.

In Workload, the highest mean (3.40) shows that working very fast causes the most stress, while the lowest mean (2.63) indicates less stress from limited time to complete tasks. The total mean of 3.08 suggests a moderate-to-high level of stress.

Overall, the total mean of job stress across all dimensions is 2.65, indicating a moderate level of stress among employees.

The findings highlight areas where stress is particularly pronounced, such as responsibility pressure and workload, which may have a direct impact on job satisfaction. Emotional intelligence, as a mediating variable, could play a crucial role in mitigating the effects of job stress and enhancing job satisfaction, especially in dimensions with higher stress levels. This

emphasizes the need for targeted interventions and training to strengthen emotional intelligence and improve workplace conditions.

## B. Job Satisfaction

Table (4.2): Means, standard deviation, for job satisfaction

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Rank
<b>Job Satisfaction</b>			
The physical working conditions	2.44	1.278	14
The freedom to choose your own method of working	3.33	1.188	5
Your fellow workers	3.73	1.168	1
The recognition you get for good work	3.08	1.361	11
Your immediate boss	3.61	1.382	3
The amount of responsibility you are given	3.58	1.237	4
Your rate of pay	2.22	1.299	15
Your opportunity to use your abilities	3.19	1.297	9
Industrial relations between management and workers in your firm	3.31	1.304	7
Your chance of promotion	2.56	1.435	13
The way the organization is managed	3.04	1.368	12
The attention paid to suggestions you make	3.23	1.179	8
Your hours of work	3.64	1.223	2
The amount of variety in your job	3.32	1.227	6
Your job security	3.18	1.349	10
Job Satisfaction	3.1650	0.85234	

Source: Researcher Analysis using SPSS

Table (4.2) provides a detailed breakdown of job satisfaction items, revealing variations in mean scores and standard deviations across different aspects of employees' work experience. The highest mean (3.73) is associated with satisfaction regarding fellow workers, indicating strong interpersonal relationships and collegiality as key positive factors. The second-highest mean (3.64) pertains to hours of work, suggesting employees are satisfied with their work schedule. The lowest mean (2.22) is for rate of pay, highlighting dissatisfaction with financial compensation, followed closely by physical working conditions (mean = 2.44), which ranks as the second-lowest.

The total mean for job satisfaction is 3.165, suggesting a moderate level of overall satisfaction among employees. High-ranking items such as fellow workers, immediate boss (mean = 3.61), and amount of responsibility given (mean = 3.58) point to non-financial and

interpersonal aspects as significant contributors to job satisfaction. In contrast, lower satisfaction levels in areas such as rate of pay, physical working conditions, and chance of promotion (mean = 2.56) indicate areas where improvement is needed to enhance overall job satisfaction.

In the context of this study, these findings emphasize that while employees find satisfaction in their work relationships and autonomy, dissatisfaction in financial and environmental factors could counteract these positives. Emotional intelligence could mitigate the negative effects of job stress, helping employees better cope with dissatisfaction in areas like pay and promotion while enhancing their ability to derive satisfaction from positive aspects like interpersonal relationships and job autonomy. This underscores the importance of fostering emotional intelligence to boost job satisfaction and mitigate stressors.

### C. Emotional Intelligence

Table (4.3): Means, standard deviation, for emotional intelligence

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Rank
Emotional Intelligence			
I know why my emotions change	3.67	0.840	9
I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them	3.84	0.795	7
I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice	4.08	0.645	3
By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing	3.97	0.726	5
I seek out activities that make me happy	3.96	0.783	6
I have control over my emotions	3.72	0.880	8
I arrange events others enjoy	3.47	0.824	10
I help other people feel better when they are down	4.02	0.812	4
When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas	4.29	0.662	1
I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles	4.17	0.702	2
Emotional Intelligence	3.9186	0.48842	

Source: Researcher Analysis using SPSS

Table (4.3) reveals the means and standard deviations for emotional intelligence items, highlighting areas where employees excel and areas needing development. The highest mean (4.29) corresponds to the ability to use positive moods to generate new ideas, indicating

strong creative potential linked to emotional states. This is closely followed by the use of good moods to persist despite obstacles (mean = 4.17), suggesting resilience and persistence as key emotional intelligence traits. The lowest mean (3.47) is related to arranging events others enjoy, indicating a relatively weaker focus on social organization compared to other dimensions.

The total mean for emotional intelligence is 3.92, indicating a generally high level of emotional intelligence among employees. High-ranking items, such as recognizing emotions through vocal tone (mean = 4.08) and helping others feel better when they are down (mean = 4.02), emphasize strong interpersonal and empathetic skills. Conversely, items like understanding why emotions change (mean = 3.67) and arranging events others enjoy (mean = 3.47) suggest areas where employees might benefit from further development.

In the context of this study, these findings underline the critical role of emotional intelligence in mitigating job stress and enhancing job satisfaction. High emotional intelligence scores in areas like resilience, empathy, and emotion recognition suggest that employees have the tools to effectively navigate workplace challenges. However, targeted development in areas with lower scores could further strengthen their ability to manage stress and foster satisfaction, creating a more balanced and productive work environment.

### **4.3 Hypotheses Testing**

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is a way of testing complex relationships between variables. This is a chi-square technique for multivariate analysis, combining factor analysis and regression so that you can actually test the theoretical models. SEM is employed when there are intricate models which cannot be studied using simple regression techniques (such as relationships between multiple independent and dependent variables). It is popular in social sciences and especially marketing research, where complex relationships between variables are often used. SEM tests a model using mathematical equations, which gives researchers the opportunity to examine and refine theories/hypotheses regarding relationships amidst variables (Hair Jr., Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt 2016) because it accurately measures constructs as well as SEM tends to identify complex multivariable models with multiple independent

predictors of each outcome; Therefore due to proper fulfilment for this feature by the Smart-PLS4 software package utilized within data analysis process related questionnaires SEM was intentionally selected.

The study assesses the two models generated by using Smart-PLS4 as follows:

1. **Measurement Model Assessment:** is the part of a structural equation model that deals with the research variables and their indicators; it describes the validity and consistency of the indicators, as well as the relationships between the observed variables and the latent variables.
2. **Structural Model assessment:** is the model that elucidates the nature of the connection between independent and dependent variables, as well as the ratio of impact and interpretation factor to each independent factor in the dependent factor, and thus explains the existence of causal relationships between the research variables. The findings of the structural model help to shed light on the significance of relationships and the signs they provide, confirming or refuting the research hypotheses (positive or negative).

#### **4.3.1 Assessment of the Measurement Model**

In this part of the study, the convergent and discriminant validity of the model were investigated in order to provide an answer to the research's hypotheses and questions, which are as follows:

##### **Convergent Validity**

According to Hair Jr. et al., (2016), convergent validity, also known as the degree of consistency, can be determined by employing the following three indicators: Factor loading: Internal consistency, Composite Reliability (CR): Reliability, Average Variance Extracted (AVE).

The following table (4.4) outlines the requirements that must be fulfilled in order for convergent validity indicators to be accepted:

Table (4.4) Criteria for the Indicators of Convergent validity

Indicator	Accepted values
Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	$\geq 0.5$
Composite Reliability (CR)	$\geq 0.7$
Factor Loading	$\geq 0.5$

Source: Hair et al. (2016)

### A. Internal Consistency – Factor loading

Because they are all tied to the same latent (not directly measured) variable, multiple observed variables will always share the same response patterns; this is the central idea behind factor analysis. The factor loadings represent the degree to which each independent variable is correlated with the common factor, figure (4.1) and table (4.5) show the study’s factor loadings as follows:

