

Impact of Distinct Stressors on the Organizational Commitment of Employees in Service Industries

Swapna Jose¹

Harmandeep Kaur²

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Abstract

The study examines how distinct stressors impact the organizational commitment of employees in service industries within emerging economies. The systematic review spans the last five decades to address the research problem, with a focus on analyzing literature from the past decade. A bibliometric analysis was conducted, incorporating 38 articles, and supplemented by 18 open-ended interviews using convenience and quota sampling methods. The interpretational review revealed that specific organizational stressors exhibit a significant positive correlation with normative commitment ($=0.93$), a moderate relationship with continuance commitment ($=0.58$), and a weak positive relationship with affective commitment ($=0.41$).

The outcomes of the systematic review confirm that organizational stressors influence the organizational commitment of males and females differently. Notably, males tend to demonstrate higher normative commitment, while females exhibit higher affective and continuance commitment. The results further affirm that factors such as task demands, workload, and organizational politics predominantly impact males, whereas females are commonly influenced by family issues, personal matters, and personality clashes. Lastly, the repercussions of stress differ between genders, with males showing a higher prevalence of behavioral symptoms (48%), and females displaying psychological and emotional symptoms (59%).

Keywords: Affective commitment, normative commitment, continuance commitment, organisational stressors, gender, service sector

JEL Classification: D23, I18, I28, J28, J81

1. Introduction

Stress is a pervasive phenomenon, not new and manifesting at various life stages. Stranks (2005) defined it as the "disturbance of the body's natural equilibrium." Haque & Aston (2016) delved deeper, highlighting its frequent occurrence in the workplace and its potential to impact employees' efficiency and well-being, both positively and adversely. Given the focus on the service sector in this research, the phenomenon is examined within the context of this industry.

Sun & Chiou (2011) noted service as a popular aspect of modern tourism, emphasizing the crucial role played by service ground personnel in ensuring safety and smooth operations, particularly at service sectors. Despite being a significant contributor to the country's GDP, the service sector exhibits low organizational commitment and high stress levels among employees (Harvey, 2007; Oxford Economics, 2014). Furthermore, a recent survey by the British Psychological Society (2017) revealed that one in four employees in India's service sector faces health issues, indicating elevated workplace stress in this industry.

Adding to the understanding, Haque, Aston, & Kozlovski (2016) identified organizational factors as the primary stressors impacting workers' organizational commitment. However, their study focused on the IT sector, lacking sufficient insights from the service sector, especially considering gender differences. Therefore, this research encompasses on Indian service sectors to explore the

¹University of Northampton, swapna_jose@sribp.com

²Business and Management Faculty, Yorkville University, harmandeepkaur.257@yorkvilleu.ca

influence of organizational stressors on the organizational commitment of ground employees.

The aim of the paper is, "to investigate the organizational stressors' impact on the Service sector's employees' overall organisational commitment". The service sector has consistently been a significant contributor to India's GDP, yet there is a notable presence of heightened stress and increased employee turnover over the past decade (Harvey, 2007; Oxford Economics, 2014; BPS, 2017). Consequently, there is a pressing need to thoroughly investigate this research problem. Additionally, there is a scarcity of evidence regarding the impact of organizational stressors on organizational commitment, specifically in terms of gender, within the service sector. This research seeks to address this gap, contributing to the enrichment of the existing body of knowledge.

Moreover, prior studies by Haque & Aston (2016), Haque et al. (2017), Zehra & Faizan (2017), Zehra, Ather, & Zehra (2017), Nair et al. (2017), and Gok, Akgunduz, & Alkan (2017) have predominantly utilized quantitative methods. In contrast, recognizing the limitations of such an approach, the present study adopts a mixed-methods approach to overcome these constraints. Furthermore, the mentioned studies span various sectors, while this research is specifically tailored to the service sector. Consequently, this study not only contributes to the broader literature but also brings unique insights to the service industry.

2. Literature Review

The concept of stress has a historical presence in literature, dating back to the 1930s when Selye (1936) introduced it through the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) model. Stress, in its various forms, has enduring effects on human health, and prolonged exposure can lead to the development of chronic diseases (Selye, 1936, as cited in Stranks, 2005). In contrast, subsequent authors, such as Stranks (2005) and Haque & Aston (2016), have characterized stress as an "influencer" that disrupts the body's natural equilibrium.

Notably, Garg & Rani (2014) have contributed to the understanding of stress by highlighting its dual nature. Stress is not universally destructive; for some individuals, it can serve as a positive motivator. Garg & Rani (2014) categorize stress into eustress (good stress) and distress (bad stress). Furthermore, within the category of distress, two additional types emerge: hypo-stress (manageable stress) and hyper-stress (non-manageable stress) (ibid). These distinctions emphasize the nuanced nature of stress and its varying impacts on individuals.

The progression of stress through different stages is also acknowledged, as Ekundayo (2014) points out that stressors result from gradual shifts in these stages. This perspective adds depth to the understanding of how stress manifests and evolves over time.

