Stereotype Threat and Job Performance:Role of Hedonic Wellbeing, Coping Strategy and Workplace Ostracism among Teachers

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DECLARATION

I, Almaas Sultana, hereby declare that the work presented herein is genuine, work done originally by me and has not been published or submitted elsewhere for the requirement of a degree programme. Any literature data or work done by others cited in this dissertation has been given due acknowledgment and listed in the reference section.

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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the dissertation titled "**Stereotype Threat and Job Performance: Role of Hedonic Wellbeing, Coping Strategy and Workplace Ostracism among Teachers"** carried out by Ms. Almaas Sultana D/o Md. Aslam and Rukhsana Siddiqui have been accomplished as a duly registered Ph.D. research scholar of Lovely Professional University (Phagwara), under my guidance and supervision. This dissertation is being submitted by her in the partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the Doctor of Philosophy in Education from Lovely Professional University.

Her dissertation represents his original work and is worthy of consideration for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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ABSTRACT

This study explored the influence of stereotype threat on job performance of the teachers with Hedonic wellbeing, coping strategy and workplace ostracism as mediators. The experience of stereotype threat negatively impacts the performance of individuals. Mostly people are judged because of negative or deleterious stereotypes prevalent related to one's social-identity. Every individual is associated with at least one social identity. Individuals' group membership(s) includes one's ethnicity, race, gender, age, and religious affiliation. Stereotypes about a person's group membership(s) can either be a positive or negative stereotype. These negative and positive stereotypes elicit a wide array of emotions. Negative responses are the aftermaths of negative stereotypes faced by the target. These aftermaths of negative stereotypes further are manifested in the reactions of the target which includes performance on task-assigned, motivation for the task and his/her self-esteem. It was stated by the previous researchers that there are some physiological and psychological variables which mediate the relation shared by stereotype threat and job performance. But very few studies have tried to explore those underlying mechanism due to which stereotype threat affects the job performance.

The objectives of this present investigation were to explore the factors which activate the experience of stereotype threat in an individual and to establish the type of relation stereotype threat (ST) shares with job performance (JP) in an academic context. The study also intends to study the relationship between Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) and coping strategy (COPE), Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) and Workplace ostracism (WOS) and coping strategy (COPE) and workplace ostracism (WOS). Finally, the role of hedonic wellbeing (HWB), workplace ostracism (WOS) and coping strategy (COPE) were also studied on the stereotype threat (ST) and job performance (JP) link.

The study was conducted on 591 school teachers of Uttar Pradesh. For collecting data stereotype threat and job performance scales was developed by the investigator whereas for other variables like tokenism, Hedonic wellbeing, workplace ostracism, and coping strategy were adapted. The results revealed that

gender, religion, caste category, and tokenism activate the acquaintance of stereotype threat among teachers. The study also explored that the experience of stereotype threat among teachers negatively impacts their job performance. Further analysis revealed that hedonic wellbeing positively effects coping strategy whereas Hedonic wellbeing and coping strategy negatively affects the experience of workplace ostracism among teachers.

The mediation analysis for variables Hedonic wellbeing, Coping Strategy and workplace ostracism on the mechanism of stereotype threat and job performance link advocates about the existence of a negative relationship between Stereotype threat (ST) and Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) and a positive relationship between Hedonic wellbeing and Job Performance (JP). For another variable coping strategy it indicated the existence of a negative relationship between Stereotype threat (ST) and Coping Strategy (COPE) and a positive relationship between Coping Strategy (COPE) and Job Performance (JP). Lastly, for variable workplace ostracism, the analysis specified the presence of a positive relationship between Stereotype threat (ST) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS) and negative relationship between Workplace Ostracism (WOS) and Job Performance (JP). Therefore, the outcomes of the mediation analysis revealed that hedonic wellbeing, coping strategy, and workplace ostracism partially mediated the relation shared by stereotype threat and job performance.

STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

The present thesis is structured into six chapters. The chapters are presented as:

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

In the present study, chapter I provides a brief introduction about the constructs Viz. Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB), Coping Strategy (COPE), Workplace Ostracism (WOS), Stereotype Threat (ST), Tokenism (TOK) and Job Performance (JP). The chapter also highlights the effects of Stereotype Threat (ST) on Job Performance (JP). In the present study, the researcher has built a framework of Stereotype threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP) considering Hedonic wellbeing (HWB), Coping Strategy (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS) as underlying psychological variables which affect their relationships.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

The present chapter deals with the past literature on the concept of Stereotype Threat (ST), Job Performance (JP), Tokenism (TOK), Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB), Coping Strategy (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS). The chapter also presents the literature on the conceptualization of Stereotype Threat (ST) and its effect on Performance. The chapter presents a wide range of literature review by various researchers who conducted researches in the respective areas. The reviews presented in the chapters identified the research gaps and thus provided a guideline in the formation of objectives and hypothesis for the present study.

CHAPTER III RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The present chapter deals with the research methods used in the present study. This chapter provides an overview of the sample size, Sampling Frame, Sampling Techniques and the Research Design. The chapter further contains the proposed hypothesis for the framed objectives. It also highlights the statistical tools and techniques to be used to interpret collected data.

CHAPTER IV: SCALE VALIDATION

The present chapter in the study deals with the procedure followed by the researchers in the development of the scales. In the present study, the researcher has followed the guidelines of scale development suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) and Henkin (1995). To measure stereotype threat (ST), Job Performance (JP), Hedonic wellbeing (HWB), Tokenism (TOK), Coping Strategy (COPE), and Workplace Ostracism (WOS) a theoretically anchored, reliable and valid scales were used which was developed by facing stages viz, review of the literature, experts views, content validity, pilot testing, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).

CHAPTER V: DATA ANALYSIS

In the present study, the chapter deals with the testing of the conceptual framework taken in the study. The conceptual framework has been tested in two phases- first, the effect of Stereotype Threat (ST) on Job performance (JP) is validated and then the relationship between variables Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB), Coping Strategy (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS) has been tested with each other in the framework. After testing of the conceptual model mediation analysis was performed.

The mediation analysis was performed to explore the effects of mediators on the link between Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job performance (JP). The mediators considered are Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB), Coping Strategy (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism. Each variable is tested separately to check the mediation effect of their on the ST JP link.

CHAPTER VI: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

The present chapter discusses the key findings from the objectives of the study. The chapter also describes the various implications and future direction for further research.

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CHAPTER – I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. STEREOTYPE THREAT

The stereotype is a Greek term which is a combination of two words 'Stereos' + 'Typos'. The word Stereos stands for a firm or solid and Typos stands for impression. Therefore, the word stereotype signifies concrete imprint on one or more ideas or theory. It was an American journalist Lipmann (1922) who first used the word stereotype in a modern psychological sense in his work Public Opinion and the outcomes of empirical tests of stereotypes were first made available by Katz and Braly (1933). Lippmann (1922) described stereotype as a 'Pseudo-environment' or 'fiction' and Katz and Braly (1933) described it as an unfounded and incongruous reaction given to an out-group member. Basically, the word stereotype can be best described by the phrase 'picture in our heads' which refers to dogmas, knowledge, and expectations of an individual for other individual or social group. It also refers to an internal, mental representation for individual or social-groups in comparison to their external veracity.

Stereotypes can be categorized under two classifications i.e. positive stereotype and negative stereotype. Generally, the stereotype is considered a negative set of ideas that one individual has for another individual or group. The after-effect of negative stereotyping is 'Stereotype-threat', whereas the after-effect of positive stereotyping is 'Stereotype boost'.

Various media outlets like magazines, television shows, commercials, and socialization, etc. are the sources through which individuals get exposed to negative stereotypes which result in stereotype threat. Generally, it's been observed that female students from the very beginning are exposed to negative stereotypes about their performances related to STEM subjects, which results in the occurrence of the challenging situation for them to disprove the negative stereotype. This has been further supported by Neuville and Croizet (2007) by stating that exposure of negative stereotypes leads to the phenomenon of stereotype threat which further

contributes to performance decrements of girls in STEM subjects. It was Ambady et al. (2001) who further added that activation of gender-relevant stereotypes negatively impacts the performance of the targeted gender (Ambady et al., 2001).

Stereotype threat is a social psychological phenomenon. It concerns being observed through the lens of negative stereotypes. It is a negative result of stereotyping in which minority group members experience an apprehension that they may behave or act in a manner that endorses prevailing traditional stereotypes (Steele, 1997). The apprehension after experiencing negative stereotypes interferes with an individual's capability to perform well, and thus leads them to approve the negative stereotypes about one's group.

The term "stereotype threat" was given by psychologists Steele and Aronson (1995). It is dread or fretfulness which an individual might experience when they are antagonized with confirming a negative stereotype about the group they are associated with (Schneider, et al., 2012). It is also considered as self-confirming belief where an individual might get evaluated based on a negative stereotype. It takes place in a status quo where there is expectancy that one might be arbitrated negatively based on one's group membership or ones social identity (Steele et al., 2002) which may oblige to interrupt and destabilize individual performance as well as his/ her aspiration (Davies et al., 2002; Steele and Davies, 2003).

The phenomenon of stereotype threat occurs under certain circumstances. Some of the most observed conditions are (1) when a person is assigned with such duty which is related to the negative stereotypes about a person's group identity; (2) when an individual finds the assigned task challenging; (3) the circumstance in which a person is performing is expected to strengthen the prevailing negative stereotype.

The influence of stereotype threat on academic tasks has been demonstrated by various people in different types of stereotyped groups, including high school girls and college women taking math tests described as diagnostic of math ability (Keller and Dauenheimer, 2003; Spencer et al., 1999). In addition, stereotype threat effects on performance are found for: whites males who take math test after comparing their math ability to that of "Asian males" (Aronson et al.1999); Latino

men and women who take a math test as diagnostic of their aptitude (Gonzales et al., 2002) and children from low socio-economic backgrounds who take intellectual tests labelled as diagnostic of their overall intellectual-ability (Croizet and Claire, 1998).

Stereotype threat can impact the same individual in altered ways which depend on which characteristic of their identity is made silent. It was found that 'Asian women's' do better in maths assessments when ethnic-identity is primed whereas they performed worse when gender is clued-up (Shih et al., 1999).

The following studies have been presented to substantiate that stereotype threat effects is produced in diverse groups like females showed similar decrement in performance of mathematical ability when compared to males in a situation where a test is said to measure the extent of mathematical aptitude of individuals instead focussing on gender (Brown and Josephs, 1999; Quinn and Spencer, 2001; Spencer et al., 1999); race (Gonzales et al., 2002), socio-economic status (Croizet and Claire, 1998).

Although in many cases researcher creates stereotype threat as attest as diagnostic of one's true aptitude, it can also be activated in more subtle ways, as will be described. Women who see gender-stereotypic commercials perform poorer on a mathematical ability test than those who viewed the counter-stereotypic-commercials (Davies et al., 2002). Women who watched gender-stereotypic-commercials also generally show a reduced amount of interest in careers requiring quantitative skills (such as engineer, mathematician, computer scientist, and accountant) than those who watched the counter stereotypic ads.

Researchers are now investigating how stereotype threat leads to decreased peer performance. One explanation is that stereotype threat leads to lesser working-memory capacity. To support the above line or view, Latino students who are told that a memory-test is extremely extrapolative of intelligence recall fewer words on a memory task than those who are not given information (Schmader and Johns, 2003). Another explanation is that such intimidation increases anxiety which in turn disrupts performance. There are some recent researches which examine how stereotype threat is associated with activation of a particular part of the brain (Krendl

et al., 2008). This work indicates that although women who are not solving math problems usually show activation in part of the brain that controls mental math tasks (not surprising), those who are under conditions of threat instead show activation in a part of the brain that regulates emotion.

Adherents of low-status groups are more probable than those who belong to high-status groups to report experiences related to personal discrimination (Major et al., 2002; Schmitt et al., 2002). Discrimination or prejudice negatively affects psychological wellbeing. Individuals who are targets of prejudice or negative stereotyping generally experience depression, sadness, and helplessness (Branscombe et al., 1999; Schmitt and Branscombe, 2002). The cognitive ability of an individual is affected when one observes deliberate discrimination towards another individual of the same group (Salvatore and Shelton, 2007). Thus, it can be said that experiencing discrimination can lead to negative effects on ones mental as well as physical health.

Although minority group members overall report experiencing more personal and group discrimination than majority group members, those who have a strong identification with one's group, report they feel more discriminated. Individuals who are token representative of their group in any organization, often experience stereotype threat (Roberson and Kulik, 2007). Therefore, it can be concluded that the context of the workplace often buffers the phenomenon of stereotype threat.

The literature on tokenism contains the antecedents of stereotype theory. The theory explains a wide range of devastating effect of tokenism on tokens. It was also established that black learners of college accomplished the provided task better when it was announced that their performance will be equated to 'African-Americans' but they performed poorly when they were informed that their task will be compared to white college students (Katz, 1963). It can be stated that tokens feel visible when placed in the dominant group.