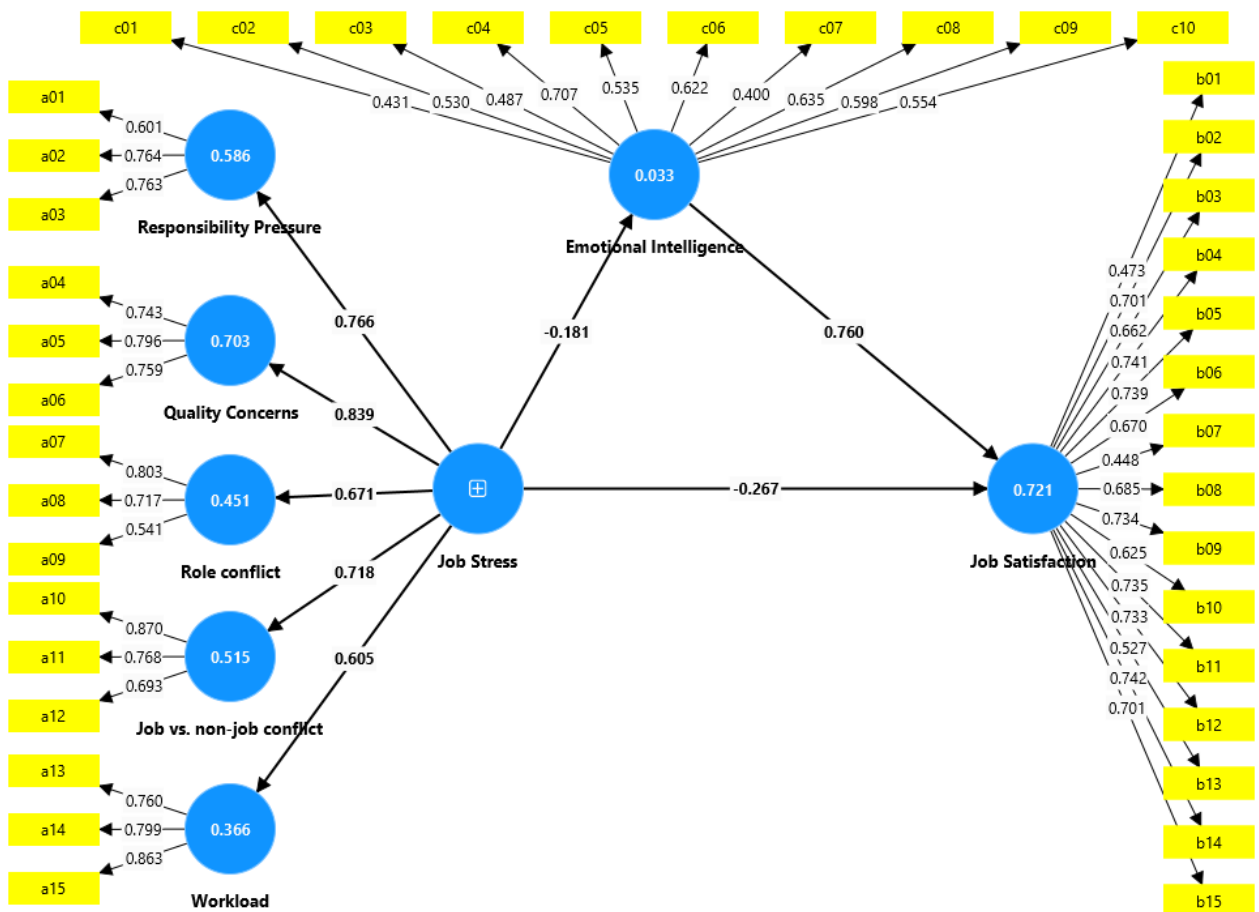


Figure (4.1) Factor Loadings

Table (4.5) Factor Loadings

		Item	Symbol	Loading
Job Stress	Responsibility pressure	Feeling you have too much responsibility for the work of others.	A01	0.601
		Having to do or decide things where mistakes could be quite costly.	A02	0.764
		Not having enough help or equipment to get the job done well	a03	0.763
	Quality concerns	Thinking that the amount of work you have to do may interfere with how well it gets done.	A04	0.743
		Feeling that you have to do things that are against your better judgment	a05	0.796
		Feeling unable to influence your immediate supervisor's decisions and actions that affect you.	A06	0.759
	Role conflict	Thinking that you'll not be able to meet the conflicting demands of various people you work with.	A07	0.803
		Not knowing what the people you work with expect of you	a08	0.717
		Having to deal with or satisfy too many people	a09	0.541
	Job vs. non-job conflict	Feeling that your job tends to interfere with your family life	a10	0.870
		Being asked to work overtime when you don't want to	a11	0.768
		Feeling trapped in a job you don't like but can't get out of	a12	0.693
	Workload	How often does your job require you to work very fast?	A13	0.760
		How often does your job require you to work very hard (physically or mentally)	a14	0.799
		How often does your job leave you with little time to get everything done?	A15	0.863
Job Satisfaction		The physical working conditions	b01	0.473
		The freedom to choose your own method of working	b02	0.701
		Your fellow workers	b03	0.662
		The recognition you get for good work	b04	0.741
		Your immediate boss	b05	0.739
		The amount of responsibility you are given	b06	0.670
		Your rate of pay	b07	0.448
		Your opportunity to use your abilities	b08	0.685

	Industrial relations between management and workers in your firm	b09	0.734
	Your chance of promotion	b10	0.625
	The way the organization is managed	b11	0.735
	The attention paid to suggestions you make	b12	0.733
	Your hours of work	b13	0.527
	The amount of variety in your job	b14	0.742
	Your job security	b15	0.701
Emotional Intelligence	I know why my emotions change	c01	0.431
	I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them	c02	0.530
	I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice	c03	0.487
	By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing	c04	0.707
	I seek out activities that make me happy	c05	0.535
	I have control over my emotions	c06	0.622
	I arrange events others enjoy	c07	0.400
	I help other people feel better when they are down	c08	0.635
	When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas	c09	0.598
	I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles	c10	0.554

According to figure (4.1) and table (4.5), as well as the factor loading criteria to assess convergent validity proposed by (Hair Jr et al., 2016; Hulland, 1999), the indicators show a high factor loading except for (c01, c04, c07, b01, b07) were less than (0.50) and they were removed.

## **B. Composite Reliability (CR)**

Comparable to Cronbach's alpha, composite reliability (also known as construct reliability) assesses the consistency between individual scale scores. It's comparable to the proportion of total true score variance to total scale score variance. A different way to put it is that it is an "indicator of the shared variance among the observed variables used as an indicator of a latent construct." Table (4.6) shows the composite reliability of the study variables as follows:

Table (4.6) Composite Reliability

Variable	CR
Job Stress	0.711
Responsibility pressure	0.812
Quality concerns	0.735
Role conflict	0.794
Job vs. non-job conflict	0.801
Workload	0.812
Job satisfaction	0.734
Emotional Intelligence	0.794

Source: Researchers analysis using Smart PLS4

It can be seen from table (4.7) and according to (Hair Jr. et al., 2016; Hulland, 1999), the CR must be greater than 0.7. Since all of the indicators are above the standard criteria, this indicates that the CR has been met.

### C. Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

The average variance extracted (AVE) is a measure that is used in statistics (classical test theory) to determine the amount of variance that is recorded by a construct in comparison to the amount of variance that is caused by estimation errors (Hair Jr et al., 2016; Hulland, 1999). It is common practice to evaluate validity by applying the following “rule of thumb” to the average variance that was extracted: the positive square root of the AVE for every one of the latent variables should be greater than the highest correlation to any other latent construct, table (4.7) shows the (AVE) values of the study variables:

Table (4.7): Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

Variable	AVE
Job Stress	0.555
Responsibility pressure	0.567
Quality concerns	0.601
Role conflict	0.579
Job vs. non-job conflict	0.583
Workload	0.617
Job satisfaction	0.666
Emotional Intelligence	0.701

Source: Researchers analysis using SmartPLS4

Table (4.8) determines that the variables that were utilized in this study are reliable because they had an Average Variance Extracted (AVE) value that was greater than 0.5, which is within the acceptable range. Furthermore, all of the variable values were found to be within the acceptable range, leading us to the conclusion that the variables have good reliability.

#### **D. Discriminant Validity**

The concept of discriminant validity was introduced by Campbell and Fiske (1959) in their seminal discussion on evaluating test validity. They emphasized the necessity of employing both discriminant and convergent validation procedures when assessing new measurement instruments. Discriminant validity is considered satisfactory when a construct does not strongly correlate with other constructs that it is theoretically distinct from. In general, a correlation value below 0.50 suggests that there is adequate discriminant validity between two constructs, indicating they are conceptually different. Conversely, a value exceeding 0.50 implies substantial conceptual overlap, suggesting that the two constructs may be measuring similar or identical phenomena. In such cases, discriminant validity would not be supported (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). As shown in Table 4.8, the results confirm the presence of discriminant validity among the constructs measured in this study.

Table (4.8) Measures of Validity and Correlations among Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Job Stress	0.745							
Responsibility pressure	0.800	0.753						
Quality concerns	0.791	0.780	0.775					
Role conflict	0.781	0.761	0.752	0.761				
Job vs. non-job conflict	0.777	0.759	0.755	0.703	0.764			
Workload	0.773	0.743	0.737	0.701	0.614	0.785		
Job satisfaction	0.749	0.731	0.712	0.627	0.620	0.547	0.816	
Emotional Intelligence	0.748	0.721	0.637	0.607	0.573	0.531	0.530	0.837

Source: Researchers analysis using Smart PLS4

Table (4.8) displays the AVE and cross component loading extracted for all latent variables. In this approach, the loading of each item on its associated construct is larger than the loadings of any other move on any other construct. In order to prove the model’s discriminant validity, the AVE of each factor was found to be greater than the squared correlation between those factors (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

### 4.3.2 Assessment of the Structural Model

The results of the structural model evaluation are accepted after those of the measurement model’s convergent validity have been accepted. Examining the predictive power of the model and the connections between the independent and dependent variables is essential. The structural model should be assessed using a tried-and-true set of criteria. Coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ), Effect size ( $f^2$ ), Predictive Relevance ( $Q^2$ ), and Hypothesis testing are the fundamental criteria for testing the structural model. All of the criteria used to evaluate the structural validity of the models are listed in Table (4.9):

Table (4.9) Criteria for Assessment of the Structural Model

	Range	Value
Coefficient of determination $R^2$	above 0.67	high
	between 0.33-0.67	moderate
	between 0.19-.033	weak
	below 0.19	not acceptable
Effect size $f^2$	above 0.35	large effect size
	between 0.15-0.35	Medium effect size.
	Between 0.02-0.15	small effect size
	less than 0.02	NO effect size
Predictive Relevance $Q^2$	more than zero	has predictive relevance

Source: (Cohen, 1988)

#### A. Coefficient of Determination ( $R^2$ )

Also known as R-squared, is a statistical measure that represents the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable that is predictable from the independent variable(s). It is a value between 0 and 1, where 0 indicates that the model does not explain any of the variability in the dependent variable, and 1 indicates that the model explains all of the variability. The study found that  $R^2$  for the structural model for this research was 66.1%,

Thus, the independent variables adequately described the dependent variable of interest (job satisfaction).

**B. Effect Size  $f^2$**

By examining table (4. 10), we can see that all of the independent factors have a sizable effect on the dependent variable (as measured by effect size).

Table (4.10) Effect Size  $f^2$

	value	Result
Emotional Intelligence -> Job Satisfaction	0.302	High
Job Stress -> Job Satisfaction	0.327	High
Emotional Intelligence -> Job Stress -> Job Satisfaction	0.361	High

Source: Researchers analysis using Smart PLS4

The effect size analysis presented in Table (4.10) demonstrates the significant influence of emotional intelligence (EI) and job stress (JS) on job satisfaction (JSAT). The direct effect of EI on JSAT shows a high effect size (0.302), indicating that EI plays a crucial role in shaping job satisfaction. Similarly, the direct impact of JS on JSAT also reveals a high effect size (0.327), highlighting that job stress is a significant factor influencing job satisfaction levels. Additionally, the mediated effect of EI through JS on JSAT exhibits the highest effect size (0.361), suggesting that EI’s ability to alleviate job stress significantly enhances its positive influence on job satisfaction. These findings emphasize the importance of both EI and the management of job stress in fostering job satisfaction.

**C. Predictive Relevance  $Q^2$**

$Q^2$  values, which “suggest the model’s predictive relevance, also known as ‘Stone- $Q^2$  Geisser’s value” were developed by Hair Jr. and colleagues (2016). More than zero  $Q^2$  values for a single reflective endogenous variable demonstrate the path model’s predictive utility for the construct (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2013). Table (4.11), which shows the results of our blindfold test with an omission Distance (D) of 7, shows that our path model has a strong predictive relevance, suggesting that our  $Q^2$  values are greater than zero.

Table (4.11) Predictive Relevance Q<sup>2</sup> (Construct Cross validated Redundancy)

Total	RMSE	MAE	Q <sup>2</sup> (=1-SSE/SSO)
Job Satisfaction	0.710	0.571	0.160

Source: Researchers analysis using Smart PLS4

Table (4.11) presents the predictive relevance (Q<sup>2</sup>) of the model for job satisfaction. The Q<sup>2</sup> value of (0.160) indicates a small but meaningful predictive relevance, suggesting that the model has some capability to explain variations in job satisfaction. Showing a moderate level of accuracy in the predictions for job satisfaction.