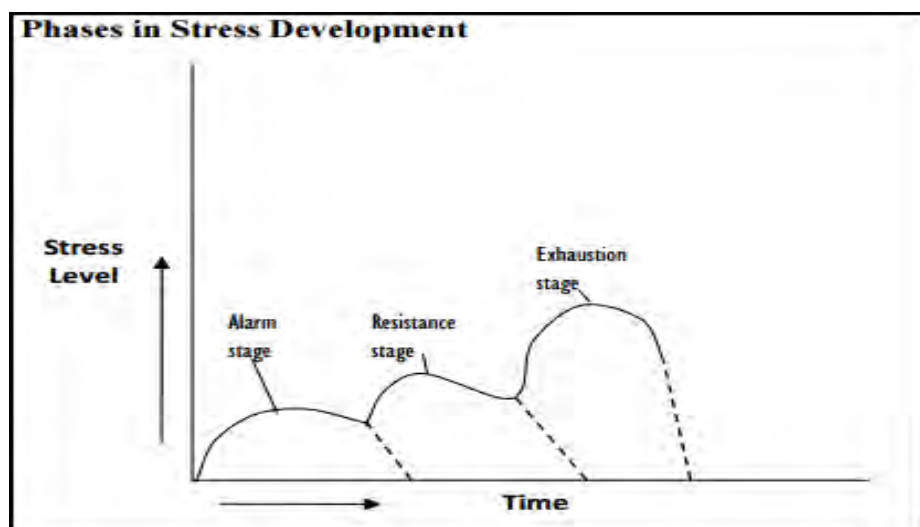


Figure 1: 'Phases in stress development' Oyetimein (2009)

According to Ekundayo (2014), positive stress can transform into negative stress when it reaches the highest degree. Scholars have commonly categorized stress into three stages: the "alarm stage," the "resistance stage," and the "exhaustion stage" (Levi, 1972; Oyetimein, 2009; Ekundayo, 2014). In the alarm stage, the body undergoes changes such as an increased pulse rate, improper digestion, elevated blood pressure, and rapid breathing (Ekundayo, 2014). The resistance stage is where the body decides whether to confront or avoid the stress, and if the defense mechanism fails, the exhaustion stage occurs (ibid). This final stage represents an overwhelming stress for the body, leading to the development of chronic stress. Oyetimein (2009) notes that serious consequences such as depression, cardiovascular problems, and diabetes can result from stress at the exhaustion stage.

Moving on to the causes of stress, various authors, including Stranks (2005), Haque & Aston (2016), Haque et al. (2016), and Zehra & Faizan (2017), have identified a range of factors. These include personality clashes, personal problems, financial issues, task demands, role demands, organizational structure, leadership style, organizational life cycle, interpersonal relations, political uncertainty, economic uncertainty, and technological uncertainty. While Stranks (2005) broadly categorizes these factors as personal, organizational, and environmental, this study specifically focuses on organizational factors to delve deeper into this perspective. Interestingly, Haque & Aston (2016) found that males often experience higher stress due to organizational factors, while females frequently experience stress due to personal factors. Organizational factors are primarily associated with the workplace environment and contribute to stress for workers (Haque & Aston, 2016). The organisational factors are listed in the table below:

Table 1: Self constructed based on the work of Stranks (2005) and Haque & Aston (2016)

Organisational Factors
Task demands
Role demands
Organisational structure
Leadership style
Life-cycle of the organisation
Interpersonal relations

As causes of stress vary among individuals, so do the resulting consequences. Stranks (2005) delineated three primary consequences of stress: behavioral, physical, and psychological symptoms. Haque et al. (2016) found that, in terms of gender, male employees tend to exhibit behavioral and physical symptoms, while females demonstrate psychological symptoms. However, conclusive evidence from the service sector regarding the specific types of consequences in terms of gender resulting from organizational factors is lacking.

Stress theories can be broadly classified into interactional and transactional theories. Interactional theories, rooted in earlier thinking, posit that stress arises from the interaction between an individual and their environment, emphasizing structural attributes (Haque & Aston, 2016). In contrast, transactional theories focus on the process by which stress occurs, considering the environment as dynamic and highlighting psychological aspects over physiological attributes.

The "person-and-fit" theory suggests that stress results from a mismatch between an individual and their environment during interaction. While this theory provides a strong foundation for scenario-based analysis, it overlooks the interconnectedness of job characteristics that may impact stress differently (Haque et al., 2016).

This model posits that distinctive job features affect mental conditions, leading to behavioral and

cognitive symptoms. While significant for considering psychological aspects related to job attributes, it falls short in explaining chronic stress complexities by focusing heavily on psychological states (Haque & Aston, 2016).

This precise model focuses on job features affecting employees' mental health, exploring coping abilities in terms of contentment, depression, and anxiety. Despite its specificity, there is limited empirical support, and inconsistent results pose challenges in explaining stressors adequately (Mark & Smith, 2008).

This model, proposed by Karasek (1979), links job demands and controls to psychological attributes. It incorporates psychological aspects and social support but lacks an explanation for multi-stressors simultaneously affecting individuals (Jovanovic et al., 2006; Mark & Smith, 2011).

Siegrist's (1996) model suggests that stress occurs when efforts and rewards are mismatched in the organization, focusing on subjective perceptions and the reciprocity concept. However, it falls short in considering internal processes linked to efforts and rewards, necessitating integration with other stress models (Haque et al., 2016).

This model comprehensively structures stress investigation, emphasizing individual differences and incorporating internal and external sources along with a feedback stage. However, it overly emphasizes resource differences and faces challenges in obtaining unbiased responses due to potential respondent bias (Mark & Smith, 2008; Haque & Aston, 2016).

This model, proposed by Demerouti et al. (2001), explores stress in physical and social dimensions, categorizing psychological attributes into job demands and resources. While widely used, limitations include a traditional emphasis on the environment and inconsistent results regarding personal resources as a mediating variable.

Mark & Smith's (2008) DRIVE model evaluates stress by including perceived job stress and explanatory variables. While simplistic and offering a comprehensive picture, limited empirical support and challenges in complex business environments and cross-cultural perspectives are noted (Haque & Aston, 2016).