The token representation of individuals of demographic minority increases the probability of negative stereotypes about the minority group which promotes stereotype threat phenomenon in an organization (Ely, 1995). Previous researches support the fact that being an only representative of one's social- group in a

workplace very often elevates a robust awareness about the phenomenon of stereotype threat (Roberson et al., 2003). Simply being an only person of your gender, caste, religion or race in a group can activate the experience of stereotype threat which disrupts performance, particularly for members from disadvantaged or negatively stereotyped groups (Inzlicht and Ben-Zeev, 2000; Sekaquaptewa and Thompson, 2002). However, as described in the education connections, subtle manipulations can also minimize the negative effects of stereotype threat.

Though the deleterious effect of stereotype threat on an individual's performance has been documented by various researchers, the mechanism due to which stereotype threat have deleterious effects on one's job performance is still not much explored. Researchers tried to explore such factors due to which the phenomenon of stereotype threat can have its deleterious impact on performance. Factors like heightened physiological arousal (Blascovich, Spencer, Quinn, and Steele, 2001; Osborne, 2006, 2007), decreased working memory capability (Croizet et al. 2004; Schmader and Johns, 2003), impaired self-law (Cadinu et al. 2005; Inzlicht et al. 2006), and lowered performance expectancies (Cadinu et al., 2003; Stangor et al. 1998) are amongst the few factors due to which stereotype threat negatively impacts one's performance. It is obvious that when an individual encounters a negative stereotype or experience stereotype threat might get heightened physiological arousal which further might result in fewer cognitive resources with lowered performance expectancies eventually leading to decreased performance.

The research conducted in the past suggests that there is some psychological and physiological mechanism which mediates the relation shared by stereotype threat and performance (Schmader and Johns, 2003; Spencer et al., 1999; Steele, 1997). The extent of individual identification with their social group or with their domain like mathematical ability etc. has an influence on the impact of stereotype threat on job performance. It not only causes decrement in performance but also influence major life decisions of targets. Gupta and Bhawe (2007) found that the experience of stereotype threat influences the target in choosing profession ultimately preventing from the accomplishment of his/her potential in the threatened

domain. Similarly, the following researchers support the same concept about stereotype threat phenomenon Good et al. (2008), Brown and Pinel (2003), Keller and Dauenheimer (2003), Davies et al.(2002), Marx and Roman (2002), Schmader (2002), Brown and Josephs (1999), Spencer et al.(1999).

In reality, academics have clinched that "dependent measures used in stereotype threat research have been narrow in scope" and that "academic performance may be neither the most important consequence of stereotype threat nor the most effective measure for inferring its existence" (Shapiro and Neuberg, 2007, pp. 110, 111). The progressive and continuous researches on phenomena of stereotype threat are helping the educators and organizational heads to become aware of its negative effects and mechanism due to which it occurs (O'Brien and Crandall, 2003; Schmader and Johns, 2003).

The researchers have conducted numerous researches in experimental as well as in real life setting which demonstrates the negative effect of stereotype threat, but very few studies have been piloted in the Indian context. The latest study on stereotype threat was conducted by Trott (2014) on female managers. Another study was conducted on stereotype threat in India context on gender and leadership choices by Prasad (2011). Hoff and Pandey (2004) also contributed to the literature of stereotype threat by revealing corrosive effects of the caste system on Indian society and how lower caste identity of an individual is viewed negatively.

Stereotype threat is most commonly measured in terms of impaired academic test performance by the target of the threat (Shapiro and Neuberg, 2007) for example; a woman who is aware of negative stereotypes regarding women and mathematical ability is likely to demonstrate decreased performance if she is presented with a test that is described to measure mathematical ability (Spencer et al. 1999) Impaired test performance can be measured in a variety of ways the total number of items attempted on a test, the total number of correct answers on a test, the number of correct answers out of the total items attempted, and the amount of time spent on a test have all been used to operationalized test performance (Nguyen and Ryan, 2008).

1.2.   JOB PERFORMANCE

Job performance gauges how an individual accomplishes the task assigned to him/her in an organization. It is concentrated scholastically as a major aspect of industrial and organizational psychology. Performance in any job is a critical standard for authoritative results and achievement.

A great amount of research work has been conducted on job performance but there is still not much clarity about an individual's performance in an organization. The researchers from the field of management, occupational-health, work, and organizational-psychology have conducted ample investigation on job performance with different approaches but still, the area needs much consideration.

The concept of job performance is quite broader and complex which cannot be measured at once. Basically, it can be concluded that it has got multiple dimensions which further has indicators which can be measured at once. Therefore, to theorize or hypothesize the construct of job performance there is a great need to elucidate the area of job performance. This clarity in concept leads to the exploration of the dimension as well as indicators of job performance.

Job-Performance ought to be recognized from work efficiency, two ideas that regularly appear to be utilized reciprocally in the writing. Work efficiency is characterized as information isolated by yield. Along these lines, work efficiency is a smaller idea than work-performance. It is additionally critical to recognize contributory factors as well as indicators of work performance. Causal factors decide or foresee one's dimension of work performance, while indicators are impressions of work performance.

The description of job performance has wide range viz quantitative to qualitative dimension and from general to specific. Job performance is defined as "all the behaviors' employees engage in while at work" (Jex, 2002) whereas Lindsay (1995) and Griffin, (2012) referred job performance "as an act of accomplishing or executing a given task". Frequently performance of any employee is explained as his/ her performance in job-specific tasks.

It was the Campbell whose definition of job performance has been widely used and supported by the researchers. Campbell (1990) stated that the job performance of an employee is the overall behavior as well as actions which aim to achieve the objectives set by the organization. The definition given by him is accompanied by three notions: First, work overall performance need to be described in terms of conduct as opposed to consequences; Second, paintings overall performance consists of the simplest one's behaviors which can be applicable to the organization's desires, and third, work overall performance is multidimensional.

It was Murphy (1989) who first defined individual work performance. He specified dimensions of job performance i.e. task behaviors; interpersonal behaviors (communicating and cooperating with others); downtime behaviors (work-avoidance behaviors) and destructive or hazardous behaviors. Whereas, Campbell (1990) proposed eight dimensions of job performance which are: job-specific task proficiency; non–job-specific task proficiency; written and oral communications; demonstrating effort; maintaining personal discipline; facilitating peer and team performance; supervision and management and administration. The researchers of organizational behavior firstly considered only task and contextual performance as the dimension of job performance but later, majority of the researchers classified the job behavior of the employees into three broad dimensions i.e. Task Performance, Contextual Performance, and Counterproductive Work Behaviour.

Task performance & contextual performance are the two identified employee's behavior which is considered as an essential factor for organizational effectiveness (Borman and Motowidlo 1993). Task performance is that behavior of an employee which is either directly involved in producing goods and services or is concerned with those activities which indirectly support core technical processes in the organization (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997; Werner, 2000). Meanwhile, the contextual performance of an employee is concerned with those individual efforts which are either indirectly related to the main task or are not directly related to the main job. Contextual performance is important for shaping the institutional, social and psychological-contexts which serve as an acute facilitator of task performance and its processes (Werner, 2000).

Almost all the frameworks stated project overall task-performance as a vital measurement of an individual's job performance. Task performance may be described as a person proficiency (i.e., competency) with which one plays significant job responsibilities. Job-specific task proficiency, technical proficiency or in-role-performance are few terms sometimes used to denote task performance. Task performance includes job knowledge, work-quantity, and work quality. Campbell in his work stated that job-specific task-proficiency and non-job specific task-proficiency represent task performance.

Although traditional awareness of previous studies has been the task-performance of an individual later researchers came to a point where they explored that job performance of an individual is much more than task performance. The concept of contextual performance is supported and can be well-defined as behaviors supporting the organizational, social, and mental environment of the organization. Contextual performance has been labeled differently by several researchers which include labels like 'non-job-specific task proficiency'; 'Extra-role-performance'; 'Organizational-citizenship-behaviour' and 'Interpersonal-relations. The concepts put forth by various researchers indicate contextual performance that behavior that goes beyond the formally described work objectives of the organization which includes taking on greater responsibilities, displaying initiative, or education novices at the job. Performance of teachers in particular relies upon the teacher characteristics consisting of know-how base, sense of obligation, and inquisitiveness; the scholar traits along with the opportunity to analyse, and educational work; the coaching factors along with lesson structure, and communication; the gaining knowledge of elements such as involvement and success; and the school room.

Previous researchers used one broad-sized framework to explain the contextual performance. Four wide-spread frameworks used more than one dimension to describe the contextual-performance. For instance, in Campbell's framework, six of the 8 dimensions (written and oral communications, demonstrating effort, keeping personal discipline, facilitating peer and team performance, supervision and management, and management and administration) might be regarded contextual overall performance. Also, six of Viswesvaran's

dimensions (communique competence, attempt, leadership, administrative competence, interpersonal competence, and compliance with/recognition of authority) may appear as contextual performance.

Counterproductive work behavior is considered as third dimensions of job performance (Rotundo and Sackett 2002). The counterproductive work behavior of an employee is that behavior and actions of an employee which either harms the well-being of other employee or organization. Some of the counterproductive behavior is absenteeism, defaming other employees or organization, stealing, substance abuse, etc. Murphy (1989) explained counterproductive work behavior by considering negative or dangerous behaviors and downtime behavior as a dimension of job performance in his framework.

The definition of job performance and its dimensions might vary according to the individual's specific job field. There is no consensus among the researchers regarding the concept of job performance among teachers. There are numerous definitions given by previous researchers which support the complexity and multi-faceted nature of teacher's job performance concept. Obilade (1999) described a teacher's job performance as an accomplishment of liabilities and duties by teachers during school hours to achieve organizational goals. Similarly, Akinyemi (1993) and Okeniyi (1995) described it as the capability of a teacher to effectively combine the pertinent inputs for the enhancement of the teaching-learning process. Whereas, Selamat, et al. (2013) related teacher job performance with teachers' effectiveness. However, it was Meindl (1995) who portrayed job performance by an employee's extent of involvement in their daily assigned job activities by the organization.

A famous theorist named McGregor (1960) postulated a theory which states that negative attribute is responsible for lower performance whereas positive attribute is responsible for high performance of individuals. There are a few reasons or factors which contribute to the low level of teachers' job performance those factors can be organizational or personal factors like exclusion in workplace, emotional well-being, etc. Educator's job performance is one of the essential aspects of the triumph of any educational activities. Performance of teachers is directly related to the processing as well as the product of education. The successful

accomplishment and execution of an assigned task are described as work-performance Okunola (1990). Similarly, it can also be explained as a skillful capability of an employee to combine a set of specific behaviors in order to achieve the assigned goals and objectives set by the organization (Olaniyan, 1999). It is also determined by the involvement of workers in their daily assigned job activities by the organization (Peretemode, 1996). Milkovich et al. (1991) stated performance as a convoluted series of intermingling variables which are related to the several aspects of employees assigned task and his/her job environment. Traditionally performance was defined as a function of outcomes, behavior and personal traits (Milkovich et al., 1991), but later on, researchers focussed only on outcomes and behavior because of the objectivity when compared to personal traits (Hersen et al., 2004).

1.3. HEDONIC WELL-BEING

The idea of happiness is the nook stone of the suppositions of "Positive-Psychology". Happiness is characterized by the experience of greater common "Positive-Affective" states than poor ones in addition to a perception that one is moving ahead in a direction so as to achieve an important life-objectives (Tkach and Lyubomirsky, 2006).

Haybron (2000) distinguished happiness into three philosophical principles: 'Psychological-happiness'; 'Prudential-happiness' and 'Perfectionist-happiness'. Psychological Happiness is also called as 'Hedonic or emotional wellbeing'. Martin Seligman who is considered as the father of positive psychology in his book named "Authentic-Happiness" (Seligman, 2002) distinguished among pleasant, engaged and meaningful life. Various philosophers used the concept of Psychological-happiness which is relatively analogous with Seligman's idea of high-quality life (Sirgy and Wu, 2009).

Haybron (2000) stated Hedonic well-being as mental happiness that's concerned with a character's kingdom of mind (feeling of joy, serenity, and affection). It may be comprehended as Experience of effective feelings over time that is termed as Hedonic wellbeing (Benditt (1974, 1978), Carson (1978a, 1978b, 1979, 1981), Davis (1981a, 1981b), Gauthier (1967), Griffin (1986), Mayerfield

(1996, 1999), Nozick (1989), Rescher (1972), Sen (1987), Sumner (1996), Von Wright (1963), Wilson (1968) and Wolf (1997).

A rationalist of happiness Phillips (2006) stated that hedonic tradition highlights individual assuming that one is roused to upgrade personal-freedom along with one's self-protection and self-improvement. Basically, the hedonic tradition expounded by Hobbes, Locke, and Rousseau which gives emphasis to the trustworthiness of the individual and his own judgment about what fulfills him (Sirgy, 2012).