## 7.4 Path Analysis

Path analysis is used to estimate a system of equations with all variables observed. In contrast to regression models, path models allow for multiple dependent variables (system of regression models). Path model variables can be included in Smart PLS as single-item constructs. To calculate the construct scores for a variable that is dependent on several indicators, the indicators are all given equal weights (Hair Jr et al., 2016). This study tested the hypotheses; the following figures show the P-values and T-values of all the Hypothesis tested:

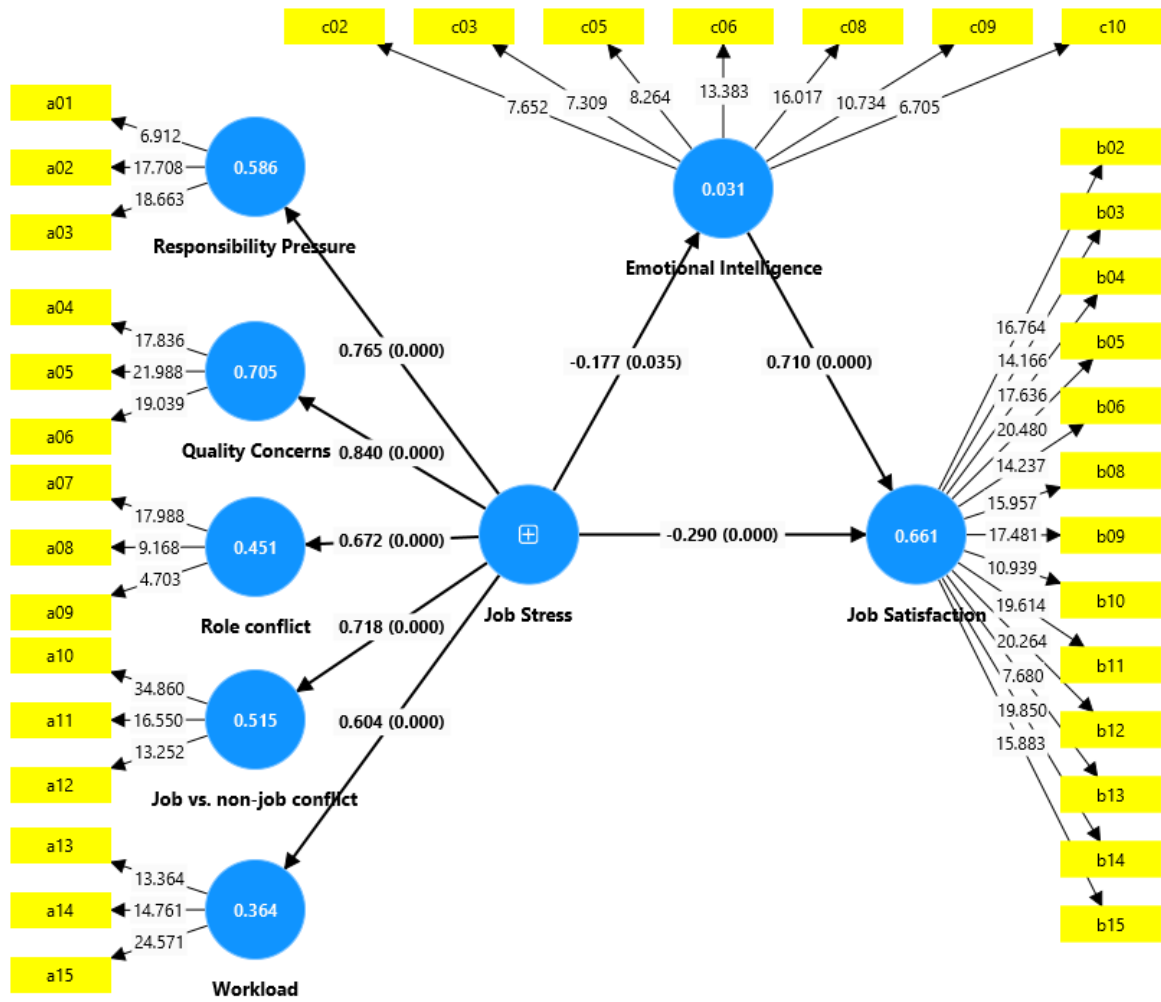


Figure (4.2) P-Values for the Main Hypothesis

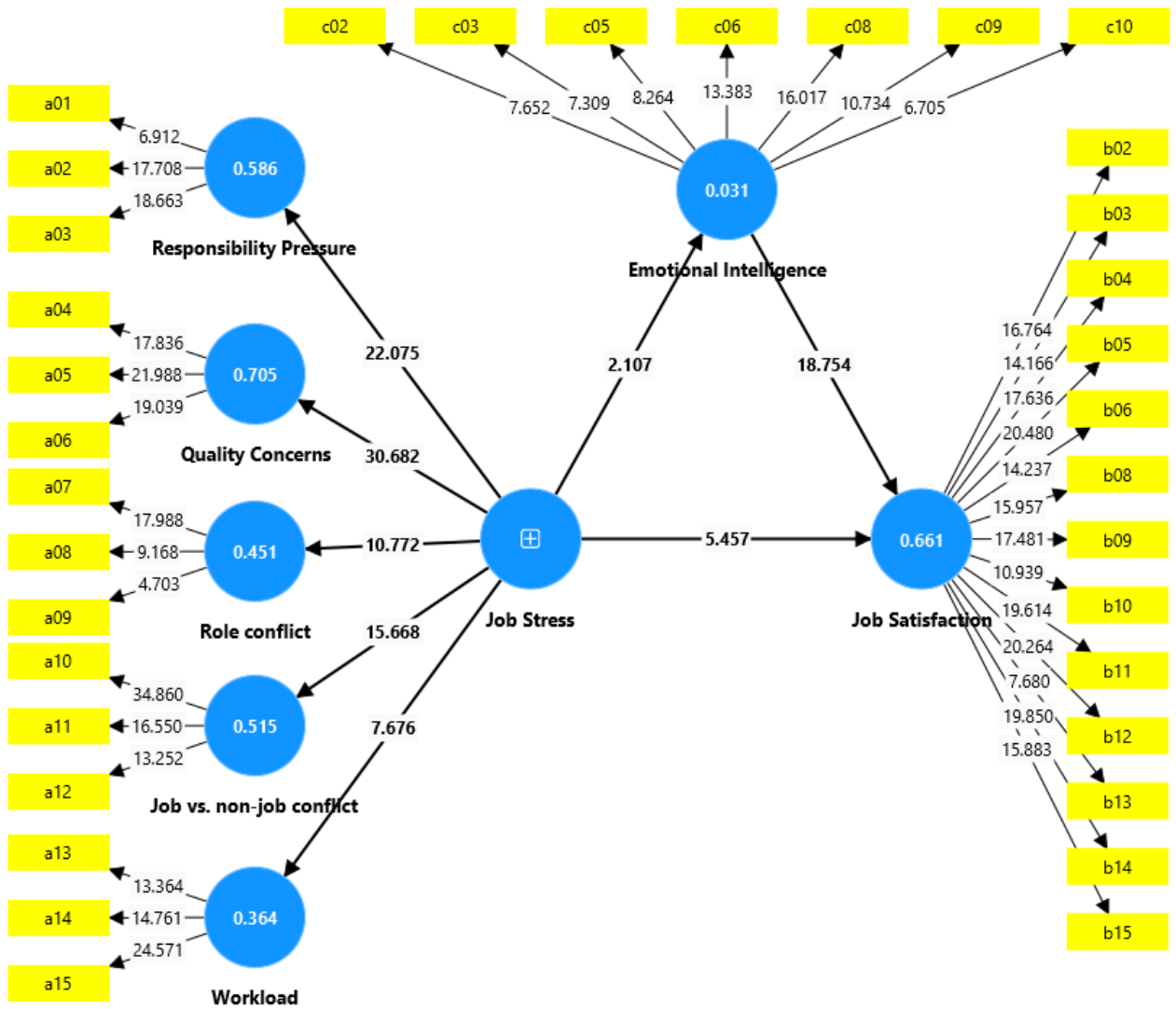


Figure (4.3) T-Values for the Main Hypothesis

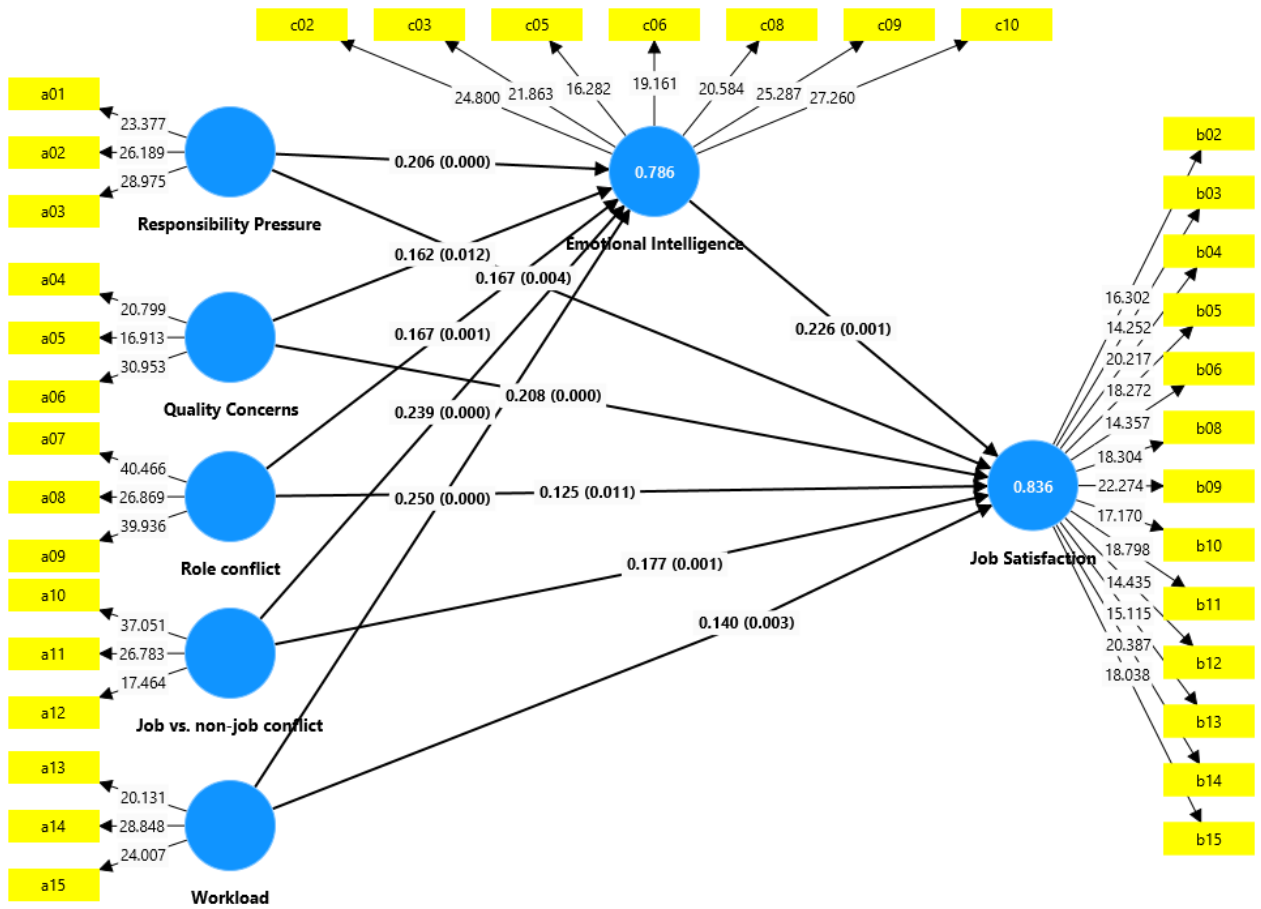


Figure (4.4) P-Values for the Sub-Hypothesis

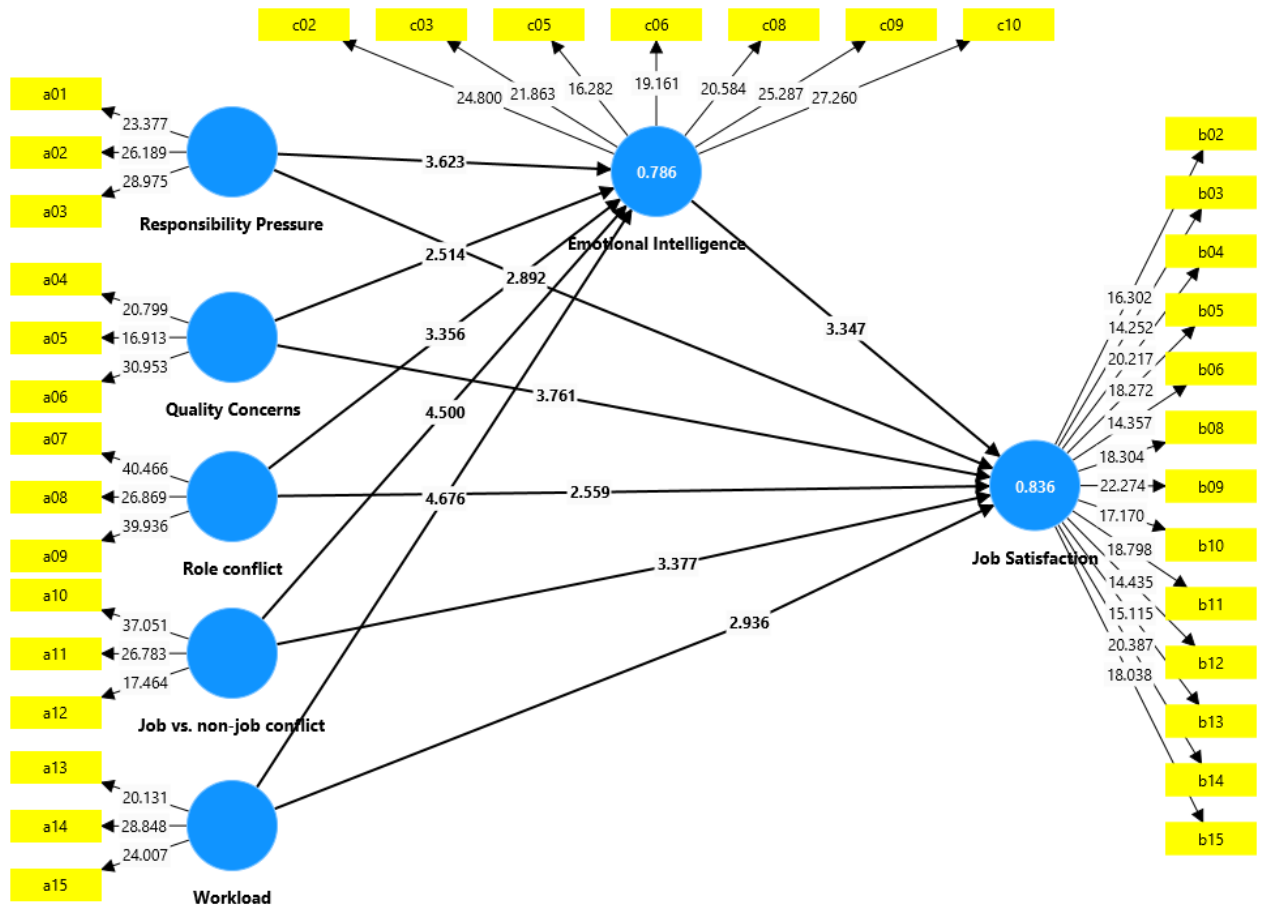


Figure (4.5) T-Values for the Sub-Hypothesis

From figures (4.2) and Figure (4.3) and figure (4.4) and figure (4.5) the results of the hypothesis are as follows:

### A. First Main Hypotheses

Table (4.12): First Main Hypothesis Path Analysis

	Path coefficient	Standard Deviation	T-Value	P-Value
Job Stress -> Job Satisfaction	-0.290	0.053	5.457	0.000
Responsibility pressure -> Job Satisfaction	-0.167	0.058	2.892	0.004
Quality concerns -> Job Satisfaction	-0.208	0.055	3.761	0.000
Role conflict -> Job Satisfaction	-0.125	0.049	2.559	0.011
Job vs. non-job conflict -> Job Satisfaction	-0.177	0.052	3.377	0.001
Workload -> Job Satisfaction	-0.140	0.048	2.936	0.003

Source: Researchers analysis using Smart PLS4

Significant \*\*P ≤ 0.01, \*P ≤ 0.05

**H1: Job stress has a negative impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees.**

The path coefficient for job stress is (-0.290), with a standard deviation of (0.053), a T-value of (5.457), and a P-value of (0.000). These values show that job stress has a statistically significant negative impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees ( $P \leq 0.01$ ). This supports H1, which states that job stress negatively affects job satisfaction.

**H1a: Responsibility pressure has a negative impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees.**

The path coefficient for responsibility pressure is (-0.167), with a standard deviation of (0.058), a T-value of (2.892), and a P-value of (0.004). This indicates a statistically significant negative impact on job satisfaction ( $P \leq 0.01$ ), supporting H1a.

**H1b: Quality concerns have a negative impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees.**

The path coefficient for quality concerns is (-0.208), with a standard deviation of (0.055), a T-value of (3.761), and a P-value of (0.000). This reveals a significant negative relationship ( $P \leq 0.01$ ), confirming H1b.

**H1c: Role conflict has a negative impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees.**

The path coefficient for role conflict is (-0.125), with a standard deviation of (0.049), a T-value of (2.559), and a P-value of (0.011). This result indicates a statistically significant negative impact on job satisfaction ( $P \leq 0.01$ ), supporting H1c.

**H1d: Job vs. non-job conflict has a negative impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees.**

The path coefficient for job vs. non-job conflict is (-0.177), with a standard deviation of (0.052), a T-value of (3.377), and a P-value of (0.001). This demonstrates a significant negative relationship ( $P \leq 0.01$ ), confirming H1d.

**H1e: Workload has a negative impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees.**

The path coefficient for workload is (-0.140), with a standard deviation of (0.048), a T-value of (2.936), and a P-value of (0.003). These results indicate a statistically significant negative impact on job satisfaction ( $P \leq 0.01$ ), supporting H1e.