After careful consideration, the DRIVE model of Mark & Smith (2008) is chosen for this research due to its balance of advantages and limitations.

Organisational commitment, the independent variable, represents the psychological bond between employees and organizations (Haque & Yamoah, 2014). Sheldon (1971) defines it as a positive intent exhibited by employees towards organizational tasks. Becker's (1960) Side-Bet theory introduced the commitment aspect through employees' active participation for the organization's interest. However, Porter, Steers, & Mowday (1979) argued that Side-Bet Theory inaccurately treats commitment as a result of financial rewards, emphasizing that organizational commitment is not solely dependent on financial incentives. The first conclusive definition by Porter et al. (1974) states that employees' voluntary efforts toward their organization reflect their commitment. Mowday et al. (1979) further categorized organizational commitment into three types: Affective, Normative, and Continuance Commitment.

Affective commitment, as elucidated by various authors such as Mowday et al. (1979), Allen & Meyer (1996), Haque & Aston (2016), Zehra et al. (2017), and Haque et al. (2018), is characterized by the voluntary efforts displayed by employees in pursuit of organizational goals, treating those goals as their own. Notably, Hemdi's (2009) work suggests that perceived organizational support does not influence affective commitment. However, Haque & Aston (2016) found that social support impacts the affective commitment of both male and female employees, resulting in lower levels of organizational stress among them.

Additionally, Haque et al. (2016) discovered that organizational stressors affect the affective

commitment of individuals of different genders in distinct ways. Both studies by Haque & Aston (2016) and Haque et al. (2016) underscore that males are significantly affected by task demands (an organizational stressor), while females are more influenced by interpersonal relationships (organizational stressors). Nevertheless, Ciceci (2012) argued that workplace stress negatively impacts affective commitment, while Somers (2009) found a positive association between them. However, despite these findings, there is still a lack of evidence from the service sector on this matter.

It is a type of the commitment exhibited by the workers through their willingness and openness to accept the organisational values as they have no hesitation in accepting those norms while viewing and fulfilling it as moral obligation (Mowday et al., 1979; Allen & Meyer, 1996; Haque & Yamoah, 2014; Haque & Aston, 2016). Furthermore, the work of Meyer et al., (2002) showed that in contrast to AC and CC, NC is relatively lower among the employees. On the other hand, the work of Haque & Aston (2016) revealed that overall males have higher NC in contrast to females. Moreover, the work of Ahmed & Yekta (2010) showed no significant relationship between the NC and perceived organisational support. Nevertheless, Haque et al., (2018) revealed that the NC is higher in the developing country in contrast to developed country. Somers (2009) argued that NC is positively affected by the workplace stress. Again, there are no conclusive studies from the service sector to confirm or contradict these findings.

Continuance commitment, as explained by various authors such as Mowday et al. (1979), Allen & Meyer (1996), Haque & Yamoah (2014), Haque & Aston (2016), Haque et al. (2016), Zehra et al. (2017), and Haque et al. (2018), reflects the employees' willingness to continue their affiliation with the organization. Interestingly, Somers (2009) discovered a positive correlation between continuance commitment and organizational stress. Cececi's (2012) work further highlighted that among the three commitment dimensions, affective commitment is more closely associated with organizational stress compared to normative and continuance commitment.

Contrarily, Haque et al. (2016) found that females exhibit higher continuance commitment than males, suggesting that females may have a greater inclination to resist various types of stressors. This adds a nuanced perspective to the understanding of continuance commitment in relation to gender and stress resistance.

H0: "The organizational stressors do not significant differently affect the service sector ground staff males and females' overall organizational commitment".

H0: "The organizational stressors do significant differently affect the service sector ground staff males and females' overall organizational commitment".

3. Research Methodology:

The research philosophy, according to Sekaran & Bougie (2012), reflects the beliefs and patterns followed by the researcher during the research commencement process. Positivist (quantitative), interpretivist (qualitative), and realism (mixed method) are commonly used research philosophies. Since the present research employs both qualitative and quantitative methods, realism is chosen as the research philosophy to allow for both numerical significance and exploration through interpretation.

Research designs, categorized by Sekaran & Bougie (2012) into longitudinal and cross-sectional, are two main types. Longitudinal is conducted over different time lags, while cross-sectional is carried out in one go with no time interval. The present research, completed within six months with a single response from each respondent, is cross-sectional. Sub-categorization based on gender and management layer, following Haque et al. (2017), makes this design more appropriate.

Nature-based research includes exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory types. As this research

explores cause-and-effect relationships, it is exploratory (Saunders et al., 2012).

Research approaches commonly include qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods. Quantitative methods focus on numeric expression and deductive approaches, while qualitative methods explore qualitative aspects using inductive approaches. Mixed methodology combines both. This research opts for a mixed methodology to gain numeric expression and exploration, following Haque & Aston's (2016) funnel approach.

Research instruments, used for obtaining data, include survey questionnaires and interview questions. The survey questionnaire, based on Haque & Yamoah (2014) and Haque & Aston (2016), contains both demographic and attitudinal/behavioral questions on a 5-item Likert scale. Interviews, using open-ended questions, target middle management for qualitative perspectives.

Sampling techniques, probability and non-probability, help approach target audiences. Probability ensures equal chances for each event, while non-probability allows for unequal chances. This research, due to limited resources and time, opts for non-probability sampling, specifically quota sampling for equal gender representation and convenience sampling for respondent convenience.