Hedonic well-being is related to the feeling of liking, pain, interest, boredom, joy, unhappiness, satisfaction and dis-satisfaction. Hedonic wellbeing is sometimes also called as 'Emotional wellbeing' or 'Experienced happiness' (Kahneman and Deaton, 2010). The term hedonic well-being and emotional well-being are synonyms and sometimes hedonic is used interchangeably with emotional well-being (Zou et al., 2013). It talks about the everyday experience of a person's quality of emotion. Hedonic wellbeing can be summarised as the frequency and intensity of an individual's experience of joy, fascination, anxiety, sadness, anger, and affection which make one's life either pleasant or unpleasant.

Hedonic wellbeing depends on the thought that increased pleasure and diminished agony prompts happiness in one's life. The concept of hedonic wellbeing depends on the belief of subjective wellbeing which is usually used to mean the 'glad or great life'. It includes an emotional part (high positive effect and low negative effect) and a cognitive or psychological segment (fulfillment with life). It is recommended that an individual encounters bliss when high-quality effect and success with life are both excessive (Carruthers and Hood, 2004).

Emotions or feelings in the broadest sense incorporate regularly utilized terms, for example, outrage, dread, satisfaction, blame, desire, love, mettle, and misery. The feeling is vitality complex including nerves, muscles, gut, bone marrow, glandular action, and other various cells of the body (Goleman, 2006).

"Emotion" rose up out of the French expression "emouvoir". The expression "emouvoir" signifies "to work up". A feeling included a couple of parts viz. positive

or negative subject understanding, real excitement, activation of explicit mental procedures with putting away data and trademark conduct. Another view on feeling recommends five segments, for example, psychological evaluation, real indications, activity inclinations, articulation, and sentiments. Frequently feeling is considered equally persuasive with one's state of mind, demeanor, character, mien, and inspiration. It is likewise influenced by one's body hormones and synapse resembles Dopamine, Nor-adrenaline, Serotonin, Oxytocin, Cortisol, and GABA. Insight is a significant part of a person's feeling particularly in deciphering an occasion.

An individual's decreased hedonic well-being is related to serious mental health concerns viz. stress, depression, and anxiety. These mental health issues directly or indirectly contribute to one's physical ill-health like Digestive-disorders, Sleep-Disturbances, and fatigue. Whereas it is observed that positive emotions of an individual are a predictor of improved broad-minded coping and vice-versa and thus this support that positive emotions initiate upward spirals towards enhanced hedonic well-being (Fredrickson and Joiner, 2002).

A positive sense of wellbeing is termed as Hedonic Wellbeing. It is very important to move forward in life in a positive direction. It assists human beings in smooth functioning in society so as to meet the everyday demands of life. Positive emotions make an individual feel good about them as well as about the surrounding. The judgment about an individual's life satisfaction largely depends on one's ability to balance positive and negative emotions (Diener and Larsen,1993).

For the interpretation of any event, cognition is an important aspect of emotion e.g. individuals own perception about one's gender can lead him/her to threat under test conditions. There are recent researches which explored that under stereotype threat situation an individual's emotional processing restricts or impedes one's cognitive processing (Wraga et al., 2007; Krendl et al., 2008). The interference occurs because of the direct/indirect undermining of the working memory resources which are required for one's effective task performance (Schmader et al., 2008). Emotional disturbances occur either from increased attentiveness towards threat-related signs (Forbes et al., 2008) or from counterproductive attempts. Rumination and emotion-suppression are the two ways through which the negative emotions

emerged from such information can be regulated (Beilock et al., 2007; Johns et al., 2008).

Keyes et al. (2002) characterized Hedonic Well-being as Subjective Well-being, which integrates the concepts of life satisfaction and happiness which are a balance between positive and negative affect. They also reported that usually it is defined as ones overall satisfaction with life and happiness. Higher hedonic wellbeing may help preserve positive feelings. Diener et al.(2003) described hedonic wellbeing as an individual's evaluation of their life which include emotional reactions to events, moods, fulfillment, and satisfaction with domains like marriage, work, etc. According to Diener (1984) wellbeing if observed from a hedonistic perspective is completely based on the idea of one's subjective cognitive appraisals about life in general (Diener, 1984). Hedonic view of happiness is the pre-dominance of an individual's positive affects over the negative affects or the affective balance (Andrews and Whithey, 1976; Campbell et al., 1976; Diener, 1984 and Christopher, 1999).

From the above reviews, we can conclude that hedonic well-being is very important as it contributes to the judgment of one's life satisfaction and its decreased level contributes to both physical as well as an individual's mental health which directly or indirectly serves as a barrier to one's performance. Higher hedonic wellbeing needs identifying, building, and operating one's strengths rather focusing on negative aspects which include fixing problems or weaknesses. The greater we obtain mastery on our emotions (Coping with stress) the greater we will be able to enjoy life and focus on our important priorities.

The teaching profession has been ranked on the top as one of the highest stressful jobs which hamper the performance of teachers. Previous researches on the wellbeing of teachers have focused on stress and burnout (Spilt et al., 2011). Researchers explored several causal factors for stress and burnout which effects teacher's wellbeing. Factors like organizational pressure, social-pressure, administrative-workload, issues in classroom-management, less team support contribute to stress and burnout among teachers which directly or indirectly affects their wellbeing (Borg and Riding 1991; Burke and Greenglass 1995; Greenglass et

al., 1997; Kokkinos, 2007; Smith and Bourke 1992). Researches on Hedonic wellbeing are growing in multitude with various fields contributing to it like Psychology, Neuroscience, Medicine, History and Computer Science but till date, its role in stereotype threat and job performance link has not been studied in academics.

1.4. COPING STRATEGY

The word coping emerged from the English word cope in the mid- of the 16th century which originally means 'dress in a cope', hence 'to cover'. The process of management and reduction of stress by people caused through issues or adverse situations is termed as coping. According to Breuer and Freud (1955), the concept of coping can be understood by referring to the introduction of psychoanalysis by Freud in the 19th century. Freudian theory stressed the concept of defense and pointed out the ego's struggle with niggling feelings. The 1960s witnessed the emergence of a new research line labeled as 'coping'. Most popular work on psychological stress and the coping process has been accomplished by Lazarus (1966). It's because of Lazarus' (1966) work on psychological stress and coping, the coping strategy has evolved as a prominent field of research.

Coping is an individual's cognitive and behavioral endeavors to subjugate, endure or minimize external and internal demands and clashes amidst them (Folkman and Lazarus, 1980). Coping can also be described as an attempt in order to control the circumstances of anguish or any challenge when the spontaneous response is impossible (Monat and Lazarus, 1977). Chang and Strunk (1999) view coping as one's effort which provides enough strength to manage the demands of demanding circumstances. The aim of coping is not achieving success rather it focuses on making attempts and forming links between environmental stress and an individual's adaptation. Basically, it is regulating oneself in a stressful situation (Compas et al. 2001; Eisenberg et al. 1977; Skinner, 1999; Skinner and Zimmer-Gembeck, 2007, 2009).

The management of problems and associated negative emotions is included in the process of coping. The use of a coping strategy is influenced by individual aspirations, credence, and attributes besides the environmental circumstances. Being multidimensional and flexible, coping allows individuals to modify their numerous

attempts to meet the demands of particular situations, so as to observe the consequence of their actions, determine whether their goals have been achieved or not in that situation and improvise their approach accordingly.

Coping deals with one's ability to organize, regulate, handle and synchronize numerous aspects of the self under stress. The polarity between regulation and coping rests in the fact that the former is concerned with the management of specific aspect e.g. emotional regulation or attention regulation whereas the latter as an organizational contrast focuses on the regulation of all aspects an individual which are affected by stress, encompassing physiology, behavior, motivation, emotion, cognition, and attention.

The level of stress experienced and strategies of dealing with it differ from one individual to another which is totally fine. How well strategies work for different people is influenced by individual strengths and skills, hence there is no 'right' way to cope. These various psychological mechanisms to cope with stressful situations are generally termed as coping skills or strategies. Coping, in general, refers to flexible and productive strategies for reduction of stress levels.

Coping strategies are behavioral as well as psychological efforts. An individual employs these efforts either to master or to tolerate or to minimize stressful event or situation. Numerous coping strategies have been discerned. Categorization of these strategies into a wider architecture has not yet been approved of. Common distinctions are frequently made between various differing strategies, like emotion-focused versus a problem-focused; disengagement versus engagement; behavioral versus cognitive. Three coping strategies have been identified broadly by Weiten et al. (2014): (i) Appraisal- focused (ii) Problem-focused (iii) Emotion-focused.

Appraisal-focused coping strategies deal with challenging our own speculation and improvising the way we think. In short, we can say that it involves challenging one's assumption as well as it is adaptive cognitive. Generally, it involves strategies like one can distance oneself from challenging situations or from problems, an individual can modify his goals or values according to the situation or one can identify or include humor in the situation which might bring about a positive spin.

Problem-focused strategies are those strategies which are directed towards either eliminating or reducing the stressor or the source of the problem by finding or exploring more information about the issue, discovering new strategies or skills for managing it, or evaluating pros and cons of the alternatives.

Emotion-focused coping strategies are those which are directed towards reducing or preventing our own emotional reaction. These strategies help in releasing suppressed emotions either by distracting oneself in another direction or by managing hostile feelings. These strategies also help in mediating or using systematic relaxation procedures. Five emotion-focused strategies were identified by which are accepting responsibility or blaming, disclaiming, exercising self- control, escape-avoidance and positive reappraisal (Lazarus and Folkman, 1987).

As per Allision (1998), Clark et al. (1999), Pascoe and Richman (2009) the presence of the phenomenon of stereotype threat can be traced in the framework of stress and coping proposed by Lazarus and Folkman (1987). As per numerous viewpoints on coping with stigma (Major and O'Brien, 2005; Miller and Kaiser, 2001), social identity threat and stereotype post appraisal may result in physiological, cognitive, emotional and behavioral reactions which could be either voluntary or involuntary responses.

A chain of involuntary responses takes place once an identity- threat appraisal is made. The probability of failing one's group results in physiological stress reaction due to intensified arousal (Ben-Zeev et al., 2005; Blascovich et al., 2001; O'Brien and Crandall, 2003) and distracting thoughts (Cadinu et al., 2005) that grip limited functioning memory (Beilock et al., 2007; Schmader and Johns, 2003). Voluntary coping strategies usually accompany such involuntary reactions. As per Steele and Aronson (1995), it is imperative for individuals to repudiate negative stereotypes. For example, individuals put in a lot of effort to perform well (Jamieson and Harkins, 2007). Nevertheless, according to Johns, Inzlicht, and Schmader (2008); Logel et al. (2009) when confronted with the possibility of failing their group, individuals may suppress thoughts and deny troubling emotions as a means of coping.

Geving (2007) has said that stress is a widespread phenomenon amongst teachers and they experience serious stress symptoms (Austin et al. 2005) as teacher work requires professional competencies and skills, subject or content knowledge as well as emotional or psychological stability in order to promote effectiveness in job. An individual's productivity, efficiency, and quality of work are influenced by stress resulting in ill effects on one's health (Comish and Swindle, 1994).

Performance decrease under stereotype threat is a result of three interlinked factors and one of the factors is physiological stress (Schamander et al., 2008) that frequently gives rise to stereotype threat. According to Inzlicht et al. (2006), stereotype threat does not necessarily cause a fall in the performance level in the stereotyped domain. An individual under stereotype threat can continue performing at an identical level as a non- threatened person yet would have to put in more effort to do so. In other words, according to Eysenck and Calvo (1992), performance gets affected adversely only when an individual fails to cope with and make up for the inept processing caused by a threat by working harder and putting in more effort. Whether or not stereotype threat causes performance deficits, individuals will anyway be led to work harder than in the absence of stereotypes. The extra effort put in for coping is at times enervating and may leave individuals devitalized for upcoming tasks – especially ones which demand relentless self- control.

To manage the stress of negative stereotyping 'resource-demanding' coping strategy is suggested. Resource demanding coping strategy includes emotion regulation and suppression of thoughts (Johns et al., 2008; Logel et al., 2009). Therefore, to overcome the barriers in the way of job performance of teachers they have to adapt coping strategies for better adjustment as suggested by Kyriacou and Chien (2009) that adopting coping strategies is the perfect way to beat stress. An individual's mental health keeps getting better the more he adopts adaptive coping strategies, according to Chaturvedi and Purushottam, (2009) low and under developed coping ability might result in negative emotional responses and fatigue amongst teachers, as per Montgomery and Rupp (2005).