## B. Second Main Hypotheses

Table (4.13): Second Hypotheses Path Analysis

	Path coefficient	Standard Deviation	T-Value	P-Value
Job Stress -> Emotional Intelligence	-0.177	0.084	2.107	0.035
Responsibility pressure -> Emotional Intelligence	-0.206	0.057	3.623	0.000
Quality concerns -> Emotional Intelligence	-0.162	0.064	2.514	0.012
Role conflict -> Emotional Intelligence	-0.167	0.050	3.356	0.001
Job vs. non-job conflict -> Emotional Intelligence	-0.239	0.053	4.500	0.000
Workload -> Emotional Intelligence	-0.250	0.053	4.676	0.000

### **H2: Job stress has a negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.**

The path coefficient for job stress is (-0.177), with a standard deviation of (0.084), a T-value of (2.107), and a P-value of (0.035). These values indicate a statistically significant negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees ( $P \leq 0.05$ ). This supports **H2**, which posits that job stress negatively impacts emotional intelligence.

### **H2a: Responsibility pressure has a negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.**

The path coefficient for responsibility pressure is (-0.206), with a standard deviation of (0.057), a T-value of (3.623), and a P-value of (0.000). This result demonstrates a statistically significant negative impact of responsibility pressure on emotional intelligence ( $P \leq 0.01$ ), supporting H2a.

### **H2b: Quality concerns have a negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.**

The path coefficient for quality concerns is (-0.162), with a standard deviation of (0.064), a T-value of (2.514), and a P-value of (0.012). This suggests a statistically significant negative relationship between quality concerns and emotional intelligence ( $P \leq 0.05$ ), supporting H2b.

**H2c: Role conflict has a negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.**

The path coefficient for role conflict is (-0.167), with a standard deviation of (0.050), a T-value of (3.356), and a P-value of (0.001). These results indicate a statistically significant negative impact of role conflict on emotional intelligence ( $P \leq 0.01$ ), supporting H2c.

**H2d: Job vs. non-job conflict has a negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.**

The path coefficient for job vs. non-job conflict is (-0.239), with a standard deviation of (0.053), a T-value of (4.500), and a P-value of (0.000). This demonstrates a statistically significant negative impact on emotional intelligence ( $P \leq 0.01$ ), supporting H2d.

**H2e: Workload has a negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.**

The path coefficient for workload is (-0.250), with a standard deviation of (0.053), a T-value of (4.676), and a P-value of (0.000). These results show a statistically significant negative impact on emotional intelligence ( $P \leq 0.01$ ), supporting H2e.

**C. Third Main Hypotheses**

Table (4.14): Third Hypotheses Path Analysis

	Path coefficient	Standard Deviation	T-Value	P-Value
Emotional Intelligence-> Job Satisfaction	0.710	0.038	18.754	0.000

Source: Researchers analysis using Smart PLS4

**H3: Emotional intelligence has a positive impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees.**

The path coefficient for emotional intelligence is (0.710), with a standard deviation of (0.038), a T-value of (18.754), and a P-value of (0.000). These values indicate a statistically significant and strong positive impact of emotional intelligence on job satisfaction among GACA employees ( $P \leq 0.01$ ).