Sample size, a representative portion of the population, is determined using the marginal error formula. With a minimum of 36 respondents generated, the researcher concludes results based on 38 respondents' participation, exceeding the minimum.

The systematic approach starts with survey questionnaires manually circulated among ground staff, maintaining equal gender representation. Face-to-face interviews with middle-level staff follow, with data manually inputted into MS Excel. Statistical analysis using SPSS 23.0 is applied to questionnaire results, while proportional analysis is used for interview findings in Excel.

Validity and reliability are crucial in research. Construct validity is ensured by following the scales of Haque & Aston (2016) and Haque & Yamoah (2014). The DAB strategy is employed for validity and transferability. Reliability is assessed using Cronbach's alpha, resulting in a value of 0.78, indicating good reliability.

Ethical considerations are crucial, and a no-disclosure strategy is employed to ensure confidentiality. Respondents are informed about the research theme, given the option to quit anytime, and assured of anonymity. These strategies ensure ethical considerations are met.

4. Findings and Discussion:

The reliability test revealed that the Cronbach's alpha = 0.78, which is greater than the 0.7 and thus the items on the scale are reliable. In other words, there is internal consistency among the items on the scale.

Table 2: Reliability statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.78	.793	17

The above bar diagram reflects the 50% from each gender. It was ensured that the respondents have equal representation in the survey.

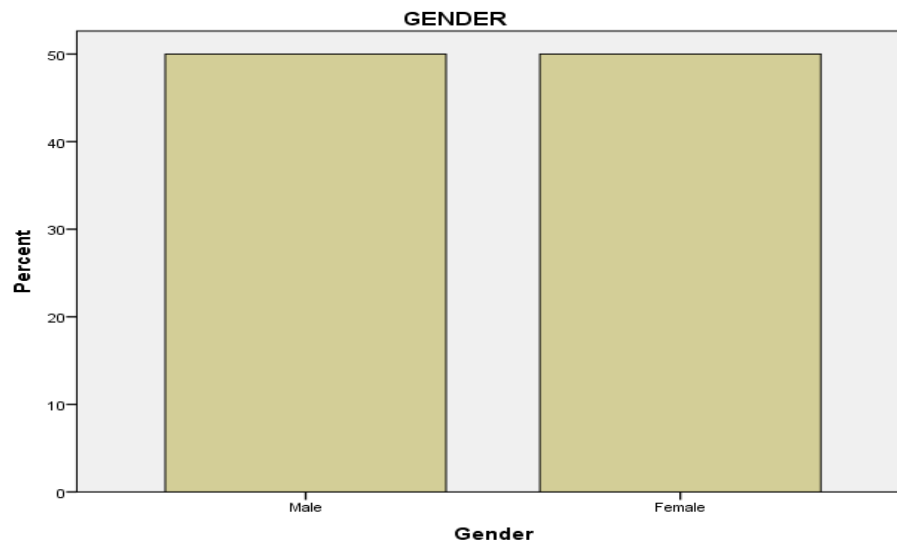


Figure 2: Gender representation in this research

The above figure reflects that the majority of the employees working at the service sector hold bachelors' degree (49.5%), while diploma holders are 35% and Masters only 19.6%.

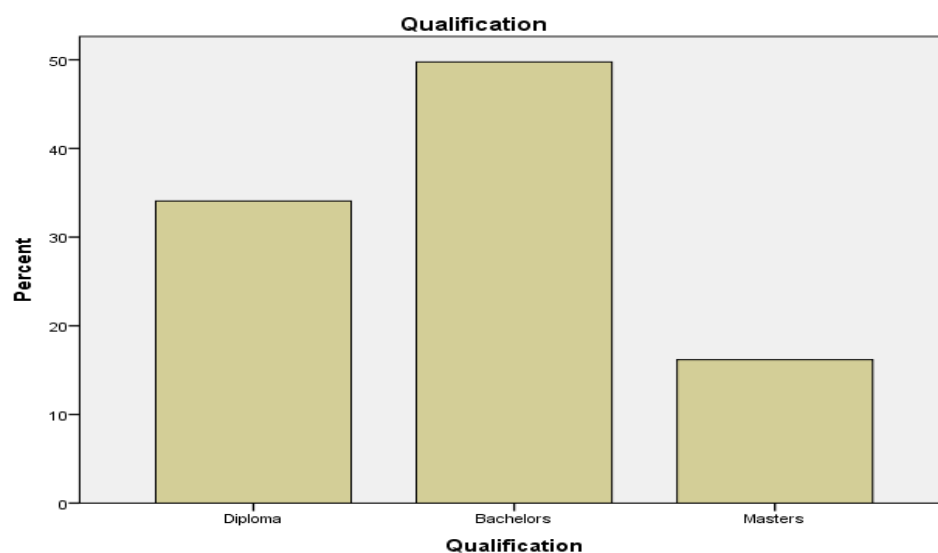


Figure 3: Qualification proportion

In the above figure, it is evident that the majority of the workers in the service sector fall into the bracket of 11 or above (37%), followed by 5-6 years (28%), 2-4 years (22%), and lastly 8-10 years (19%).