In the context of teachers, coping strategies can be defined as any factor such as physical, social, material or psychological which aid teachers curb stressors

related to the job and achieve the valued result with pupils. According to Folkman and Lazarus (1980), as indicated by research, individuals tackle most stressful events by using both kinds of strategy. Coping ability differs from one individual to another. Hence the preponderance of one strategy over the other is partly governed by individual style as well the stressful event's type. A problem-solving coping strategy is a most frequently chosen strategy by teachers to cope with a stressful situation (Austin et al., 2005). As per Sprenger (2011), social support has also been explored as the factor which diminishes the negativity of stressors on teachers' satisfaction with the job, well- being as well as the risk of physical illness.

Griffin (2006) has said that in order to obtain advice, discuss feelings, receive support emotionally, and receive sympathy and understanding support is sought by teachers from friends, family and fellow workers. Also, the teachers having more support within personal lives show a tendency of feeling less stressed out at the workplace.

According to Gulwadi (2006), when stress is let out by teachers in places away from the school environment, it is referred to as restorative coping experiences. The places are chosen for the same show features which are beneficial in neutralizing the effects of source of stress. Under stress, teachers tend to choose places that rejuvenate them like home, natural open-air places, places of worship and cafeterias. Such environments work as stress relievers as teachers experience sensory conditions, social connection, support and a connection with nature which mitigate stress.

Guwaldi (2006) has also said that in addition to restorative experiences, environmental coping resources may also be employed by teachers. Their awareness of environmental conditions can be of utmost value. The ability of an individual to be aware of his surroundings can be quite resourceful. Their competence to alter such a setting with the aim of achieving personal goals is termed as environmental competence. The readily accessible environmental resources to teachers which can be used for their spatial and sensory properties are time, social ties, money, organizational resources and physical environmental resources like locations, etc.

According to Bindhu and Kumar (2006) coping with stress can be broadly divided into two categories: to provide maximal thoughtfulness to a traumatic event or not pay attention to it at all. Whereas according to Hemmings and Hockley (2002) stress can be coped up with in several ways like by communicating with others, helping oneself, relaxing, organizing, engaging oneself in sports, etc. Recreation is another strategy which moderates the stress thus improving one's quality of life (McKay, 2008). According to Yang et al., (2009), self- care influences stress reduction and boosting life quality considerably. One may take care of self by exercising regularly, engaging in sports, getting appropriate sleep every day, maintaining the right diet plan, and applying some relaxation technique, etc.

Coping can also be categorized into two i.e. active coping and passive coping strategy (Montogomery and Rupp, 2005). Active coping strategy includes cognitive strategies and Behavioral strategies. Cognitive strategies mean imposing control to self as well as distancing oneself rationally whereas behavioral coping strategy means appealing advice from others and engaging oneself in easing exercises. The other is passive coping strategy includes resigning, drinking, wishful thinking, avoidance which are further ensued by lack of commitment with the stressful event.

There are a number of approaches of coping such as feeling in control, optimism and pessimism, appraisal and coping (Rubin et al., 1993), approach and avoidant coping (Chang and Strunk, 1999). Three coping styles were expounded by Endler and Purker (1990) which are task-oriented (problem-focused), emotion-oriented coping and avoidance-oriented coping.

Coping generally ranges from positive thinking, resigning from one's job to sharing problems at work with one's partner. Some of these coping behaviors take place are also observed in frontline workers when they interact with their clients during public encounters (Bartels, 2013). Coalescing Folkman and Lazarus' (1985) definition of coping during the public encounter is the behavioral efforts put in by staffs of the frontline profession while interacting with their respective consumers, so as to master, endure and minimalize internal or external demands as well as clashes faced by them on an everyday basis (Tummers, 2015)

1.5. WORKPLACE OSTRACISM

The variable ostracism has been studied extensively in the field of organizational psychology. The term ostracism is defined as "being ignored and excluded" (Williams, 1997), has been a feature of human life since ages. It has been present from the time of Greek legends wherein the deviant people were ostracized by the natives from their society as a means of retribution. While expulsion and extradition seem to be severe types of ostracism, at some point of time we have all been either a subject or initiator of ostracism. Recall the silent treatment given to loved ones, the cold shoulder given to colleagues when we are disregarded in an intense discussion (Williams,2001). Ostracism is well rooted in our daily life and we are well aware of it. For human beings, it is impossible to brush aside the feeling of being disregarded.

Being one of the targets of the phenomenon of ostracism is hurting. Laboratory assessments show that brain structures activated by ostracism is similar to the ones activated while a person experiences physical agony. This indicates that 'social pain' induced by ostracism and physical pain are equally real (Eisenberger et al.,2003; MacDonald and Leary, 2005). A perusal of literature suggests that four basic human needs are threatened by ostracism which is the need for belongingness, self- esteem, control and meaningful existence (Williams, 1997, 2001). These fundamental necessities, which are vital for human motivation and survival, underlie a wide spectrum of social behavior (e.g. Baumeister et al., 1994; Baumeister and Leary, 1995; Branden, 2001; Taylor and Brown, 1988; Tesser, 2000). A string of research work has been undertaken by social psychologists to analyze the effect of ostracism on the four basic needs. It had been observed that ostracism strips a person from the group, inducing series of adverse psychological outcomes like dejection, apprehension, and tension, as per Williams (2001).

Ostracized people have a tendency to regard themselves at fault as a cause of the displeasing behavior inflicted towards them by others which at times threatens their self- esteem, says William (2001). Moreover, ostracized individuals experience a loss of control as their questions, provocations, or other actions prompt no response. The interaction is one-sided does in no way help in exterminating

ostracism, according to Ferris et al. (2008) Williams and Richardson. Eventually, ostracism coaxes individuals to feel unworthy and having meaningless existence in others' eyes and makes them wonder what life would be like if they cease to exist. According to Sommer et al. (2001) Pyszczynski et al. (2004), such implications of 'social death' threaten individuals' sense of a meaningful existence.

Reports on ostracism primarily encompass studies administered in a laboratory setting. Although we are aware of ostracism and its devastating impact on an individual's basic needs in work setting, little is known about the occurrence of ostracism at the workplace and its repercussions.

For decades social psychologists have shown a keen interest in ostracism and conducted numerous experimental laboratory studies to decipher its social ramifications. Yet organizational psychologists have only recently directed their attention towards ostracism at the workplace (Ferris et al.,2008). In the light, if the wide arrangement of theoretical, anecdotal and empirical discoveries from diverse branches of social science, we believe that ostracism may affect various organizational consequences like attitude towards work, well- being as well as behavior. We think this deletion holds significance for various practical and theoretical reasons.

Firstly, ostracism isn't uncommon in organizations. Indeed, two recent surveys indicate that ostracism is actually prevalent in the workplace. One survey covering more than 5,000 employees revealed 13% of the respondents to have been debarred from their work (Hitlan et al., 2006). Another survey revealed 66% of employees to have been given the silent treatment over, 29% disclosed that others intentionally went away from the place when they entered, and 18% revealed that they had been positioned in a physically isolated location. (Fox and Stallworth, 2005)

Second, although the concept of ostracism is usually subsumed under broader concepts such as deviance, socials undermining, aggression and workplace bullying (Bennett and Robison, 2000; Duffy et al., 2002; Neuman and Baron,1998), there are merits to examining ostracism as a distinct construct. There have been calls for researchers to study subtle forms of deviant behavior rather than focusing only

on plant floor types of deviance like theft and damage, as per Bennett and Robinson (2000).

Further, the concept of ostracism is fundamentally related to the failure of an individual in terms of interaction with others in society i.e. social engagement (Robinson, et al., 2013) which is described as lack of communication with other members in organization, institution or society. However, deviance and social undermining still allow interaction, albeit in an aversive way (Duffy et al.,2002; Fox and Stallworth, 2005; Neuman and Baron, 1998). For example, aggressive behavior includes verbal or physical assault and social undermining behavior includes belittling or criticizing others. These types of aversive behavior involve interpersonal interactions. This is where ostracism differs because the pain of ostracism resides in others' avoidance of interactions (Ferris et al.,2008). Researches have shown that individuals would rather prefer physical or verbal abuse than be subjected to ostracism (Williams, 2001) because it is expulsion from interactions with other individuals that profoundly affect human beings' fundamentals need for belongingness and meaningful existence & control. (Zadro et al., 2004). Therefore, ostracism at the workplace should be separated from broader concepts such as deviance, social undermining or aggression to avoid any conceptual confusion and to allow an examination of the unique influence of this workplace phenomenon.

The chances of being subjected to ostracism soar up when those individuals do not plan to resign from the organization, thus interacting more with the ones who ostracize. At the same time, there is also a possibility that the subjects of ostracism would have more impact on the offenders and turning the whole messed up situation around, according to Romero et al., 2010). Such differences induce targets of ostracism to react in a different manner than those who feel there's no chance of influence to be exerted, as per the subjects in experimental studies (Burgeois and Leary, 2001; Warburton et al., 2006). The empirical corroboration comes majorly from laboratory studies, we know little about what happens to people who are excluded, shunned and ostracized in the workplace. A more systematic investigation of ostracism in the workplace is thus worthwhile.

To enrich our understanding of workplace ostracism, three lines of research merit attention. First, the extant ostracism literature reveals little about the factors

that affect why certain kinds of individuals are ostracized in a group or organization. As far as our knowledge serves, the antecedents of workplace ostracism have been analyzed by just two studies. One examined the Big Five personality traits as antecedents (Wu and Wei, 2010) and the other investigated goal structure and the targets' social skills (Wu, 2010). There is much more that is unknown than is known about the causes of workplace ostracism. Examples of what is unknown include the dispositional variables interact with situational variables to jointly influence the emergence of workplace ostracism. More research attention is needed to investigate the antecedents of workplace ostracism.

Second, it is well established in the literature that ostracism induces a wide array of negative emotional consequences, including depression, distress, stress, sadness, anger and shame (Eisenberger et al., 2003; MacDonald and Leary, 2005; Leary et al., 2001; Smith and Williams, 2004; Stroud et al., 2000). However, all of these findings are at the individual level and reveals the triggered feelings in general. An interesting and fruitful line of investigation would be a focus on interpersonal emotions, or elicited emotions when interacting with a particular person. Ostracism is generally regarded as 'dyadic phenomenon' that involves an actor and a target (Hershcovis and Barlign, 2007). It would be thus meaningful to examine a target's aroused emotions triggered by a specific actor, rather than simply focusing on feelings in general. Furthermore, we know little about the factors that moderate the ostracism- emotion- work performance link. Research is needed to lay the foundations of borderline conditions under which the distressful emotions resulting from ostracism may either be aggravated or impaired.

Ostracism is more likely to threaten those for whom the acceptance of the group is of particular importance (Ellermers et al., 2004; Tyler and Lind, 1992). The literature suggests that ostracized individuals react to ostracism in various ways out of which many appear to be contradictory (Williams, 2007). For example, according to experimental laboratory research on social exclusion ostracized individuals are prone to decreased prosocial behaviour such as help and cooperation (Tice et al., 2002; Twenge et al., 2007), whereas other studies show that excluded individuals can be more supportive, encouraging and obliging (Gardener et al., 2000; Williams and Sommer, 1997). It has also been found from prior researches that ostracized

individuals are more prone to be antagonistic and to demean the perpetrators as well as those who are not involved in ostracism (Twenge et al., 2001; Warburton et al., 2006).

According to Griffin (2006), an individual's performance is determined by three factors that are the environment at the workplace, motivation, and potential to work. According to Chandrasekar (2011), the impact of the workplace environment can influence the morale, job performance and productivity of an employee in both a positive and negative way. Employees are subject to get demotivated and their performance adversely affected in case they don't like the workplace environment.

Workplace ostracism is a word which is assigned to the experience of being excluded or overlooked in the workplace (Ferris et al., 2008) is a common phenomenon in organizations (Fox and Stallworth, 2005). Distinctive examples of workplace ostracism include "silent treatment"; "avoiding conversations or eye contact" and giving the "cold shoulders" (Ferris et al., 2008; Williams, 2001). Though the prevalence of this phenomenon is very general in organizations, researchers have paid very scant attention until recently. Workplace ostracism significantly impacts both the organization and its employees in a negative way as suggested by preliminary evidence (Ferris et al., 2008) in aspects of psychological well- being, attitude towards the job, performance at the workplace and organizational citizenship behavior, yet little is known about the causes of ostracism.