**D. Fourth Main Hypotheses**

Table (4.15): Fourth Hypotheses Path Analysis

	Path coefficient	Standard Deviation	T-Value	P-Value
Job Stress-> Emotional Intelligence -> Job Satisfaction	0.126	0.058	2.158	0.031
Responsibility pressure-> Emotional Intelligence -> Job Satisfaction	0.047	0.019	2.449	0.014
Quality concerns-> Emotional Intelligence -> Job Satisfaction	0.037	0.020	1.999	0.027
Role conflict-> Emotional Intelligence -> Job Satisfaction	0.038	0.016	2.395	0.017
Job vs. non-job conflict-> Emotional Intelligence -> Job Satisfaction	0.054	0.020	2.698	0.007
Workload-> Emotional Intelligence -> Job Satisfaction	0.057	0.021	2.730	0.006

Source: Researchers analysis using Smart PLS4 Significant \*\* $P \leq 0.01$ , \* $P \leq 0.05$

**H4: Emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction among GACA employees.**

The indirect path coefficient is (0.126), with a standard deviation of (0.058), a T-value of (2.158), and a P-value of (0.031). This indicates that emotional intelligence significantly mediates the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction among GACA employees ( $P \leq 0.05$ ), supporting H4.

**H4a: Emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between responsibility pressure and job satisfaction among GACA employees.**

The indirect path coefficient is (0.047), with a standard deviation of (0.019), a T-value of (2.449), and a P-value of (0.014). These results show a statistically significant mediation

effect of emotional intelligence in the relationship between responsibility pressure and job satisfaction ( $P \leq 0.05$ ), supporting H4a.

**H4b: Emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between quality concerns and job satisfaction among GACA employees.**

The indirect path coefficient is (0.037), with a standard deviation of (0.020), a T-value of (1.999), and a P-value of (0.027). This suggests that emotional intelligence significantly mediates the relationship between quality concerns and job satisfaction ( $P \leq 0.05$ ), supporting H4b.

**H4c: Emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction among GACA employees.**

The indirect path coefficient is (0.038), with a standard deviation of (0.016), a T-value of (2.395), and a P-value of (0.017). These findings indicate a significant mediation effect of emotional intelligence in the relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction ( $P \leq 0.05$ ), supporting H4c.

**H4d: Emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between job vs. non-job conflict and job satisfaction among GACA employees.**

The indirect path coefficient is (0.054), with a standard deviation of (0.020), a T-value of (2.698), and a P-value of (0.007). This demonstrates that emotional intelligence significantly mediates the relationship between job vs. non-job conflict and job satisfaction ( $P \leq 0.01$ ), supporting H4d.

**H4e: Emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between workload and job satisfaction among GACA employees.**

The indirect path coefficient is (0.057), with a standard deviation of (0.021), a T-value of (2.730), and a P-value of (0.006). These results indicate a statistically significant mediation effect of emotional intelligence in the relationship between workload and job satisfaction ( $P \leq 0.01$ ), supporting H4e.

## Direct and Indirect Effects

Table (4.16): Total Effects Main Hypothesis

		Path coefficient	Standard Deviation	T-Value	P-Value
Direct Effect					
H1	Job Stress -> Job Satisfaction	-0.290	0.053	5.457	0.000
Indirect Effect					
H4	Job Stress-> Emotional Intelligence -> Job Satisfaction	0.126	0.058	2.158	0.031
	Total Effect	-0.164			

Source: Researchers analysis using Smart PLS4

The results in Table (4.16) show that job stress has a significant negative direct effect on job satisfaction, with a path coefficient of (-0.290), a standard deviation of (0.053), a T-value of (5.457), and a P-value of (0.000), confirming the strong adverse impact of job stress. The indirect effect mediated by emotional intelligence is positive, with a path coefficient of (0.126), a standard deviation of (0.058), a T-value of (2.158), and a P-value of (0.031), indicating a statistically significant mediating role of emotional intelligence. The total effect, combining both direct and indirect effects, is calculated at (-0.164), suggesting that while emotional intelligence mitigates some of the negative impact of job stress, the overall influence remains negative. These findings highlight the importance of addressing job stress directly while also enhancing emotional intelligence to improve job satisfaction.

Table (4.17): Total Effects Sub-Hypotheses (Responsibility pressure)

	Path coefficient	Standard Deviation	T-Value	P-Value
Responsibility pressure -> Job Satisfaction	-0.167	0.058	2.892	0.004
Responsibility pressure-> Emotional Intelligence -> Job Satisfaction	0.047	0.019	2.449	0.014
Total Effect	-0.120			

Source: Researchers analysis using Smart PLS4

The results in Table (4.17) indicate that responsibility pressure has a significant negative direct effect on job satisfaction, with a path coefficient of (-0.167), a standard deviation of

(0.058), a T-value of (2.892), and a P-value of (0.004). The indirect effect, mediated by emotional intelligence, is positive, with a path coefficient of (0.047), a standard deviation of (0.019), a T-value of (2.449), and a P-value of (0.014), showing that emotional intelligence plays a significant role in reducing the negative impact of responsibility pressure on job satisfaction. However, the total effect, combining both direct and indirect effects, is (-0.120), indicating that responsibility pressure still negatively affects job satisfaction overall, although the mediating influence of emotional Intelligence partially offsets the adverse impact.

Table (4.18): Total Effects Sub-Hypotheses (Quality concerns)

	Path coefficient	Standard Deviation	T-Value	P-Value
Quality concerns -> Job Satisfaction	-0.208	0.055	3.761	0.000
Quality concerns-> Emotional Intelligence -> Job Satisfaction	0.037	0.020	1.999	0.027
Total Effect	-0.171			

Source: Researchers analysis using Smart PLS4

The results in Table (4.18) demonstrate that quality concerns have a significant negative direct effect on job satisfaction, with a path coefficient of (-0.208), a standard deviation of (0.055), a T-value of (3.761), and a P-value of (0.000). The indirect effect, mediated by emotional intelligence, is positive, with a path coefficient of (0.037), a standard deviation of (0.020), a T-value of (1.999), and a P-value of (0.027), indicating that emotional intelligence significantly mitigates the negative impact of quality concerns on job satisfaction. However, the total effect, combining both direct and indirect effects, is (-0.171), showing that while emotional intelligence reduces some of the adverse effects, quality concerns still have an overall negative impact on job satisfaction.

Table (4.19): Total Effects Sub-Hypotheses (Role conflict)

	Path coefficient	Standard Deviation	T-Value	P-Value
Role conflict -> Job Satisfaction	-0.125	0.049	2.559	0.011
Role conflict-> Emotional Intelligence -> Job Satisfaction	0.038	0.016	2.395	0.017
Total Effect	-0.087			

Source: Researchers analysis using Smart PLS4

The results in Table (4.19) show that role conflict has a significant negative direct effect on job satisfaction, with a path coefficient of (-0.125), a standard deviation of (0.049), a T-value of (2.559), and a P-value of (0.011). The indirect effect, mediated by emotional intelligence, is positive, with a path coefficient of (0.038), a standard deviation of (0.016), a T-value of (2.395), and a P-value of (0.017), indicating that emotional intelligence plays a significant role in alleviating the negative impact of role conflict on job satisfaction. The total effect, combining both direct and indirect effects, is (-0.087), suggesting that while emotional intelligence reduces the adverse influence, role conflict still exerts an overall negative impact on job satisfaction.

Table (4.20): Total Effects Sub-Hypotheses (Job vs. non-job conflict)

	Path coefficient	Standard Deviation	T-Value	P-Value
Job vs. non-job conflict -> Job Satisfaction	-0.177	0.052	3.377	0.001
Job vs. non-job conflict-> Emotional Intelligence -> Job Satisfaction	0.054	0.020	2.698	0.007
Total Effect	-0.123			

Source: Researchers analysis using Smart PLS4

The results in Table (4.20) indicate that job vs. non-job conflict has a significant negative direct effect on job satisfaction, with a path coefficient of (-0.177), a standard deviation of (0.052), a T-value of (3.377), and a P-value of (0.001). The indirect effect, mediated by emotional intelligence, is positive, with a path coefficient of (0.054), a standard deviation of (0.020), a T-value of (2.698), and a P-value of (0.007), demonstrating that emotional intelligence significantly reduces the negative impact of job vs. non-job conflict on job satisfaction. The total effect, combining both direct and indirect effects, is (-0.123), indicating

that while emotional intelligence mitigates some of the adverse effects, job vs. non-job conflict continues to have an overall negative impact on job satisfaction.

Table (4.21): Total Effects Sub-Hypotheses (Workload)

	Path coefficient	Standard Deviation	T-Value	P-Value
Workload -> Job Satisfaction	-0.140	0.048	2.936	0.003
Workload-> Emotional Intelligence -> Job Satisfaction	0.057	0.021	2.730	0.006
Total Effect	-0.083			

Source: Researchers analysis using Smart PLS4

The results in Table (4.21) reveal that workload has a significant negative direct effect on job satisfaction, with a path coefficient of (-0.140), a standard deviation of (0.048), a T-value of (2.936), and a P-value of (0.003). The indirect effect, mediated by emotional intelligence, is positive, with a path coefficient of (0.057), a standard deviation of (0.021), a T-value of (2.730), and a P-value of (0.006). This indicates that emotional intelligence significantly mitigates the negative impact of workload on job satisfaction. The total effect, combining both direct and indirect effects, is (-0.083), showing that while emotional intelligence reduces the adverse influence, workload still has an overall negative impact on job satisfaction.

## **Chapter Five: Discussion**

### **5.1 Chapter Overview**

This chapter presents the conclusions drawn from the findings of this study, discussing them in relation to the previous studies and the existing literature. It also outlines the study's limitations and suggests recommendations besides directions for future research.

### **5.2 Conclusions Pertaining to the First Main Research Question and its Sub-Questions.**

- **What is the effect of job stress on job satisfaction among GACA employees?**
- **What is the effect of job stress dimensions (role conflict, workload, quality concerns, job vs. non-job conflict, responsibility pressure) on job satisfaction among GACA employees?**

The findings of this study indicate that job stress has a statistically significant negative impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees. Among the various dimensions of job stress, quality concerns exert the strongest negative influence on job satisfaction.

Additionally, job vs. non-job conflict and responsibility pressure emerged as major contributors to job dissatisfaction. While workload and role conflict also had a significant effect, their impact was comparatively lower.

These findings align with Person–Environment (P–E) Fit Theory, which posits that stress arises when there is a mismatch between an individual's characteristics (e.g., abilities, values, needs) and the demands of the work environment (e.g., workload, role expectations, available resources). This misalignment increases stress, which, in turn, negatively affects both emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. In other words, these findings confirm that when job demands—such as workload and role conflict—exceed an employee's capabilities or available resources, stress levels rise, ultimately impairing emotional intelligence and reducing job satisfaction.