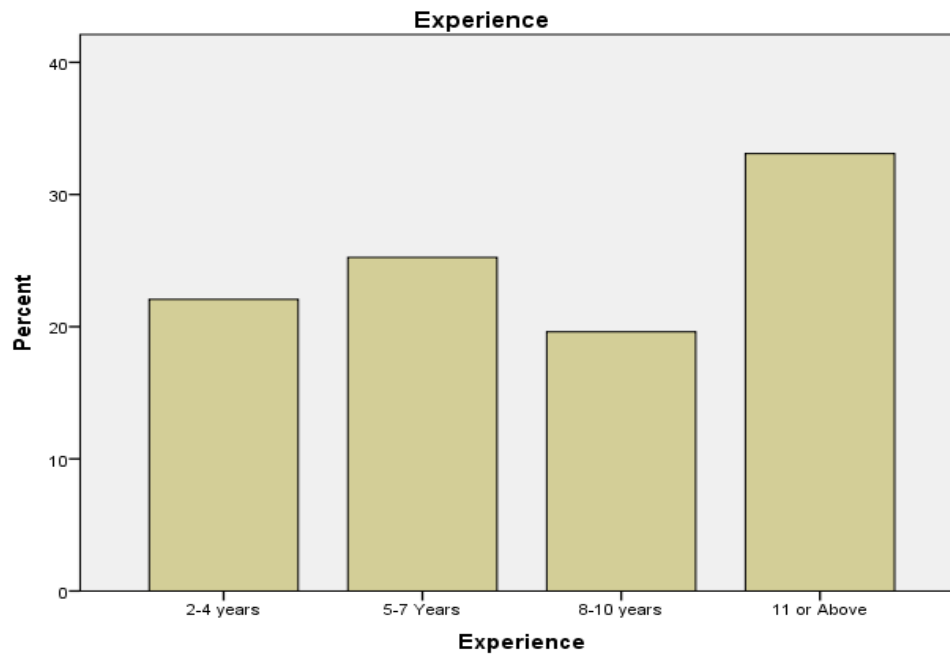


Figure 4: *Experience proportion*

To choose between parametric and non-parametric tests, the researcher employed the test of normality, specifically the Shapiro-Wilk test, to assess whether the data follows a normal distribution. The Shapiro-Wilk test is widely recommended in the literature for assessing normality (Walliman, 2001; Sekaran & Bougie, 2012; Haque & Aston, 2016; Zahid, Sheikh, & Zehra, 2017; Nair et al., 2017). The results indicated that the significance value (sig-value) is greater than the alpha value, satisfying the normality assumption ($p = 0.23 > 0.05$, $p > \alpha$).

Table 3: Tests of normality

Item	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Organisational Stressors	.107	38	.124	.963	38	.230

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

As the data is found to be normally distributed, the researcher opted for a parametric test. Consequently, Pearson's Correlation (parametric) was used instead of Spearman's correlation (non-parametric). This choice aligns with the assumption of normality in parametric tests.

Table 4: Correlation between variables of interest

Correlation Variables	Pearson Correlation	Sig Value	Results	Interpretation
Organisational Stressors & Affective Commitment	0.42**	0.03	$P < \alpha$	*
Organisational Stressors & Normative Commitment	0.91**	0.000	$P < \alpha$	****
Organisational Stressors & Continuance Commitment	0.56**	0.002	$P < \alpha$	**

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The table above indicates that organizational stressors exhibit a statistically significant positive correlation with all three dimensions of organizational commitment. Employing a two-tail test (**) for Pearson Correlation, the relationship between organizational stressors and normative commitment is strongly positive, approaching a perfect correlation. The obtained sig-value is extremely statistically significant, significantly lower than the alpha value ($=0.0000 < 0.05$, $p < \alpha$).

Similarly, the correlation between organizational stressors and continuance commitment is statistically highly significant, although the relationship is positively moderate, just exceeding 0.5. Nevertheless, the correlation remains statistically highly significant, as evidenced by the upward slope and a sig-value lower than the alpha value ($=0.002 < 0.05$, $p < \alpha$), indicating that the value falls within the critical region.

Lastly, organizational stressors exhibit a weak positive correlation with affective commitment (0.42). Again, the sig-value is less than the alpha, indicating a statistically significant relationship ($=0.03 < 0.05$, $p < \alpha$). This study largely confirms the correlation between the variables of interest, supporting the findings of Haque & Aston (2016). Furthermore, all three dimensions of organizational commitment show a positive correlation with organizational stressors, opposing the findings of Cecie (2012) and Somers (2009) in this regard.

Independent t-test:

In order to test the research hypothesis, the researcher ran two independent t-tests for males and females. Since, the results from the Levene's test revealed that the equality variances criteria have been obtained therefore only the results from the equality of variances are stated below.

Table 5: Independent samples test for males

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Organisational Stressors	Equal variances assumed	1.051	.000	11.140	37	.000	.761	.105	.245	.373
Affective Commitment	Equal variances assumed	2.135	.000	5.573	37	.0031	.241	.132	.283	.455
Normative Commitment	Equal variances assumed	1.231	.001	8.4216	37	.000	.625	.171	.588	.777
Continuance Commitment	Equal variances assumed	2.206	.001	3.568	37	.002	.447	.113	.150	.298

The table above reveals that organizational stressors significantly impact the affective, normative, and continuance commitment of male employees. Notably, normative commitment is most significantly affected by organizational stressors ($=0.000 < 0.05$, $p < \alpha$), indicating an extremely significant influence on the normative commitment of male employees. This aligns with previous empirical studies by Hemdi (2009), Haque & Aston (2016), and Haque et al. (2017), while differing to some extent from the findings of Hemdi (2009), Somers (2009), Cecei (2012), and Haque & Yamoah (2014).