When individuals at a workplace feel ignored by their colleagues, it is termed as workplace ostracism (Ferris et al., 2008; Wu et al. 2012). Research on working bodies revealed that the majority of them felt ignored by their colleagues whereas others revealed that their colleagues intentionally left the room when they went inside (Fox and Stallworth, 2005). The phenomena of ostracism impair societal communication, which is important for human beings in order to attain their psychological needs. The effects of ostracism in the workplace definitely influence the psychological wellbeing as well as physical health of the employees (Heaphy and Dutton, 2008). At present, teamwork has increased considerably in workplaces. This indicates that social interaction with colleagues is one of the utmost need of

employees in an organization (Sundstrom et al., 2000). O'Reilly and Robinson (2009) labeled ostracism as a variable which best describes the reason for employees for a discontented sense of fellowship and diminished contributions in the workplace. According to Ferris et al. (2008), it is surprising that that minimal fact-finding on workplace ostracism has been done despite its pervasiveness and gravity. Therefore, to have an understanding of the impact of ostracism on the job-related outcome is imperative. According to Luthans and Youssef (2007) in recent times, researchers of positive organizational behavior have stressed upon employee well-being at the workplace. Such constructive psychological techniques have surfaced with the aim of focusing on what is right rather than applying the traditional techniques of understanding the faults within oneself (Luthans, 2002). This school of thinking has led to the devising of new terminology, 'psychological-capital' (Avey et al., 2010). Four elements constitute Psychological Capital – optimism, hope, self- efficacy, and resilience (Luthans et al., 2007). An employee's belief about his/her capability to successfully execute the assigned task is termed as self-efficacy (Luthans and Stajkovic, 1999). Secondly, having a positive attitude towards attaining success at present as well as in the future, that is optimism. Thirdly, perseverance towards goal attainment, and if need be, rechanneling tracks to goals (hope) in order to achieve success. Fourthly, while experiencing problems and adverse situations, enduring and rebounding and even beyond (resilience) to achieve desired outcomes, says Luthans et al. (2007).

The abovementioned review implies that stereotype threat and its linkage to job performance have been extensively studied in the western world though little research is available in India despite the length and breadth of the country. Moreover, the role of negative emotion, anxiety, fear has been studied well but in India setting the variable has been less researched. The structure of India is a multi-colored collage of various languages, creed, cuisines, and traditions. The mingling of people from diverse background facilitates us in broadening the range of our vision to integrate alternative viewpoints. As we know from our experience that differences also create partitions which can either be real, imagined or both. An unfortunate rub-off when boundaries become rigid is the perpetuation of stereotypes around a particular group of people. In our hierarchical culture, it is crucial for us to

understand how stereotypes can alter the mindset and behavior of people, and what we can do to diminish or moderate their baneful effects. Ostracism and psychological well-being have not been properly understood in the Indian context. Therefore, this study will enrich the understanding of Indian culture melee and devise ways to reduce the harmful impact of divisions in society.

1.6. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROBLEM

The teaching profession is considered as one of the highly noble professions. A teacher has always been considered as a boon to society. The job of a teacher incudes to aware students what to learn, to challenge them by setting high standards meanwhile criticizing so as to spur further achievement of students.

Stress at the workplace among teachers is a psychological and physiological response to the event that upset their personal balance. Experience of Stereotype threat at the workplace is one of the potential causes of stress (Manjula, 2012; Schmander et al., 2008). Very few studies in recent times have been conducted (Trott, 2014; Prasad, 2007; Hoff and Panda, 2004) which is an emerging issue in the research world today. It has gained a lot of attention across the globe but has not attracted a little attraction of researchers in India.

Stereotype threat is an unavoidable phenomenon which affects an assortment of people in various ways. Its belongings have customarily been concentrated in ladies and ethnic minorities, individuals from different gatherings might be affected by generalization danger also. For instance, past research likewise has discovered that when old people are informed that an assignment surveys memory, the resulting execution is hindered (Levy, 1996). Comparable impacts have been found for non-defamed bunches too. In particular, when white men are informed that an assignment surveys athletic capacity, their presentation on a consequent undertaking is additionally impeded contrasted with dark men (Stone et al., 1999; Stone and Whinnie, 2008). Its outcomes among females in classrooms, employment context, leadership context, and entrepreneurial arenas have been studied extensively (Gupta and Bhawe, 2007; Bergeron et al., 2006; Davies et al.,2002, 2005; Krendl, et al., 2008). Ford et al. (2004) explored that the activities which demand verbal skills in males, and on that very moment if men's are prompted about the relationship of

gender with verbal skills making them realize that they have deficient verbal skills, their performance on that specific activity depreciates. This was further supported by Seibt and Forster (2004). Thus, we can say that gender and race are the source of variable stereotype threat and impairing one's performance.

In the Indian setting, there are other potential sources which cause stereotype threat i.e. religion, caste, and tokenism at the workplace might trigger stereotype threat among employees in the different job context. Caste and religion are a system of social stratification and people from different caste and religion have different beliefs about their caste and religion which foster stereotype thinking. It was European researchers who explored that in what way or by what means group processes and an individual's social identity affect bias (e.g., Tajfel and Turner, 1979).

Stereotype threat has been examined in an academic context which includes samples of the elementary, middle, high school as well as college-going learners (Ambady et al., 2001; Mckown and Weinstein, 2003; Neuville and Croizet, 2007; Kellow and Jones, 2008). However, in the Indian settings, no study has been conducted in the teaching sector involving students, teachers or administration.

High level of self-consciousness and threat is experienced by tokens. The experience of the high level of self-consciousness reduces their ability to think as well as act effectively (Lord and Saenz, 1985; Sekaquaptewa and Thompson, 2003).

Negative stereotyping results in stereotype threat among individuals and threat evoke negative emotions and feelings of being ostracized by the dominant group members. The development of these emotions in the target of stereotype threat, increases the probability of mental-exhaustion and burnout (Hall et al., 2015), negatively affects family and health outcomes, increases work-family conflict and workplace deviance (Grandey et al., 2005; Lee and Allen, 2002), decreases organizational citizenship behavior and job performance (Lee and Allen, 2002; Cropanzano et al., 2003).

At the point when the stereotype threat is evoked, people endeavor to manage their feelings or emotions. They endeavor to check their nervousness. To

accomplish this objective, they regularly endeavor to smother or dismissal the negative stereotypes of their gathering or group. Dealing with the worry of negative stereotypes includes Resource demanding coping techniques, for example, regulation of emotions and thought concealment (Johns et al., 2008; Logel et al., 2009).

While scientists have started to dig into the complexities with respect to the process due to which stereotype threat diminishes employees' performance as well as promote additional negative impacts. There is still much research required so as to totally comprehend the mechanisms of Stereotype Threat

The phenomenon of stereotype threat is very much prevalent in today's society. Every individual especially those who are working, at least once in his lifetime must have experienced stereotype threat. Stereotypes are often unintentionally reinforced by educational officers or by the government itself. Therefore, the present study is an effort to add to research knowledge on stereotype and job performance in the teaching sector. Current research will offer us insight about the role of social identity (gender, caste, religion, and tokenism) in triggering stereotype threat as well as its impacts on teaching fraternity. The study is also an attempt to explore the mechanisms stereotype threat due to which it affects job performance. This exploration of the mechanism will help us to instigate so as to remediate some of the destructive impacts of stereotype threat on humans. Though some constructs have been studied there is still no definitive answer and there is a need to do research on this important aspect which gets triggered by even small daily happenings in and around the society.

1.7.   RESEARCH TOPIC

The present study is entitled as " Stereotype Threat and Job Performance: Role of Hedonic Wellbeing, Coping Strategy and Workplace Ostracism among Teachers:

1.8.   OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF THE CONSTRUCTS

Stereotype Threat (ST): It is a psychological phenomenon that constrains the performance of individuals who highly identify themselves with the domain

where negative stereotypes about their social identity are highlighted thereby increasing concerns about being stigmatized by the out-group members.

Job Performance (JP): The job performance of teacher is defined as "Duties performed by a teacher in the school system in achieving organizational goals in terms of task performance, contextual performance and counterproductive work behavior".

Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB): It refers to the "Emotional quality of an individual's everyday experience, the frequency, and intensity of experiences of joy, fascination, anxiety, sadness, anger, and affection that make one's life pleasant or unpleasant".

Coping Strategies (COPE): It can be defined as specific effort's which can be behavioral as well as psychological that individuals employ to master, tolerate, reduce, or minimize stressful events.

Workplace Ostracism (WOS): Workplace ostracism can be defined as "The exclusion, rejection, or ignoring of an individual (or group) by another individual (or group) that, hinders one's ability to establish or maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work-related success, or favorable reputation within one's place of work".

Tokenism (TOK): It is a perceptual phenomenon in which tokens or solo status individuals feels highly visible and polarized in a numerically dominant group in an organization.

1.9. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The main research objectives of the present study are as follow:

1) To identify the role of caste category, religion, gender, and tokenism causing stereotype threat.
2) To establish the relationship between stereotype threat and job performance.
3) To study the relationship between (a) Hedonic Wellbeing and Coping Strategies; (b) Hedonic Wellbeing and Workplace Ostracism; (c) Coping Strategies and Workplace Ostracism.

4) To study the role of Hedonic Wellbeing, Workplace Ostracism and Coping Strategies on the relationship between Stereotype Threat and Job Performance.

1.10. RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

To study the above-mentioned research objectives following hypotheses were framed after reviewing the literature.

1) There is no significant difference of caste category (C), gender (G), religion (R) and tokenism (TOK) on Stereotype Threat (ST).

2) (a) There is no significant relationship between Stereotype Threat (ST) and Task Performance (TP) dimension of Job Performance (JP).

   (b) There is no significant relationship between Stereotype Threat (ST) and Contextual Performance (CP) dimension of Job Performance (JP).

   (c) There is no significant relationship between Stereotype Threat (ST) and Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB) dimension of Job Performance (JP).

3) (a) There is no significant relationship between Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) and Coping Strategies (COPE).

   (b) There is no significant relationship between Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS)

   (c) There is no significant relationship between Coping Strategies (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS)

1.11. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

4) (a) Is the causal relationship between Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP) mediated by Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB)?

   (b) Is the causal relationship between Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP) mediated by Workplace Ostracism (WOS)?

   (c) Is the causal relationship between Stereotype Threat and Job Performance mediated by Coping Strategies (COPE)?

1.12. DELIMITATION

The study is delimited to the following areas.

1) The study is delimited to teachers working in government schools only.
2) The study is delimited to eastern districts of Uttar Pradesh.

CHAPTER – II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The present chapters deal with the review of literature on the constructs stereotype threat, job performance, hedonic wellbeing, coping strategy, and workplace ostracism. The review on each construct is followed by the summary of the presented reviews. Section 2.1 details the review on stereotype threat and its impact on other constructs, the next section 2.2 provide a review about Job Performance among employees, the other sections 2.3, 2.4, 2.5 and 2.6 presents the reviews on Hedonic Wellbeing, coping strategy, Tokenism, and Workplace Ostracism respectively. The last section 2.7 presents a summary of the reviews on the aforementioned constructs.

2.1. STEREOTYPE THREAT (ST)

Most of the studies on stereotype threat were conducted on experimental setups. This section is an attempt to present the review on stereotype threat and its deleterious effect in an academic setting. The reviews have been presented in chronological order which is as follow:

Shih et al. (1999) examined identity salience and stereotype susceptibility. The data were collected from Asian American undergraduate females. The results reported that activation of individuals social identity does facilitate performance decrements on assigned tasks. It also explored that when social identity is explored the performance of the target gets altered towards the predicted direction.

Branscombe et al. (1999) examined perceiving pervasive discrimination and its implications for group identification and wellbeing. The study involved processes associated with wellbeing support among African Americans who contrasted in their attributions to bias were analyzed. The study included African and American males and females. The result of the data after analysis reveals that a stable attribution towards biases indicates dismissal by the predominant gathering. Therefore, observing discrimination or biases on the basis of prejudice adversely impacts mental-wellbeing.

Schmader (2001) examined the correlation between social identity and stereotype threat. The source of data was Caucasian undergraduates. The study used a quasi-experimental method which indicated individual differences in gender identification moderate the effect of gender identity. It was revealed that women with a higher level of gender identification perform worse when compared to women with a low level of gender identification.

Ambady et al. (2001) examined the stereotype susceptibility among children. The study attempts to examine the effects of positive as well as negative stereotypes on individuals' cognitive performance of different age groups (lower elementary school, upper elementary school, and middle school). The results after the analysis confirmed a shift in the performance of individuals before and after the activation of positive and negative stereotypes. It has been observed that the cognitive performance of an individual is decreased when negative stereotypes have been activated indirectly whereas an increase in cognitive performance is observed when indirectly positive stereotypes have been activated.

Major et al. (2002) studied personal discrimination and the role of group status in legitimizing ideology. The data was collected from undergraduate male and female students from the University of California, Los Angeles. The samples for the data consist of European American, Latino-Americans and African-Americans. The analysis of the collected data reveals that high-status ethnic group members perceive less personal discrimination when compared with members of low-status ethnic groups.

Schmitt et al. (2002) studied perceived discrimination on gender and its impact on wellbeing. The data was collected from the undergraduate's males and females. The analysis of the collected data was done using structural equation modeling. The analysis revealed that perceived discrimination harms psychological wellbeing. Further, it was explored that only female's psychological wellbeing gets hampered due to perceived discrimination. The study supported that females do partially cope with the negative wellbeing by strongly identifying oneself with one's gender. Whereas, amongst men, the results indicated that group identification is not related to perceived discrimination.