Furthermore, the findings corroborate prior research. House et al. (1979) established that the five stress dimensions—responsibility pressure, role conflict, workload, quality concerns, and job vs. non-job conflict—all correlate negatively with job satisfaction. Similarly, Ahsan et al. (2009) identified a significant negative relationship between job stress and job satisfaction, emphasizing that workload pressure, family and financial demands, role ambiguity, and performance pressure contribute to elevated stress levels. Supporting these conclusions, Pecino et al. (2019) examined the Spanish public sector and found that role stress—encompassing role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload—negatively impacts job satisfaction.

The findings of the present study contribute to the broader literature by emphasizing the unique role of quality concerns as the most influential stressor affecting job satisfaction—an area often underrepresented in prior studies. By applying Person–Environment Fit theory in the context of the Palestinian public sector, the study provides a deeper understanding of how job stress manifests in politically and economically strained public institutions. This offers valuable insights for both local HR policy and cross-cultural organizational research.

### **5.3 Conclusions Pertaining to the Second Main Question and its Sub-Questions.**

- **What is the effect of job stress on emotional intelligence among GACA employees?**
- **What is the effect of job stress dimensions (role conflict, workload, quality concerns, job vs. non-job conflict, responsibility pressure) on emotional intelligence among GACA employees?**

The results of this study demonstrate that job stress has a significant negative impact on emotional intelligence (EI). Employees experiencing high stress levels struggle with key components of EI, including emotion appraisal, regulation of one’s own emotions and others’ s as well as the utilization. Among the five stress dimensions, workload and job vs. non-job conflict exhibit the strongest negative effects on EI. Conversely, while responsibility pressure, role conflict, and quality concerns also have significant negative

effects, the impact of role conflict is weaker compared to workload and job vs. non-job conflict.

These findings align with Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory, which suggests that individuals seek to acquire and protect valuable resources essential for goal achievement. Stress occurs when these resources are threatened or lost. Furthermore, the theory affirms the resource loss has a greater impact than resource gain, and often resulting in cycles of depletion or accumulation depending on resource availability.

As a cognitive ability, emotional intelligence (EI) serves as a personal resource that enables individuals to perceive, regulate, and manage emotions effectively. On the other hand, job stress, driven by excessive demands and limited resources, depletes cognitive and emotional reserves, impairing one's ability to process and regulate emotions.

A limited number of research examine the impact of job stress on emotional intelligence, however the present study aligns the findings of Sari and Saputra (2022) study which revealed that that higher work stress decreases both emotional intelligence and performance, while higher emotional intelligence enhances performance.

The findings of the present study underscore the critical need to address key workplace stressors—particularly role conflict, workload, quality concerns, job vs. non-job conflict, and responsibility pressure—to safeguard employee cognitive abilities to appraise, and regulate of one's own emotions and others' s as well as the utilization of emotions. Additionally, it helps fill the gap in research on job stress and satisfaction in the literature and within the Palestinian public sector context.

#### **5.4 Conclusions Pertaining to the Third Main Question.**

- **What is the effect of emotional intelligence on job satisfaction among GACA employees?**

The study found a strong positive relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction, confirming that employees with higher emotional intelligence tend to experience greater job satisfaction.

These findings align with the Affective Events Theory (AET) provides a robust framework for understanding how EI influences job satisfaction. AET posits that workplace incidents trigger emotional and cognitive responses, which subsequently shape employees' moods, attitudes, and behaviours. These responses, in turn, impact job performance, satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

Furthermore, the findings corroborate prior research. Angreni and Ardana (2020) demonstrated a positive correlation between EI, work motivation, and job satisfaction. Similarly, Miao et al. (2017) conducted a comprehensive meta-analysis on various dimensions of EI (ability EI, self-report EI, and mixed EI) and work attitudes, reporting significant positive effects on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions.

Brackett et al. (2010) focused on emotion-regulation ability (ERA) in a sample of secondary school teachers, revealing that ERA significantly enhanced job satisfaction and personal accomplishment while reducing burnout, with principal support serving as a moderating factor.

Furthermore, Azhar and Hassan (2014), who demonstrated that the five core constructs of EI—self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills—positively influence job satisfaction.

This study contributes to the literature by confirming the positive effect of emotional intelligence on job satisfaction in a high-stress, resource-constrained public sector context. By applying AET to a Palestinian governmental setting, it extends the theoretical understanding of how emotional intelligence supports employee well-being and satisfaction in environments shaped by political instability and limited organizational support. It also fills a gap in the literature, which has largely overlooked EI's role in job satisfaction within the Palestinian public sector.

## **5.5 Conclusions Pertaining to the Fourth Main Research Question and its Sub-Questions.**

- **Does emotional intelligence mediate the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction among GACA employees?**
- **Does emotional intelligence mediate the relationship between job stress dimensions (role conflict, workload, quality concerns, job vs. non-job conflict, responsibility pressure) and job satisfaction among GACA employees?**

The results indicate that all job stress dimensions—role conflict, workload, quality concerns, job vs. non-job conflict, and responsibility pressure—affect job satisfaction both directly and indirectly through emotional intelligence (EI), revealing a competitive mediating role.

This form of mediation arises when the direct and indirect effects operate in opposite directions. In this study, job stress has a direct negative impact on job satisfaction, while it simultaneously lowers emotional intelligence, which in turn has a positive effect on job satisfaction. As a result, EI helps mitigate the negative impact of job stress by acting as a personal resource that enables employees to regulate their emotions, manage workplace demands more effectively, and adopt constructive coping strategies. Rather than eliminating the influence of job stress, EI reduces its intensity, weakening its adverse effects on job satisfaction.

These findings align with several emotional intelligence theories—such as Salovey and Mayer’s Ability-Based Model, Goleman’s Competency Model, and Bar-On’s Emotional-Social Intelligence Model—which emphasize that EI influences how individuals perceive, interpret, and respond to stressful situations, thereby shaping work outcomes like satisfaction.

The findings also support the Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) model, which highlights the role of personal resources—like EI—in helping employees manage job demands and preserve psychological well-being. In this study, EI acts as a buffer, confirming its

protective role in stressful work environments. This is further reinforced by the ISR model (Individual–Stress–Response), which stresses the importance of perception and coping in the stress process. EI mediates these perceptions by enabling more adaptive emotional regulation and behavioral responses.

When compared with previous studies, the current findings are consistent with broader literature emphasizing EI's role in workplace outcomes. For instance, Angreni and Ardana (2020) found that EI moderated the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction, highlighting its protective influence. While their study treated EI as a moderator, this research identifies it as a mediator. Despite this conceptual difference, both studies underscore EI's importance in reducing the harmful effects of job stress.

Similarly, Dwaikat (2023) found that EI mediated the relationship between job stress and performance in Palestinian software companies. Though the outcome variable differed (performance vs. satisfaction), both studies emphasize EI's mediating role in translating stress into workplace outcomes.

Fransiska (2021) also confirmed EI's mediating role between job stress and job satisfaction, but reported a positive relationship between job stress and EI. In contrast, the current study found that higher job stress lowers EI. This discrepancy may be due to differences in participant demographics, cultural settings, or measurement tools used in each study.

By identifying emotional intelligence as a competitive mediator, this study offers a nuanced understanding of the underlying mechanisms between job stress and job satisfaction. Unlike traditional mediation—where the mediator transmits or reinforces the influence of the independent variable—competitive mediation reflects a situation in which the mediator counteracts or buffers the effect, resulting in opposing direct and indirect pathways. This creates a conceptual tension: while job stress reduces satisfaction directly, emotional intelligence, weakened by stress, works to protect satisfaction through its positive influence.

This insight contributes to both the JD-R model and emotional intelligence theory by showing that personal resources like EI can actively resist external pressures, rather than

passively transmitting their effects. Furthermore, by examining these dynamics within the Palestinian public sector, the study contributes to Contextualized Organizational Behavior Theory, providing valuable insight into how job stress and emotional intelligence interact in environments shaped by political instability, limited institutional resources, and high work-related demands.

## **5.6 Conclusions Pertaining to the Fifth Research Question.**

- **What is the level of job stress among GACA employees?**

The overall job stress indicates a moderate stress level among employees. Job stress levels vary across different dimensions, with responsibility pressure and workload showing the highest stress levels, while job vs. non-job conflict has the lowest. Employees feel the most stress from heavy responsibilities and fast-paced work, whereas stress related to decision-making and job interference with family life is lower. From a researcher's perspective, the heightened stress levels associated with responsibility pressure and workload may stem from inefficient task allocation, inadequate workload distribution, and a lack of time management training and onboarding programs.

In contrast, the lower stress levels related to job vs. non-job conflict could be attributed to fixed working hours. Additionally, the strong family and community support systems in Palestinian culture may enable employees to manage non-work responsibilities more effectively. Furthermore, supportive colleagues who help accommodate personal commitments contribute to reducing stress associated with conflicts between work and personal life.

These findings suggest that stress from responsibility and workload may significantly impact job satisfaction. Emotional intelligence, as a mediating factor, could help alleviate stress effects and improve job satisfaction, emphasizing the need for targeted interventions and EI training to enhance workplace well-being.

This study contributes to the understanding of occupational stress by providing a rare empirical account from the Palestinian public sector. It highlights how cultural factors—

such as strong family and community support systems—may help employees manage stress related to personal obligations, thereby reducing job vs. non-job conflict. At the same time, organizational structures like fixed working hours also play a role in minimizing such conflicts by offering work-life predictability. Conversely, structural issues such as poor workload distribution and unclear responsibilities intensify stress in areas like workload and responsibility pressure. These findings add a nuanced layer to job stress literature by showing how both societal and organizational contexts shape employees' stress experiences.

## **5.7 Conclusions Pertaining to the Sixth Research Question.**

- **What is the level of job satisfaction among GACA employees?**

The findings indicate that GACA employees experience a moderate level of job satisfaction, with the highest satisfaction reported in relation to interpersonal relationships (fellow workers) and work schedules. In contrast, the lowest satisfaction levels were associated with pay and physical working conditions, reflecting broader financial and environmental challenges.

From the researcher's perspective, the strong satisfaction with colleague relationships may be attributed to the fact that many employees have worked together since the establishment of GACA, fostering strong formal and informal social bonds. Similarly, high satisfaction with work schedules can be linked to the flexible working hours typical in the Palestinian public sector, where employees work thirty-five hours per week over five days.

Conversely, dissatisfaction with pay and working conditions appears to stem from economic inequality, stagnant salaries, and the effects of rapid workforce expansion. In addition, ongoing financial strain—caused in part by the delayed and withheld Palestinian tax revenues by the Israeli government—has constrained the Palestinian Authority's ability to increase wages or invest in workplace infrastructure.

The results further indicate that non-financial factors, such as interpersonal relationships, leadership, and a sense of responsibility, contribute significantly to job satisfaction.