Furthermore, the test results indicate that the affective and continuance commitment of male

employees are also significantly affected to a certain extent ($AC=0.031 < 0.05$, $p < \alpha$, $CC=0.02 < 0.05$, $p < \alpha$). Therefore, the current findings are in line with the work of Somers (2009), Cecei (2012), Haque & Yamoah (2014), while showing partial differences with the findings of Haque & Aston (2016), Haque et al. (2017), and Zehra & Faizan (2017).

Table 6: Independent samples test for females

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Organisational Stressors	Equal variances assumed	1.034	.000	13.440	37	.001	.316	.106	.225	.353
Affective Commitment	Equal variances assumed	.043	.001	7.476	37	.001	.122	.112	.053	.521
Normative Commitment	Equal variances assumed	1.289	.003	1.262	37	.116	.170	.109	.494	.486
Continuance Commitment	Equal variances assumed	2.506	.001	1.142	37	.023	.824	.108	.610	.481

For female respondents, the results indicate that organizational stressors have a significant impact on affective commitment but do not affect normative and continuance commitment. The significance values for affective commitment and continuance commitment are lower than the alpha value, indicating that the values lie in the critical region ($AC=0.001 < 0.05$, $p < \alpha$, $CC=0.023 > 0.05$, $p > \alpha$). Thus, from a gender perspective, it is confirmed that organizational stressors significantly affect the affective commitment and continuance commitment of both males and females. These results align with the findings of Cecei (2012) while differing from the results of Haque & Aston (2016) and Haque et al. (2018).

However, normative commitment does not fall into the critical region, indicating that organizational stressors do not significantly affect it ($NC=0.116 > 0.05$, $p > \alpha$) among female employees at the service sector. This suggests that the present findings significantly differ from the work of Haque & Yamoah (2014) and Zehra & Faizan (2017). Moreover, based on the statistical results, there is strong evidence against the null hypothesis, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis.

The researcher adapted the Haque et al., (2017) funnel approach to examine the variation within the types of organisational stressors among the contrasting gender working at the service sector.

Table 7: Funnel Approach - Type of organisational stressors

Organisational Factors	Males	Females
Task demands	43%	13%
Role demands	9%	11%
Organisational structure	3%	4%
Leadership style	22%	6%
Life-cycle of the organisation	15%	9%
Interpersonal relations	8%	57%

The table above clearly indicates that the types of organizational stressors vary between genders. Task demand emerges as the most common cause of stress for male employees, while interpersonal relationships are a more significant stressor for females (43% for males and 57% for females). This study's findings align with those of Haque & Aston (2016), Haque et al. (2017), Nair et al. (2017), Zehra & Faizan (2017), and Haque et al. (2018).

Table 8: Funnel Approach - Consequences of Stress

Organisational Factors	Males	Females
Behavioural	42%	28%
Physical	31%	18%
Psychological	27%	54%

Interestingly, the results reveal that organizational stressors have different consequences for males and females. Among males, stress tends to manifest more in behavioral consequences (42%), followed by physical symptoms (31%), and finally, psychological effects (27%). In contrast, females experiencing stress exhibit higher levels of psychological symptoms (54%), followed by behavioral (28%) and physical symptoms (18%). These findings align with the results reported by Haque & Aston (2016) and Haque et al. (2018).

Interview Findings and Discussions:

The researcher achieved saturation after conducting 12 interviews with middle-level employees. Thematic analysis was employed, involving labeling, coding, frequency distribution, and drawing proportional analysis using MS Excel 2010. The interviews aimed to delve deeper into the variations after establishing the numerical relationships. The results are presented through pie charts and bar diagrams in this section.

Since the researcher opted for the equal split using quota sampling therefore 50% each males and females were considered for the interviews.

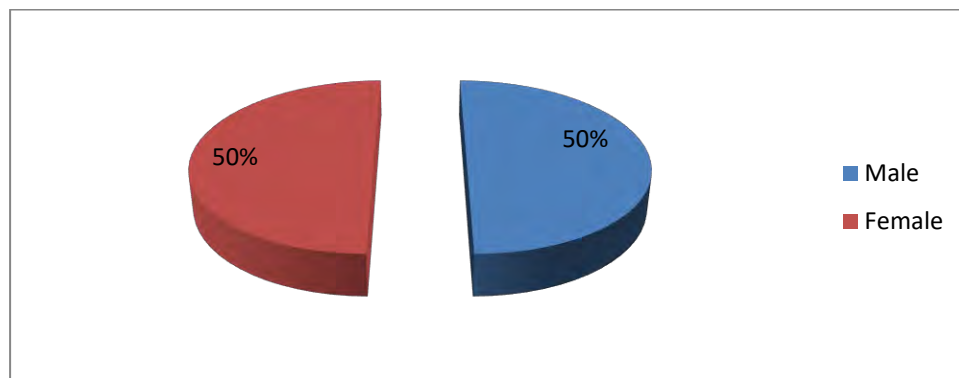


Figure 5: Gender - proportion

It is evident that in the research, most of the employees in the middle management hold bachelors' degree (42%), followed by Masters (33%), and all other constitute remaining.