Roberson et al. (2003) examined the relationship of stereotype threat to feedback seeking and feedback acceptance. The responses were collected from employees of utility industries who were also the member of 'National Association of African American Professionals'. Regression was used to analyze the data which indicated that African American who were only representatives of their group (Tokens) in their department experience more stereotype threat when compared with other employees of the same department. The results also indicate that experience of stereotype threat rejects feedback seeking and feedback acceptance.

Steele and Davies (2003) tested the experience of stereotype threat in the workplace. The study included articles on stereotype threat and workplace setting. The overview of those articles revealed about the contextual nature of stereotype threat. It was concluded that negative stereotypes about social-identity i.e. gender, religion, caste, race, etc. influence the behavior of both in-group as well as out-group members. The study also stated that the strength of stereotype threat depends on the numbers as well as the strength of the cues available in the setting in which stereotypes occurs.

Bergeron (2006) investigated the stereotype threat's effect on job performance. The collected data was provided by both men and women. The respondents were pursuing graduate courses in organizational psychology. The results indicated that women were more prone towards the experience of stereotype threat. Though the magnitude of the effects of stereotype threat varies but one with strong identification to their gender advocates the stereotype threat thereby affecting their performance negatively.

Neuville and Croizet (2007) examined the salience of gender identity in relation to math achievement. The data was collected from French children. Considering the theory of stereotype threat, it was hypothesized that activation of gender identity was due to the negative reputation of social category an individual belongs to. The result of ANOVA revealed that on activation of gender identity, girls underperformed in mathematics whereas boys performed well. It was also revealed that students belonging to both the genders performed equally well in difficult problems in the absence of gender identity activation.

Gupta (2007) analyzed the proactive personality of entrepreneurs in abating the impact of gender-related stereotypes to be an entrepreneur. Data which was collected from young women reflected that proactive women were primarily affected by the commonly held stereotype about entrepreneurs and exhibited a considerable reduction in entrepreneurial intents as compared to less proactive women.

Laar et al. (2008) stereotype threat was influenced by one's social and personal identity. The effect was examined on black and Latino students through a longitudinal study. The results showed that stereotype threat will have its result owing to issues for the self (identity stereotype threat) or owing to issues for the cluster (Social identity stereotype threat). It also revealed that activation of ones' social identity evokes stereotype threat which negatively affects the performance. The study further explored that individual who has high domain-identification are more prone to experience stereotype threat than individuals low in domain identification. Further, it is also found that individuals who have a strong identification with one's domain get easily affected by the negative outcomes of stereotype threat.

Brunette et al. (2010) examined how individual differences in belief about the pliability of leadership abilities affected stereotype threat's responses. Data were collected from undergraduate women from Liberal Arts College, U.S Southeast. It was revealed from the results that after experiencing stereotype threat women exhibited lower self- evaluation.

James et al. (2011) tested the effect of adding job relevant context (which is traditionally male stereotyped) to cognitive ability test could negatively affect female performance. The responses were gathered from undergraduate students from a Midwestern university. The collected data was analyzed and the results indicated that the perception of subject or face validity of the test negatively affects the stereotyped sub- group, as well as the negatively viewed sub-groups, experience emotional and psychological stressors that eventually affect performance-related outcomes.

Berjot et al. (2011) conceptualized transactional stress model, which focused on assessing how targets reacted to a situation under stereotype threat in the context of primary appraisals (risk) and also to examine if those appraisals affect the performance and stereotype threat connection. The data was collected from students of three different French secondary schools which included French pupils of North African origin along with students of French origin. The results demonstrated that members of North African inhabitants of France considered the circumstance more of a danger and less of a test.

Mangels et al. (2012) discussed how emotions affected learning under circumstances dealing with stereotype threat. The data was collected from undergraduate females of Columbia. Both univariate and variable approaches were thought-about to explore the connection between feeling and stereotype threat. The analysis discovered that under the influence of stereotype threat, disengagement and interference in learning as well as in learning attempts can be noticed as an individual's emotional response to stereotype threat.

Tagler (2012) examined the effects of a positive social stereotype on individuals' math ability. The data was collected from college students of the American University. The analysis of the data revealed a decrease in the performance of individuals high in self-consciousness and low in gender identification when their gender identity was activated.

Pennington et al. (2012) conducted a systematic review of the literature on stereotype threat from 1995 to 2015. The electronic database search recognized forty-five experiments from thirty-eight research papers as well as seventeen unique proposed mediators were also found which was further classified into the affective, cognitive and motivational mechanism. The study outlined anxiety, negative thinking, and mind-wandering as mediators in stereotype threat researches. The study also briefed researches which pointed out the experience of stereotype threat motivates individuals to disconfirm negative stereotypes.

Galdi et al. (2014) studied the association of stereotype threat on girls performance. The data was collected from childrens of six years old. The results indicated that math performance of girls decreased due to the experience of stereotype threat.

Hoyt et al. (2016) reviewed the model of stereotype threat to explore the effects of this phenomenon on women in leadership context. The study explored various emprical and conceptual paper on stereotype threat and indicated that gender related stereotypes about leadership role of women does hamper their performance.

Weber et al. (2018) conducted research to study the influence of the experience of stereotype threat on educational trajectories of immigrant students. The data was collected from four different Austrian schools. The collected data was analyzed and the results revealed that strong identification with one's ethnic identity is found to be positively related to strong stereotype threat experience. Further, it was also stated that with higher experience of stereotype threat lower level of academic belonging is observed.

Summary

Stereotype threat is a self-affirming conviction that one might be assessed in light of a negative generalization about one's social identity to which he/she belongs (Steele et al., 2002). An individual's concern with one's social as well as personal identity is responsible for the experience of stereotype threat (Laar et al., 2008). Activation of social identity (Gender, Religion, Caste, socio-economic status, etc) of an individual during the performance of the stereotyped domain leads to decreased performance. It is being observed that activation of gender identity of suppressed gender (Female) results in performance decrement (Neuville and Croizet, 2007). For example, a study by Ambady et al., (2001) explored that activation of gender-related stereotypes is responsible for the poor performance of females in the test which assesses their mathematical ability whereas male performed comparatively better.

Stereotype threat can also impact the same person in different ways, depending on which aspect of their identity is made silent. It was observed that Asian women performed better in math test when their ethnic-identity is activated whereas it was found that same group of females performed poor on a test when gender-related stereotypes were activated (Shih et al., 1999)

A higher level of gender identification among women results in their poor performance when compared with women with low gender identification

(Schmander, 2001). Similarly, among men, it is also found that the decrease in performance of male is noted with high self-consciousness and low in gender identification (Tagler, 2012). James et al. (2011) concluded in his study that females underperform in tasks which are traditionally male-dominated task.

Bergeron (2006) reveals that individuals highly identified with one's gender more frequently experience the negative effects of stereotype threat which eventually results in their poor performance. Gupta (2007) claimed that one who has a more proactive personality was more prone to the experience of stereotype threat. It has also been observed that people from lower-class or status, more frequently experience stereotype threat in comparison with those who belong to high status or class (Major et al., 2002; Schmitt et al., 2002).

Basically, stereotype threat is a situational pickle that influences people when they are in danger of affirming to an antagonistic group stereotype, which further disturbs and weaken performance or goals of the target (Davies et al., 2002; Steele and Davies, 2003).

The relation between job setting and stereotype threat is demonstrated by Roberson et al. (2003) in his study which revealed that being a token or solo representative of one's group in an organization invokes a stronger perception of being negatively stereotyped which provides the experience of stereotype threat.

Discrimination on the basis of social and personal identity results in the experience of stereotype threat which further negatively impact one's psychological wellbeing (Schmitt et al., 2012). As indicated by "Rejection-Identification" model proposed by Branscombe et al. (1999) observing discrimination or biases on the basis of prejudice adversely impacts mental-wellbeing. Individuals who perceive negative conduct towards them (like failure to get a coveted position or job, being told a flat you need for lease is inaccessible) due to prejudice often encounter depression, pity, and helplessness (Schmitt and Branscombe, 2002). Individuals experiencing stereotype threat also experience emotional and psychological stressors that eventually affect their performance (James et al., 2011). Mangels et al (2012) observed that under the influence of stereotype threat, disengagement and

interference in learning as well as in learning attempts can be noticed as an individual's emotional response to stereotype threat.

After the experience of stereotype threat lower self-evaluation is observed among the targets (Burnette, 2010) as well as they perceive appraisal more as a danger than as a test (Berjot et al., 2011). Stereotype-Threat' is characterized as the dread or tension that an individual can encounter when they are faced with affirming a negative stereotype about their social-group to which they belong (Schneider, et al., 2012).

2.2. JOB PERFORMANCE (JP)

This present section of this chapter deals with the review on the effect of performance, its outcomes and its relationship with other constructs. It also contains reviews on factors which affects job performance. The reviews are presented in chronological order.

Ruth (1992) examined the relationship of external-rated job performance to self-perceived performance and self-competence. The data was collected from working nurses. The data were analyzed using the ANOVA technique. The analysis of the data revealed that there exists no significant difference among sub-groups of nurses with respect to their demographic variables. Whereas, results from partial correlation analyses showed no significant relationship among self-perceived overall performance, personality measures of self-competence, and external-rated overall performance. Job satisfaction was found to have both intervening and suppressing effects on the relation shared by perceived performance and external-rated performance. Additionally, job satisfaction with professional accomplishments, autonomy in decision making, utilization of knowledge and skills, and overall level of job satisfaction within an organization, were found to be related to self-perceived performance abilities

Jamal and Baba (2001) studied the relationship between behavior (type-A), job performance and well-being. The data was collected from college teachers working in Canada. Data was collected through a structured questionnaire from college teachers of Canada. The findings suggest no relationship between behavior

(type-A) and three measures of job performance (Teaching hours, No. of course preparation per semester and No. of students). The analysis further revealed a positive relationship with employee's burnout and turnover motivation and negative relation with perceived social support and work satisfaction.

Rothmann (2003) in his study determined the relationship shared by personality dimensions with job performance. The data was collected from employees of the pharmaceutical company by designing a cross-sectional survey. The collected data was analyzed and the results revealed that emotional stability, openness to experience, extraversion and conscientiousness relates to the task performance and creativity of employees.

Janseen (2004) explored employee's goal orientation, quality of leader-member-exchange and the aftermaths of performance and satisfaction. The data was collected from working employees of Dutch organizations. The analysis of the collected data revealed that the quality of leader-member-exchange mediated the relationship between mastery-orientations. Whereas, performance orientation was negatively related to the aftermaths of job performance and job satisfaction. The findings further suggest that those employees who have stronger mastery orientations are more effective in their respective jobs.

Carmeli (2007) examined the role of organizational-performance in summoning workers' identification, alteration, and performance in the workplace. The outcomes uncovered that organizational-performance is related to employees organizational-identification. Further, it was additionally investigated that 'Apparent Social Responsibility and Development' largely affected organizational-identification than perceived 'market and financial performance' which results in upgraded work results (Adjustment and Job Performance) of bosses.

Chang (2007) examined the effect of an employee's job performance on their project performance. Four dimensions (task, behavior, management, and self) were extracted though exploratory factor analysis. The extracted four dimensions of performance were hypothesized as independent variables and project performance as the dependent variable. The hypothesized model was further tested through path analysis and the result revealed that the task category of performance is significantly

related to project outcomes. Hence it is concluded that attributes like responsibility, quality of work, job knowledge, experience, efficiency, and accuracy are important for the success of any project.

Jing (2008) investigated the staff's activity stress and work performance in the undergrad training appraisal. The data was collected with the help of survey and interview schedules from teachers working in universities in China. The collected data was analyzed and the results revealed that scholastics were working under moderate dimensions of strain and pressure from their activity explicitness and hierarchical practice and larger amounts of strain and pressure from their self desires. Secondly, it has been explored that there exists a U-shape connection between stress and work performance and these work-setting stress negatively affects the teaching-effectiveness

Saetang (2010) studied the factors affecting the job performance of employees. A correlational-research design was used to collect the responses regarding job performance from staffs of juvenile vocational training Centre for boys in Bangkok. The survey comprises of information regarding demographic details, goal-setting, role-ambiguity, job-satisfaction and perceived job performance. The results revealed a negative effect of role ambiguity on perceived job performance.

Bakker and Bal (2010) tested a model of week work engagement to predict job performance among starting teachers. The data were collected from teacher training colleges in Netherland by the use of questionnaire consecutively for five weeks. The analysis of the collected data revealed that teachers job resources were found to be positively related to their level engagement. Further, it was also reported that the level of their work engagement is predicted by their job-performance.

Lin and Chan (2011) examine the influence of employee savoring on the establishment of perceived job performance. Further, the employee's positive affectivity has been hypothesized as a moderator between the relation shared by savoring and job performance. The responses were collected from sales employees of the insurance company in Tawain. The results indicated a positive relationship between savoring and perceived job performance of employees. The analysis also

confirmed the hypothesis of employee's positive affectivity as a moderator between the relation shared by savoring and perceived job performance.