Meanwhile, dissatisfaction related to pay, promotion opportunities, and physical working conditions highlights key areas for organizational improvement. In this context, emotional intelligence can serve as a valuable personal resource, helping employees cope with financial and environmental stressors and reinforcing its role in enhancing job satisfaction by balancing workplace challenges with positive interpersonal dynamics.

These findings contribute to the literature by showing that non-financial factors—such as strong workplace relationships and flexible scheduling—are powerful predictors of job satisfaction, even in economically strained environments. This contrasts with research in more developed economies, where financial compensation is often the dominant predictor of satisfaction. The results also offer important insights for policymakers, suggesting that fostering a positive work culture and maintaining flexibility can help sustain employee morale when financial resources are limited.

## **5.8 Conclusions Pertaining to the Seventh Research Question.**

- **What is the level of emotional intelligence among GACA employees?**

The findings indicate a high level of emotional intelligence (EI) among employees, with the strongest competency observed in the regulation of others' emotions. This suggests that employees are adept at managing interpersonal dynamics and supporting others emotionally in the workplace. From a research perspective, this strength may be attributed to the presence of strong interpersonal relationships, which likely foster competence in emotional regulation and contribute to a more positive work environment.

Conversely, areas for improvement include the ability to recognize subtle emotional shifts and the tendency to organize enjoyable events. These weaknesses may stem from a predominantly task-focused organizational culture, where emotional awareness is not explicitly prioritized. In such environments, employees may become proficient in task execution but less attuned to nuanced emotional cues or opportunities for informal social engagement.

This study contributes original empirical data on the emotional intelligence profiles of public sector employees operating within a high-stress, low-resource context. The results highlight both strengths—such as emotional regulation—and developmental gaps—such as emotional awareness and social initiative. These findings offer theoretical implications for understanding how organizational culture influences emotional intelligence development, and provide practical guidance for designing targeted EI training programs that balance emotional and task-oriented competencies.

## **5.9 Results Summary**

1. Job stress has a statistically significant negative impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees.
2. Responsibility pressure has a statistically significant negative impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees.
3. Quality concerns pressure has a statistically significant negative impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees.
4. Role conflict has a statistically significant negative impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees.
5. Job vs. non-job conflict has a statistically significant negative impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees.
6. Workload has a statistically significant negative impact on job satisfaction among GACA employees.
7. Among the key job stress factors affecting job satisfaction, quality concerns exert the strongest negative impact. Additionally, job vs. non-job conflict and responsibility pressure are major contributors to job dissatisfaction. While workload and role conflict remain significant stressors, their impact is comparatively lower.

8. Job stress has a statistically significant negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.
9. Responsibility pressure has a statistically significant negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.
10. Quality concerns have a statistically significant negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.
11. Role conflict has a statistically significant negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.
12. Job vs. non-job conflict has a statistically significant negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.
13. Workload has a statistically significant negative impact on emotional intelligence among GACA employees.
14. Emotional intelligence statistically significant and has a strong positive impact of on job satisfaction among GACA employees.
15. The results revealed a competitive mediation, where Emotional intelligence significantly mediates the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction among GACA employees.
16. Emotional intelligence significantly mediates the relationship between responsibility pressure and job satisfaction among GACA employees.
17. Emotional intelligence significantly mediates the relationship between quality concerns and job satisfaction among GACA employees.
18. Emotional intelligence significantly mediates the relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction among GACA employees.

19. Emotional intelligence significantly mediates the relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction among GACA employees.

20. Emotional intelligence significantly mediates the relationship between job vs. non-job conflict and job satisfaction among GACA employees.

21. Emotional intelligence significantly mediates the relationship between workload and job satisfaction among GACA employees.

23. The total mean of job stress across all dimensions, indicate a moderate level of stress among employees.

24. The total mean for emotional intelligence indicates generally high level of emotional intelligence among employees.

25. The total mean for job satisfaction is suggesting a moderate level of overall satisfaction among employees.

## **5.10 Recommendations**

Drawing on the findings of this study conducted among GACA employees, the following specific and targeted recommendations are proposed to reduce job stress, enhance emotional intelligence, and improve job satisfaction within the Authority.

### **1. Addressing High Responsibility Pressure**

**Delegation & Task Distribution:** Assign tasks more equitably across GACA departments by conducting internal audits of workload distribution. Encourage department heads to delegate operational tasks to mid-level officers where appropriate.

**Leadership Development:** Implement training programs for GACA managers and supervisors that focus on supportive leadership styles, clarifying accountability lines, and managing responsibility in high-stakes contexts such as border coordination and civil registry.

Shared Decision-Making: Form collaborative committees for high-impact decisions—especially those involving inter-ministerial or cross-border coordination—to reduce pressure on individual employees.

## **2. Managing Workload Stress**

- **Task Reallocation Based on Capacity:** Periodically assess employees' functional duties and redistribute tasks based on capacity, particularly in high-demand administrative and field offices.
- **Time Management Workshops:** Conduct practical workshops on tools like the Eisenhower Matrix to help staff differentiate and prioritize urgent versus routine tasks more effectively.
- **Flexible Work Policies:** Consider internal policies that allow for staggered schedules or compensatory leave in pressure-prone departments such as Civil Status or the Permits Unit—especially during political or crisis periods.

## **3. Reducing Role Conflict**

**Role Clarification Manuals:** Develop and distribute clearly defined role manuals or digital guides across GACA's divisions to minimize ambiguity and overlap.

**Improved Interdepartmental Coordination:** Schedule monthly cross-departmental meetings (e.g., between IT, Civil Affairs, and Field Operations) to align workflows and clarify boundaries.

**Conflict Resolution Training:** Provide public-facing employees with assertiveness and communication training to handle role ambiguity and conflicting expectations.

## **4. Managing Quality Concerns Stress**

- **Inclusive Operational Planning:** Involve employees at all levels in operational planning and process improvement discussions to increase ownership and reduce anxiety about quality expectations.
- **Ethical Decision-Making Training:** Provide scenario-based workshops on handling ethical and bureaucratic challenges—especially for staff responsible for sensitive cases such as permit approvals or personal documentation.

## **5. Addressing Job vs. Non-Job Conflict**

- **Work-Life Balance Initiatives:** Strengthen awareness and access to existing family support services (e.g., childcare allowance, emergency leave), and supplement them with wellness programs tailored for GACA staff, especially those in remote or high-pressure locations.
- **Career Growth Planning:** Coordinate with the Civil Service Commission to outline clearer promotion pathways and professional development opportunities, thereby minimizing frustration and feelings of stagnation.

## **6. Strengthening Emotional Intelligence to Mitigate Stress**

Given emotional intelligence's competitive mediating role, these interventions are essential to reduce the intensity of job stress and protect employee satisfaction.

- **Emotional Intelligence Training:** Incorporate EI development into GACA's employee training programs, focusing on self-awareness, emotional regulation, and interpersonal communication—particularly for employees working under political and social pressure.
- **Mindfulness and Resilience Programs:** Host monthly sessions on mindfulness techniques, stress reduction, and emotional resilience to support employees in emotionally demanding roles.
- **Peer Mentorship Systems:** Establish mentorship programs pairing senior and junior staff to build emotional coping strategies and encourage social support within the organization.

## **7. Organizational-Level Interventions**

- **Annual Job Stress Surveys:** Conduct anonymous surveys to monitor stress levels across GACA departments, allowing HR to make data-driven policy improvements.
- **Expanded Employee Assistance Programs (EAP):** Collaborate with the Ministry of Health or local NGOs to offer confidential counseling and mental health support to employees.

- **Open Communication Channels:** Foster a culture of feedback by creating regular staff forums or secure digital suggestion platforms where employees can express concerns and offer ideas freely.

### **5.11 Limitations of the Study**

1. **Self-report bias:** Participants may have overreported or underreported their levels of emotional intelligence, stress, or satisfaction.
2. **Cross-sectional nature:** The study captures data at one point in time, not allowing for causal inferences over time.
3. **Generalizability:** Unique characteristics of the General Authority of Civilian Affairs, such as its organizational culture and structure, may limit the applicability of the findings to other public sector organizations.

### **5.12 Future Studies**

Future studies could explore the following areas:

1. **Longitudinal Studies:** Assess how emotional intelligence, job stress, and job satisfaction evolve over time.
2. **Cross-Sector Comparisons:** Investigate whether the findings apply across different public sector departments.
3. **Intervention-Based Research:** Examine the effectiveness of EI training programs in mitigating job stress.
4. **Expanding Mediating Variables:** Explore additional mediators beyond EI, such as self-efficacy, self-determination, locus of control, work engagement, and organizational commitment.

5. Gender Differences: Analyse whether gender moderates the relationship between job stress, emotional intelligence, and job satisfaction.

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## Appendices

### Appendix (1) Questionnaire



**Arab American University**

**Faculty of Graduate Studies**

Dear Sir/Madam,

Greetings,

The researcher is preparing a master's thesis entitled "The Mediating Role of Emotional Intelligence in the Relationship Between Job Stress and Job Satisfaction Among GACA Employees," in fulfillment of the requirements for obtaining a master's degree in Human resources management from Arab American University.

This questionnaire is designed to collect information related to the study topic. Your honest and objective responses are crucial to ensuring the accuracy and reliability of the study's findings.

We assure you that all data collected will be used solely for academic research purposes and will be treated with the utmost confidentiality. Your participation is highly appreciated.

Thank you for your time and cooperation.

Respectfully,

Researcher: Hassan Mayyas

+970598595617

[Hassanjamell@gmail.com](mailto:Hassanjamell@gmail.com)

#### **Section One: Demographic Information**

Please answer the following questions by placing an "X" next to the appropriate response

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Sex	Male
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	Female
<b>Age</b>	Less than 20
	20 – less than 30
	30 – less than 40
	40 – less than 50
	50 and more
<b>Education</b>	bachelors
	masters
	Post graduate

<b>Section Two: Job Stress</b>		<b>How often are you bothered by each of the following in your work?</b>	<b>Not at all</b>	<b>rarely</b>	<b>sometimes</b>	<b>rather often</b>	<b>nearly all the time</b>
<b>Job Stress</b>	Responsibility pressure	Feeling you have too much responsibility for the work of others.					
		Having to do or decide things where mistakes could be quite costly.					
		Not having enough help or equipment to get the job done well					
	Quality concerns	Thinking that the amount of work you have to do may interfere with how well it gets done.					
Feeling that you have to do things that are against your better judgment							

		Feeling unable to influence your immediate supervisor's decisions and actions that affect you.					
	Role conflict	Thinking that you'll not be able to meet the conflicting demands of various people you work with.					
		Not knowing what the people you work with expect of you					
		Having to deal with or satisfy too many people					
	Job vs. non-job conflict	Feeling that your job tends to interfere with your family life					
		Being asked to work overtime when you don't want to					
		Feeling trapped in a job you don't like but can't get out of					
	Workload	How often does your job require you to work very fast?					
		How often does your job require you to work very hard (physically or mentally)					
		How often does your job leave you with little time to get everything done?					