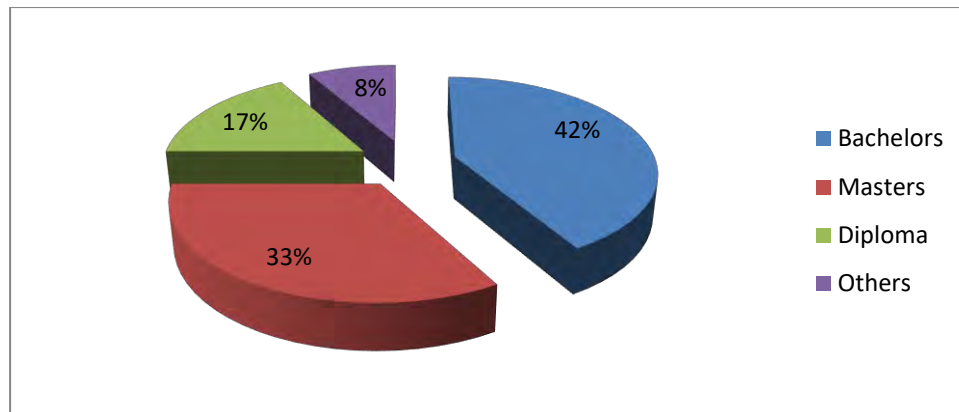


Figure 6: *Qualification – proportion*

The middle management is highly rich in terms of experience as evident that one-third (33%) of the participants have 13-to-14 years experience whereas there is equal 17% on both sides of it (11-12 years experience = 17% and over 15 years experience = 17%). Thus, it can be said that the sample is highly experienced in the service sector.

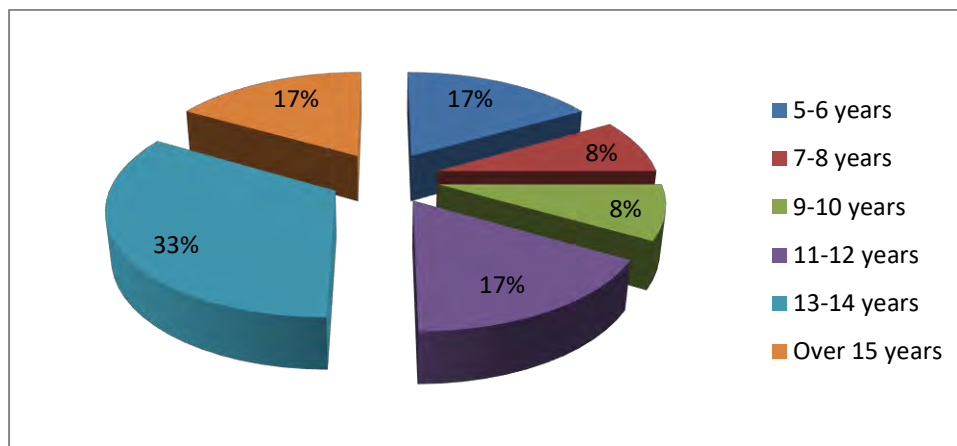


Figure 7: *Experience - proportion*

The participants were asked about their opinion regarding the existing stress inside the organisation and the service sector as whole. Interestingly, results showed that irrespective of the gender, the majority of the respondent confirmed that the service sector has relatively higher stress but at the service sector still it is relatively lower (82% against 18%). On exploring the question further, it is learnt that the service sector follows restricted times, which gives the employees enough time to spend with their families (65%).

Furthermore, the researcher explored the antecedents of the organisational commitment within the contrasting gender and results showed that males have higher normative commitment while females have higher continuance and affective commitment. Considering normative commitment, this study supports the findings of the Haque & Aston (2016) while partially support the same authors work in the affective and normative commitment. Nevertheless, the study of Haque & Aston (2016) found those traces in the developing country's IT sector while here the findings are from the developed country's service sector.

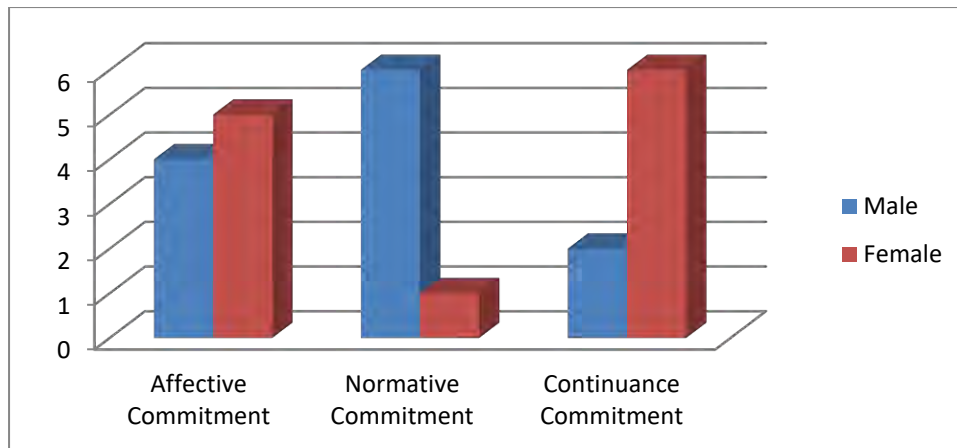


Figure 8: *Organisational commitment among contrasting gender*

The findings are consistent with the survey results. It is evident that females have higher stress caused by interpersonal relationship (50%) whereas males experience higher stress due to task demands (33%). Therefore, the present findings are aligned with the previous studies of Haque & Aston (2016), Haque et al., (2017), Nair et al., (2017), Zehra & Faizan (2017), and Haque et al., (2018). On probing further, it is evident that those males having prolong working hours and excessive workload considered task demand while females working in close collaboration with other females have higher personality clashes. Interestingly, this means that the current findings support the work of Haque et al., (2017) and Haque et al., (2018).