Uchendu (2011) established the relationship between managerial variables and job performance in an educational context. The data was collected from secondary school teachers of Cross River State. To collect the data ex-post facto research design was used. After the examination of the gathered information, the outcomes uncovered a critical connection between teachers' motivation and training with their performance. In light of the discoveries and finish of the investigation, it was suggested that school administrators (bosses) ought to receive persuasive systems and give educators chances to attend training programs on a regular basis.

Chuan (2012) investigated the impact of 'flow experience' on 'Job performance'. The data were collected through a mail survey from elementary school teachers. The analysis was done through hierarchical regression. The analysis of the data indicated a positive impact of flow experience in a teacher's job performance. Further, the personality traits of conscientiousness and emotional stability were explored to play the role of moderator between flow experience and job performance link.

Jankingthong (2012) investigated existing literature to explore factors which affects job performance. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used to analyze the data which explored organizational-justice, work-engagement and public-service motivational directly affects the job performance whereas the other factor (transformational leadership) has both direct as well as indirect effects on Job-Performance.

Ushop (2013) explored the relation shared by work performance and job satisfaction among teachers. The data was collected from working teachers of Citabato city. Majority of the teachers had 11 to 15 years of teaching experience. The results indicated that one that has a high level of satisfaction with one's job was found to be more creative and productive which eventually results in a high level of job performance.

Azam (2013) investigates the kind of relation shared by Job Stress, Performance, and Emotional Intelligence. The data was collected with the help of questionnaire from working teaching staffs of public and private universities of Pakistan. The collected data was analyzed which explored that job stress and job performance share a negative relationship. Further, it was also revealed that emotional intelligence and job performance share a positive relationship.

Hanzaee (2013) investigate the effect of Emotional Intelligence, organizational citizenship behavior and satisfaction with a job on the performance of the employees. The study was conducted on employees of the Iranian hotel industry. A questionnaire was constructed and distributed among employees to collect their responses. The collected data was analyzed and results indicate that emotional intelligence positively impacts job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and job performance.

Cheng (2013) investigated on principals' leadership behavior and its effects on job performance. The study was conducted on teachers of the kindergarten of Taiwan. The questionnaire was used to collect the data which was analyzed using regression and structural equation modeling analysis. The analysis of the data revealed that empathetic concerns and assertive orders showed by the leaders (principals) towards their teaching staffs have a positive influence on their performance. Whereas further findings suggest that rewards and punishments had no huge impact on improving educators' work performance.

Hall (2014) investigated the effects of job-preference and job-matching assessment on performance and satisfaction of individuals. The data was collected from 19 to 20yrs old young adults with developmental disabilities. The analysis results revealed that participants with high-preference and high-matched jobs were found higher productivity.

Irwaandy (2014) assessed the role of motivation on performance among teachers. The data were collected from teachers of Indonesia. The analysis of the data revealed that a good salary is rated high in providing motivation for better performance among teachers community.

Saka (2014) investigated the levels of motivation, job satisfaction, and job performance. The data were collected with the help of questionnaires from library staffs of government and the private university of Nigeria. The collected data was analyzed and the results indicate the presence of a moderate level of motivation and job satisfaction instead of a high level of job performance among library personnel.

Ahmed (2014) identified the relationship between selected factors of job satisfaction and job performance. A questionnaire was used to collect the data. The data was collected from employees working in the oil palm industry located in Malaysia. The results indicated a significant relationship between factors (pay, work itself, promotion, supervision, and co-workers) of job satisfaction and Job Performance.

Yusoff and khan (2014) validated a scale of job performance by Goodman and Syyntek (1999). The questionnaire was distributed among teachers working in public and private universities in Pakistan. The reliability and validity of the scale were calculated by Cronbach Alpha and Exploratory & confirmatory factor analysis respectively. The result reveals a good psychometric property of adapted scale. Thus, the scale was considered reliable and valid to assess the performance level among university teachers.

Fu (2014) conducted a study to explore the role of caring climate, job satisfaction and organizational commitment on employee's performance. The response was recorded with the help of a questionnaire from employees working in an insurance company in China. The SEM results indicated the significant direct impact of caring climate on an employee's satisfaction with the job, and with performance. The results also indicated an indirect impact of caring climate on organizational commitment with job satisfaction as a mediator.

Muindi (2015) studied the quality of work life, personality, job satisfaction, competence, and job performance. The study found that job satisfaction is not the only factor which can lead to better performance but possessing the right competence is also important for performance.

Bal (2015) anticipated that accessibility and utilization of adaptability HRM would be emphatically identified with representative commitment, just as higher occupation Performance. A longitudinal report among US representatives and an investigation among workers in 11 nations over the world demonstrated that Engagement mediated the connections between the accessibility of adaptability HRM and employee performance. Additionally, incomplete help for the directing job of age in the relations of adaptability HRM with the results: Flexibility HRM was significant for more youthful laborers to improve commitment, while for more established specialists, it upgraded their activity execution. The examination demonstrates that the viability of adaptability HRM relies on worker age and the sort of result included, and subsequently, the hypothesis on adaptability at work should consider the time of representatives.

Olumade (2015) studied the relation shared by gender, stress and academic job performance. A descriptive survey of correlational type was selected as a research design to collect the data. The data was collected from various institutions in Anambra State in Nigeria. The results indicated gender and stress as significant factors which influence the job performance of academic staff. Therefore, it was concluded that the workload of teaching faculty should be reduced so as to increase the efficiency and effectiveness in the teaching-learning process.

Aktag (2015) contemplated computer 'self-efficacy' and anxiety and their relation with performance and individual results. The data was collected by adapting a survey developed by Compeau and Higgins from physical education teachers. The analysis of the data revealed there exists a positive relationship between employees' computer self-efficacy, performance, and personal outcome. Further, the findings also revealed that there exists a negative relationship between employees' computer self-efficacy and anxiety level. The study also revealed that increased duration of computer usage is responsible for increased computer self-efficacy and decreased anxiety level.

Durrah (2016) studied the influence of an individual's psychological capital on their level of job performance. The data was collected from faculty members of Philadelphia University by using a structured questionnaire. The collected data were

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analyzed by using multiple regression which indicated a high level of awareness among the faculty members towards the concept of psychological capital and job performance. It was found that there exists a significant effect of psychological capital ('Hope', 'self-efficacy' and 'Resilience') on job performance. Whereas, the fourth dimension of psychological capital (optimism) does not significantly affect any dimension of job performance.

Khan (2016) analyzed the link between assets, work-engagement, and performance. The data was collected from academic staffs working in universities in Pakistan. The study used a cross-sectional survey design. The analysis of the demographic data revealed that the majority of academic staffs aged between 20-40yrs are married and were holding occupational places of Lecturers and Assistant Professors. Further, the quantitative analysis (SEM) of the data revealed that organizational resources are positively linked with work engagement and performance. Work engagement also plays a mediating role in the relationship between organizational resources and work performance.

Song et al. (2018) examined job performance in learning organizations with self-efficacy and work engagement as mediating factors. The data was collected from teachers working in Korean schools. The analysis of the data revealed that teacher's self-efficacy is positively related to their job performance.

Summary

Performance of any individual can be described according to their area of work. In general job, performance is the ability to skillfully combine the required behavior of employees so as to achieve the organizational goals and objectives. Psychologists classify behavior in two types Type-A (dominant behaviors and intense emotional reactions like competition, impatience, hostility, and aggression) & Type –B behavior (live at lower stress level). Jamal and Baba (2001) in their study suggested that there exists no relationship between behavior (type-A) and three measures of job performance (Teaching hours, No. of course preparation per semester and No. of students). The analysis further revealed a positive relationship with employee's burnout and turnover motivation and negative relation with perceived social support and work satisfaction.

It has been revealed that there is a positive impact of flow experience in a teacher's job performance. Further, the personality traits of conscientiousness and emotional stability were explored to play a role of moderator between flow experience and job performance link (Chaun, 2012). Further Song et al. (2018) also explored that individuals' self-efficacy and job performance share a positive relationship which can be measured using Likert scale e.g. job performance scale by Goodman and Syyntek (1999) which was re-established by Yousuff and khan (2014).

Several factors influence the performance of employees in an organization or institution. Factors like pay or good salary, amount of work, promotion, supervision, and co-workers share a significant relationship with the work performance of an employee (Ahmed, 2014; Irwaandy, 2014). Employees satisfied with one's job perform better than the employees who are not satisfied with their jobs. Teachers who are satisfied with their jobs display a high level of performance which eventually contributes to productivity and creativity (Ushop, 2013). Participants with high-preference and High-matched jobs were found higher productive (Hall, 2014).

For enhancement in one's performance satisfaction is not the only factor but possessing of right competence (Muindi, 2015), Job resources (Bakker and Bal, 2010; Khan, 2016), Computer self-efficacy (Aktag,2015), training (Uchendu, 2011), Caring climate of organization (Fu, 2014), stronger mastery orientation (Janseen,2004), organizational justice (Jankingthong, 2012), Emotional stability, extraversion, and conscientiousness (Rothman,2003) have a significant direct impact on an employee's job performance which eventually improves the performance.

It has been reported by various researchers that teaching faculty experience more stress. It has been explored that stress and performance link share a negative relationship (Azam, 2013). Stress significantly affects the teaching effectiveness of teachers which eventually affects productivity (Jing, 2008). Olumade (2015) reported that gender and job stress are significant factors which influence job performance. Role ambiguity among teachers is another source of stress which negatively effects job performance of teachers (Saetang, 2010).

Stress in any job can be handled intelligibly if one has good emotional intelligence. The study empirically validated that emotional intelligence and performance link share a positive relationship (Azam 2013). The empathetic concerns by the principal can also to some extent lessen the stress as empathetic concerns are positively related to teacher's performance (Cheng, 2013).

A psychological resource like hope, self-efficacy, and resilience also helps an individual to overcome stressful situations. Durrah (2016) stated in his study that dimensions of psychological capital (Hope, Self-efficacy, and resilience) significantly affect all the dimensions of Job Performance.

2.3.   HEDONIC WELLBEING (HWB)

The present section is an attempt to present the reviews on Hedonic wellbeing. There are very few articles which are published with the word 'Hedonic' in the title from the year 2000 to 2019. However, in the present section, the investigator has tried to present the reviews on hedonic wellbeing considering the word both either in the title or anywhere in the article.

Ryan and Deci (2001) conducted a study on hedonic wellbeing and Eudaimonic Wellbeing. The study used secondary data for the study. Thus, a systematic review of the literature was considered for the meta-analysis. The meta-analysis of the review indicated that hedonic wellbeing as the level of familiarity of an individual with pleasant and unpleasant life experiences.

Deci and Ryan (2006) explored wellbeing from hedonic and eudemonic perspective. Recent researches have been included in the study to explore wellbeing from both the perspectives. The study proposed that wellbeing measure is incomplete if hedonic wellbeing is not included in the measure. Further, the study also supported that hedonic wellbeing is based on the concept of experience of the high level of positive affect and low level of negative affect.

Kashdan et al. (2006) studied the effect of dispositional gratitude on hedonic wellbeing and eudemonic wellbeing. The data was collected from a combat veteran with PTSD and without PTSD. The analysis of the data indicated that individuals with PTSD exhibited lower dispositional gratitude which results in lower positive

affect (Hedonic Wellbeing). Moreover, it was also established in the study that greater daily positive affect is predicted by the dispositional gratitude of an individual.

Waterman et al. (2008) studied the two concepts Hedonic and Eudaimonia happiness. The data were collected from undergraduate's students of the college in New Jersey through a questionnaire. The collected data were analyzed using correlation. The correlation analysis indicated there exist a significant strong relationship between hedonic enjoyment and self-determination eventually resulting in one's hedonic wellbeing.

Johnno (2011) investigated the contribution of spirituality and religiousness to hedonic and eudemonic wellbeing. The data were collected from undergraduate students from the University of Tehran, Iran. The next step is to analyze the collected data, which was done with the help of techniques like multiple regression and bi-variate correlation. The analysis of the data showed that hedonic wellbeing and eudemonic wellbeing were positively related to spirituality and religiousness. Further, it was revealed that spirituality is a stronger predictor of hedonic and eudemonic wellbeing when compared with religiousness.

Stone et al. (2013) studied on the topic titled 'conceptualizing Experienced (or Hedonic) Wellbeing. The study briefed previous researchers on hedonic wellbeing and concluded hedonic wellbeing as an emotional or affect component of experienced wellbeing. It also indicated that the term hedonic wellbeing and emotions are one and the same or synonymous. Therefore, it was concluded that hedonic wellbeing can be interchangeably used for emotional wellbeing.