Section Three: Job Satisfaction	Please indicate how satisfied or dissatisfied you feel with each of these features of your present job by placing a tick in the appropriate box.	I'm very dissatisfied	I'm moderately dissatisfied	I'm not sure	I'm moderately satisfied	I'm very satisfied
<b>Job Satisfaction</b>	The physical working conditions					
	The freedom to choose your own method of working					
	Your fellow workers					
	The recognition you get for good work					
	Your immediate boss					
	The amount of responsibility you are given					
	Your rate of pay					
	Your opportunity to use your abilities					
	Industrial relations between management and workers in your firm					
	Your chance of promotion					
	The way the organization is managed					
	The attention paid to suggestions you make					

	Your hours of work					
	The amount of variety in your job					
	Your job security					
<b>Section Three: Emotional Intelligence</b>	<b>To what extent do you agree with the following statements?</b>	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
<b>Emotional Intelligence</b>	I know why my emotions change					
	I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them					
	I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice					
	By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing					
	I seek out activities that make me happy					
	I have control over my emotions					
	I arrange events others enjoy					
	I help other people feel better when they are down					
	When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas					

	I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles					
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## Appendix (2) Arabic Questionnaire



Arab American University

Faculty of Graduate Studies

تحية طيبة وبعد :

يقوم الباحث بإعداد رسالة ماجستير بعنوان " الدور المعدل للذكاء العاطفي في العلاقة بين التوتر الوظيفي والرضا الوظيفي. أدلة من الهيئة العامة للشؤون المدنية في فلسطين" ، استيفاءً لمتطلبات الحصول على درجة الماجستير في إدارة الموارد البشرية من الجامعة العربية الأمريكية.. تم تصميم هذا الاستبيان لجمع المعلومات المتعلقة بموضوع الدراسة. إن إجاباتك الصادقة والموضوعية ضرورية لضمان دقة وموثوقية نتائج الدراسة. نؤكد لكم أن جميع البيانات التي تم جمعها سيتم استخدامها لأغراض البحث العلمي فقط وسيتم التعامل معها بأقصى قدر من السرية والخصوصية. مشاركتك موضع تقدير كبير .

شكرا على وقتك/ي وتعاونك/ي

مع فائق الاحترام

الباحث: حسن مياس

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القسم الأول: المعلومات الديموغرافية

نوع الجنس	ذكر أنثى
أي من الفئات التالية تتضمن عمرك؟	أقل من 20 20 أقل من 30 30 أقل من 40 40 أقل من 50 50 فأكثر
المستوى التعليمي	بكالوريوس ماجستير دراسات عليا (بعد الماجستير)

القسم الثاني: التوتر الوظيفي	كم عدد المرات التي شعرت بها بالإنزعاج من كل مما يلي في عملك؟	أبدأ على الإطلاق	نادراً	أحياناً	غالباً	تقريباً في كل الأوقات
ضغوط المسؤولية	الشعور بأنك تتحمل قدرًا كبيرًا من المسؤولية تجاه أعمال الآخرين .					
	الإضطرار إلى القيام أو اتخاذ قرار بشأن أشياء يمكن أن تكون الأخطاء فيها مكلفة للغاية					
	عدم وجود ما يكفي من المساعدة أو المعدات لإنجاز المهمة بشكل جيد					
التوتر الوظيفي	الإعتقاد بأن مقدار العمل الذي يتعين عليك القيام به قد يتعارض مع مدى جودة إنجازه					
	مخاوف بشأن الجودة	الشعور بأنك مضطر إلى القيام بأشياء تتعارض مع حكمك السليم				
تعارض الأدوار	الشعور بعدم القدرة على التأثير على قرارات وتصرفات مشرفك المباشر التي تؤثر عليك					
	الإعتقاد بأنك لن تتمكن من تلبية المتطلبات المتضاربة لمختلف الأشخاص الذين تعمل معهم.					

		عدم معرفة ما يتوقعه منك الأشخاص الذين تعمل معهم					
		الإضطرار إلى التعامل مع أو إرضاء عدد كبير جداً من الأشخاص					
الصراع بين الوظيفة و خارج الوظيفة		الشعور بأن وظيفتك تميل إلى التعارض مع حياتك العائلية					
		يُطلب منك العمل الإضافي عندما لا ترغب في ذلك					
		الشعور بأنك محاصر في وظيفة لا تحبها ولكنك لا تستطيع الخروج منها					
عبئ العمل		كم عدد المرات التي يتطلب فيها عملك العمل بسرعة كبيرة					
		كم عدد المرات التي تطلب فيها عملك منك العمل بجهد كبير جسدياً أو عقلياً					
		كم عدد المرات التي لا يترك لك فيها عملك سوى القليل من الوقت لإنجاز كل شيء؟					
<b>القسم الثالث: الرضا الوظيفي</b>		<b>ما مدى رضاك أو عدم رضاك عن الأمور التالية؟</b>	<b>أنا غير راضٍ تماماً</b>	<b>أنا غير راضٍ إلى حد ما</b>	<b>لست متأكدًا</b>	<b>أنا راضٍ إلى حد ما</b>	<b>أنا راضٍ جدًا</b>
الرضا الوظيفي		ظروف العمل المادية الملموسة؟					
		الحرية في إختيار أسلوب العمل الخاص بك؟					
		زمتك في العمل؟					
		التقدير الذي تحصل عليه مقابل العمل الجيد؟					
		رئيسك المباشر؟					
		حجم المسؤولية الممنوحة لك؟					
		معدل الراتب الخاص بك؟					
		فرصتك لاستخدام قدراتك؟					
		العلاقات بين الإدارة والموظفين في الهيئة التي تعمل معها؟					
		فرصتك للترقية؟					
		الطريقة التي يتم بها إدارة الهيئة؟					
		الاهتمام بالمقترحات التي تقدمها؟					
		ساعات العمل الخاصة بك؟					
		مقدار التنوع في عملك؟					
	الأمان الوظيفي الخاص بك؟						
<b>القسم الثالث: الذكاء العاطفي</b>		<b>حدد مدى إتفاقتك مع الجمل التالية :-</b>	<b>غير موافق بشدة</b>	<b>غير موافق</b>	<b>محايد</b>	<b>موافق</b>	<b>موافق بشدة</b>
		أنا أعلم لماذا تتغير مشاعري					

الذكاء العاطفي	أتعرف بسهولة على مشاعري عندما أشعر بها					
	أستطيع أن أعرف كيف يشعر الناس من خلال الاستماع إلى نبرة صوتهم					
	من خلال النظر إلى تعابير وجوههم، أدرك المشاعر التي يمر بها الناس					
	أبحث عن الأنشطة التي تجعلني سعيدا					
	لدي السيطرة على مشاعري					
	أرتب الفعاليات التي يستمتع بها الآخرون					
	أساعد الآخرين على الشعور بتحسن عندما يكونوا محبطين					
	عندما أكون في مزاج إيجابي، أكون قادراً على التوصل إلى أفكار جديدة					
	أستخدم المزاج الجيد لأساعد نفسي على الاستمرار في المحاولة في مواجهة العقبات					

" الدور المعدل للذكاء العاطفي في العلاقة بين التوتر الوظيفي والرضا الوظيفي. أدلة من الهيئة العامة للشؤون المدنية في فلسطين".

حسن جميل فرحان مياس

د. أحمد حرز الله

د. رائد عريقات

د. سلوى البرغوثي

## ملخص

تبحث هذه الدراسة في الدور الوسيط للذكاء العاطفي (EI) في العلاقة بين التوتر الوظيفي والرضا الوظيفي بين موظفي الهيئة العامة للشؤون المدنية (GACA) في فلسطين. ومن خلال تبني تصميم بحث كمي تقسيري، استهدفت الدراسة مجتمعًا مكونًا من 443 موظفًا في الضفة الغربية وقطاع غزة. وبسبب القيود في الوصول الناتجة عن العدوان الإسرائيلي على غزة، تكونت العينة النهائية من 183 موظفًا من الضفة الغربية، تم اختيارهم من خلال أسلوب العينة العشوائية البسيطة. جُمعت البيانات من خلال استبيان منظم وتم تحليلها باستخدام برنامج SmartPLS4. كشفت النتائج أن التوتر الوظيفي له تأثير سلبي دال إحصائيًا على الرضا الوظيفي، حيث كانت أبرز مصادر الضغط هي مخاوف الجودة، وضغط المسؤولية، والصراع بين الوظيفة وخارج الوظيفة. أظهر الذكاء العاطفي دورًا وسيطًا تنافسيًا، حيث ساهم بشكل كبير في تقليل الآثار السلبية للتوتر الوظيفي على الرضا الوظيفي. كما بينت الدراسة أن التوتر الوظيفي يؤثر سلبًا على الذكاء العاطفي، في حين أن الذكاء العاطفي يؤثر إيجابيًا على الرضا الوظيفي. وأظهرت النتائج الوصفية مستويات متوسطة من التوتر الوظيفي والرضا الوظيفي، ومستوى عالي عمومًا من الذكاء العاطفي بين المشاركين. تُسهم هذه الدراسة من الناحية النظرية في توسيع نماذج التوتر الوظيفي وتعزيز دور الذكاء العاطفي كوسيط ضمن بيئات القطاع العام ذات التوتر العالي. أما من الناحية السياقية، فهي تقدم فهمًا لتجارب الموظفين في بيئة اجتماعية وسياسية فريدة وصعبة. ومن الناحية العملية، تدعم النتائج الحاجة إلى تدخلات منظمة مثل برامج تنمية الذكاء العاطفي، وإعادة توزيع

عبء العمل، والتدريب على حل النزاعات، ووضع سياسات موارد بشرية داعمة لتقليل الضغط وتعزيز الرضا الوظيفي. وتشجع الدراسة على إجراء أبحاث مستقبلية بتصاميم طولية، واستكشاف تدخلات قائمة على التجربة، ودراسة متغيرات وسيطة إضافية مثل: الكفاءة الذاتية والانخراط الوظيفي. كما يُوصى بإجراء دراسات مقارنة عبر قطاعات عامة مختلفة أو بيئات ثقافية متنوعة لتوسيع قابلية تعميم النتائج وتطبيقها.

الكلمات المفتاحية: الذكاء العاطفي، التوتر الوظيفي، الرضا الوظيفي، الهيئة العامة للشؤون المدنية، فلسطين.