Figure 9: *Types of Organisational stressors affecting contrasting gender*

The above figure showed that the females working at the managerial level considers the psychological symptoms higher (66%) whereas males confirmed behavioural symptoms (58.3%). Thus, the present findings are aligned with the quantitative findings. Moreover, this also shows that the present findings (quantitative as well as qualitative) findings support the work of Haque & Aston (2016) and Haque et al., (2016). On exploring the aspect, it is learnt that females have higher psychological issues because of the extra workload; especially single mothers have family issues that leads to develop psychological (cognitive and emotional) symptoms. Again, the present study supports the work of Haque & Aston (2016), Haque et al., (2016), and Haque et al., (2018).

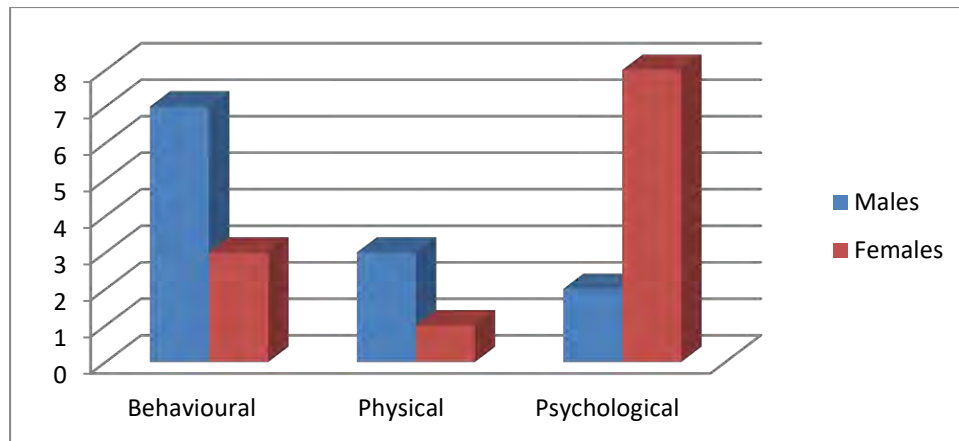


Figure 10: *Consequences of stress affecting contrasting gender*

5. Conclusion & Recommendations

The study's findings provide comprehensive insights into the relationship between organizational stressors and different dimensions of organizational commitment, considering the gender perspective. The positive correlations between organizational stressors and normative, continuance, and affective commitment suggest that stressors in the workplace have a significant impact on employees' overall commitment to the organization.

The research contributes to the existing literature by revealing that normative commitment is particularly influenced by organizational stressors, aligning with the work of Haque et al. (2017), Haque & Aston (2016), and Hemdi (2009). The results also highlight variations in the impact of stressors on males and females. Males exhibit higher normative commitment, while females demonstrate higher affective and continuance commitment. These gender-specific differences in the consequences of organizational stressors emphasize the need for a nuanced understanding of the relationship.

The study's support for the work of Cecei (2012) and Haque & Yamoah (2014) in certain aspects, along with differences from other studies, underscores the complexity of the relationship between organizational stressors and commitment. The identification of specific stressors affecting males and females differently, such as task demands for males and interpersonal relationships for females, adds valuable context to the findings.

The recognition of distinct consequences of stress for males and females, with males exhibiting more behavioral effects and females demonstrating more psychological symptoms, contributes to a deeper understanding of the gender-specific manifestations of workplace stress.

In conclusion, this research enhances the understanding of the organizational commitment-stress relationship, particularly in the service sector, and emphasizes the importance of considering gender-specific dynamics. The findings can guide organizational interventions and policies to address stressors effectively, promoting a healthier and more committed workforce.

This study contributes in several ways but the most important of all is that it contributes to enhance the body of knowledge. The literature related to the organisational stress and organisational commitment, especially in the service sector benefits from this study. Moreover, the previous studies were largely quantitative in nature while this research considered mixed methodology. Thus, to some extent, this study robust the methodology and offers a new way to examine the variables of interest. Nevertheless, most of the studies considered is from the recent years but this study further updates the literature by exploring the phenomenon in current year. Therefore, the study contributes to the literature, especially considering the DRIVE model in the complex business environment whereas previously there were no conclusive evidence regarding its usage

in recent times.

Despite the valuable contributions of this study, several limitations should be acknowledged:

The limited sample size, consisting of 38 survey respondents and 12 interview participants, may hinder the generalizability of the findings to the entire service sector. Future research could benefit from a larger and more diverse sample to enhance external validity.

The cross-sectional research design, involving a single interaction with respondents, might not capture potential variations in responses over time. Longitudinal designs could provide a more nuanced understanding of the dynamic relationship between organizational stressors and commitment.

Conducting one-to-one interviews without involving industry experts through a panel interview or Delphi technique may limit the depth of insights. Future studies could explore additional perspectives by including expert opinions.

Researchers conducting future studies in this domain are encouraged to consider the following:

Enlarge the sample size and diversify cases (e.g., multiple service sectors) for a more comprehensive analysis.

Utilize panel interviews or the Delphi technique to incorporate insights from industry experts.

Employ a longitudinal research design to explore variations in responses over different time periods.

Service sectors seeking to enhance organizational commitment and address stressors can consider the following recommendations:

Engage occupational therapists to assist employees in managing work-related stress.

Divide task demands strategically, considering the gender-specific impacts observed in the study.

Form gender-diverse teams to improve collaboration and reduce stress related to interpersonal relationships.

Conduct workshops with service professionals to educate and motivate employees, potentially reducing turnover.

Offer stress-management seminars and sessions to help employees cope with workplace stressors effectively.

These recommendations aim to address the identified limitations and offer practical steps for future researchers and service sectors alike. By implementing these suggestions, organizations can foster a healthier work environment and enhance employee commitment.

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