Nelson et al. (2014) examined Self-affirmation, Hedonic wellbeing, and Eudemonic wellbeing. An experimental study was conducted for the collection of data from university students of South Korea. The university students affirmed their values for continuous two weeks. The analysis of the data showed that that self-affirmation leads to increase in hedonic wellbeing (Affect Balance) of the university students.

Huta (2016) explained hedonic wellbeing as a concept which contain feelings of pleasure, enjoyment, satisfaction,ease etc. They further added that these feelings of individuals represents one mindset like ones focus on self and present moment.

Joshanloo et al. (2017) stated hedonic wellbeing as one of the dimension of mental wellbeing. This has further been tested and validated by using Exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis.

Summary

The previous researchers briefed hedonic wellbeing as emotional or as an affect component of experienced wellbeing. It also indicated that the term hedonic wellbeing and emotions are one and the same or synonymous. Therefore, it was concluded that hedonic wellbeing can be interchangeably used for emotional wellbeing (Stone et al. 2013). It is defined as the more frequent experience of pleasant experience than with unpleasant life experiences (Ryan and Deci, 2001). Hedonic wellbeing is based on the concept of experience of the high level of positive affect and low level of negative affect (Deci and Ryan, 2006).

Self-affirmation leads to increase in hedonic wellbeing (Affect Balance) of the university students (Nelson et al. 2014). Lower dispositional gratitude results in lower positive affect (Hedonic Wellbeing) (Kashdan et al. 2006). Hedonic wellbeing is also positively related to spirituality and religiousness (Joshanloo, 2011). Spirituality is a stronger predictor of hedonic wellbeing when compared with religiousness (Joshanloo, 2011). It is also explored that there exists a significant strong relationship between hedonic enjoyment and self-determination eventually resulting in one's hedonic wellbeing (Waterman et al. 2008).

2.4. COPING STRATEGY (COPE)

The present section deals with the review on the coping strategy. The reviews are about the relationship of coping strategy with other variables, determinants of coping strategy and the role of mediator its plays in some specific situation. The reviews on coping strategy are as follow:

Stassen (1994) explored the determinants as well as the outcomes of coping strategy. The data were collected from employees of the telecommunication industry. The analysis of the data revealed that employees who possess high optimistic inclinations, as well as robust mastery, are more inclined towards control-oriented coping. Moreover, it was also found that control coping and escape coping was related to positive as well as negative outcomes respectively. The outcome variables of coping have additive as well as interactive effects.

Lu (2002) studies the effect of work stressor and coping strategy on job performance. The data was collected through a self-administered survey from cities of China. The collected data was analyzed which indicated that positive coping strategy was positive with job performance. It was also indicated that passive adaptation of coping strategy was found to be negatively related to job performance. Further, it was explored that passive adaptation shares a negative relation with quantity and quality of work

Brown (2005) in his study considered coping tactics as a moderator between the relation shared by negative emotion and performance. The data were collected through a mail survey from companies in the United States. The findings reveal the adverse effect of emotion on the performance of employees and coping strategy moderated the relationship between emotions and performance.

Austin et al. (2005) investigated the effect of coping strategies on teachers' stress. The data were collected using questionnaires of coping strategies and stress levels. The data was used to collected from teachers of high schools. The analysis of the collected data was done using a series of correlational analyses which indicated a significant relationship between coping strategy and stress.

Betoret (2006) explained the relationship between stressors, self-efficacy, coping resources and burnout. The data were collected using a Likert scale from secondary school teachers of Spain. The analysis of the collected data was done using factor analysis, reliability and bivariate relations. The analysis indicated a high level of self-efficacy and coping resources are responsible for the low-level experience of stress and burnout among teaching fraternity.

Jennings (2007) examined work-family interface experience with coping strategies. The data for the present study was collected from secondary sources (research articles). The meta-analysis of the literature reveals that females are more likely to use a coping strategy when compared with their male counterparts. Further, it was supported that use of effective coping strategy is helpful for the growth of their firms. Anticipated work-family conflict motivates entrepreneurs to intact coping strategies in a proactive manner.

Chan (2007) examined emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and coping among teachers. The data were collected using three sub-scales assembled in the form of a questionnaire. The data were collected from in-service teachers in Hong Kong. The analysis of the data indicated that emotional intelligence (intrapersonal and interpersonal) predicts an active coping strategy among teaching fraternity.

Shimazu (2010) studied the mediating role of coping strategy on workaholism, Employees health, and performance. The data was gathered with the help of a questionnaire distributed among employees of Japanese Construction Company. The collected data were analyzed using structural equation modeling technique. The analyzed data revealed a positive relationship between workaholism and coping strategy. Further, it was also found that workaholism shares a negative relation with employees' ill-health and positive relation with job performance.

Arnold (2012) studied the organizational stressors and coping on variables like positive and negative affect and performance satisfaction. To record the responses different questionnaires were used for each variable. The questionnaires were assessed on 414 sports performers. The analysis of the data was done using multiple regressions. The analysis indicated positive relation is shared by both goals and development stressor with team and culture stressors on negative affect. Further, the analysis revealed that there exists a positive relationship between problem-focused coping with positive affect, and emotion-focused coping with negative affect.

Fulvio (2016) examined the role of strain facets and coping strategy in translating techno stressors into adverse job-outcomes. The data was collected from employees working in a large organization of the United States. Structural equation

modeling technique was used to analyze the collected data. The analysis of the results uncovered that strain-facets of work-family conflict and distress are responded by coping strategies. The finding further revealed that use of coping strategy also reduces work exhaustion.

Rabenu (2017) examined the relationship between psychological capital, coping with stress, wellbeing, and performance. The data was collected from employees of various organizations of Israel through questionnaires. Structural equation modeling technique was used to analyze the data. The results of the analysis explored that coping strategy partially mediates the relation shared by Psychological Capital and the outcomes of well-being and performance.

Nonis (2018) explored coping strategy and its relationship with personal characteristics and work outcomes. A self-administered questionnaire was used to collect the data. The data were collected from employees who are presently working as sales persons. The analysis indicated that salespersons that are better in time management more often use a coping strategy which results in desired job outcome.

Summary

Coping is a skill or strategies that individuals use either to master, tolerate, reduce or minimize stressful events. As our day to day life is becoming stressful coping strategies are in high demand among the working-class individuals. Individuals better in time management often use a coping strategy which results in desired job outcome (Nonis, 2018). It is suggested that the use of a coping strategy also reduce work exhaustion (Fulvio, 2016). It can be effectively used if an individual uses his/her intrapersonal and interpersonal emotional intelligence as it is been observed that emotional intelligence predicts active coping strategy (Chan, 2007) whereas Negative coping strategy is negatively related to job performance (Lu, 2002). Coping Strategy moderates the relationship between emotion and performance (Brown, 2005). Coping partially mediate the relationship between the outcomes of wellbeing and Performance (Rabenu, 2017).

To fulfill the high demands of the organization employees compulsively works excessively hard for long hours. Workaholism was positively related to

Coping Strategy (Shimazu, 2010). A problem-focused coping strategy is quite popular amongst all the other types and it also found that it is positively related to positive affect and emotion-focused coping (Arnold, 2012). Female employees were more likely to use a coping strategy which is helpful for the growth (Jennings, 2007). High level of self-efficacy with more coping resources reports less stress and burnout (Betoret, 2006). From the above explanation, it can be concluded that coping strategy has a significant relationship with stress (Austin et al. 2005).

2.5. TOKENISM (TOK)

This section presents the reviews on tokenism which contain its theory, process and its effect in the workplace. The reviews on tokenism are as follow:

Yoder (1991) assessed the kantars tokenism theory in which it has been stated that performance pressures, social isolation and role encapsulation were the consequence of tokenism in organizations. Whereas the review of empirical data reveals that the outcomes or consequences stated by Kanter in his tokenism theory occurs only for women is applicable if they select gender inappropriate occupation.

Roth (2004) examined the social psychology of tokenism and homophily processes. The study examined the cognitive mechanism of homophily preferences and status expectations. The data were collected from the security industry through open-ended interview schedule. The qualitative analysis of the data revealed that homophily preferences and status expectation are the two cognitive process that is responsible for the occurrence of tokenism which also leads to the experience of female and male tokens. Moreover, it was also illustrated that how the two cognitive processes i.e. homophily preference and status processes maintains stratification in securities firms.

Scott (2005) examined the process of creating a diverse organization through tokenism. The data for the study was collected through interviews and observation from organizations. The qualitative analysis of the data indicated that it affects self-esteem causing individuals either to isolate themselves or leave the organization so adding more than one representative from a group in the organization will help in moving beyond tokenism.

Arbold and Schulz (2008) explored the effects of tokenism in the workplace. The data were collected with the help of a face-to-face structured interview schedule. Female police officers were the samples considered for this study. The finding of the study contrasted with Kanter's original work of tokenism. The analysis of the responses indicated that male supervisors encourage their female colleagues to apply for promotion. Meanwhile, study also explored that this encouragement is often perceived negatively by most of the female police officer and thus restrict them to participate in the process.

Ban and Rao (2008) studied the impact of tokenism in village democracies in South India. The data were collected from both the males as well as females at the village, president and household levels. The feedback form was administered to a group of men and women's using PRA techniques (Participatory Rapid Appraisal). The analysis of the results indicates that at the higher-level token (women) never perform worse than males whereas token (women) at lower level performs worse when compared with males.

King et al. (2009) investigated about antecedents and consequences of the psychological climate of Gender Inequity to understand the Tokenism theory. The data was collected through questionnaire from female undergraduate research assistants. The analysis of the survey confirms the fact that tokens perceive organizational climate to be inequitable towards them further it also revealed that subjective processes of tokenism give rise to inequitable climate perceptions.

Turco (2010) explored the cultural foundation for tokenism. The data was collected through the interview from tokens (Females and African American Male) of the leveraged buyout industry. The findings reveal that social psychological and cultural theories of exclusion play an important role in token occupational inequality.

Wallace and Kay (2012) investigated tokenism, organization segregation, and co-worker relations. The data were collected from practicing married lawyers of Law firms through questionnaire from the province of Alberta. The analysis of the data indicated that rising representation of women's in law firms leads to enhanced communication which is very essential for lawyers.

Ocloo and Matthews (2016) studied about tokenism and empowerment. The study was continued through a selection of narrative literature search which covers a wide range of disciplines across health and social care, policy, and research. The meta-analysis of the collected reviews revealed that organizations should move beyond tokenism by sharing power and decision making with the token will eventually promote empowerment.

Lundy (2018) explained tokenism in the context of scholarship and child participation. They described tokenism as a factor which negatively impacts the participation of childrens thus effecting their rights of equal participation.

Summary

From the above reviews, it can be concluded that tokenism is the actions which result in pretending to provide an advantage to groups in our society which are frequently treated unfairly, in order to give the appearance of fairness. Roth (2004) explored two cognitive processes i.e. homophily preferences and status expectation which are responsible for the occurrence of tokenism which also leads to the experience of female and male tokens. Moreover, these two cognitive processes i.e. homophily preference and status processes also maintain stratification in organizations.

The individual gave preference according to the theory of tokenism in the organization is labeled as 'Token'. Tokens perceive organizational climate to be inequitable towards them further it also revealed that subjective processes of tokenism give rise to inequitable climate perceptions (King et al. 2009). The findings of several studies reveal that social psychological and cultural theories of exclusion play an important role in token occupational inequality (Turco, 2010). Organizations should move beyond tokenism by sharing power and decision making with the token will eventually promote empowerment (Ocloo and Matthews 2016).

Scott (2005) in his study revealed that tokenism affects self-esteem causing individuals either isolate themselves or leave the organization so adding more than one representative from a group in the organization will help in moving beyond tokenism.

The analysis of the data indicates that at the higher-level token (women) never perform worse than dominant group (males) whereas token (women) at lower level performs worse when compared with a dominant group (males) (Ban and Rao, 2008). It is been also observed that token (female) are intensely exhilarated by dominant group members (male) supervisors to participate in the promotion process. This encouragement by a dominant group member (male) actually deterred some of the token (female) to participate in the promotion process (Arbold and Schulz, 2008).

Whereas the review of empirical studies reveals that the outcomes or consequences stated by Kanter in his tokenism theory occurs only for women's (tokens) is applicable if they select gender inappropriate occupation (Yoder, 1991). Whereas Wallace and Kay (2012) support the rising representation of tokens (Females) in dominant group (Male) stereotyped profession leads to enhanced communication which is quite essential for one's growth and development in an organization.

2.6. WORKPLACE OSTRACISM (WOS)

The current section presents the review on workplace ostracism which became popular after 2000 and now a considerable amount of research has been done with this variable. Some of the popular reviews have been presented in this section which is as follow:

Hitlan (2006) in his study considered gender as a moderator on the relation shared by exclusion, work-related attitudes, and psychological health. Basically, the study examined the consequences of exclusion in the organization. The data were collected though computer-based survey from male and female working students. The analysis of the data was done using hierarchical moderated regression analyses. The analysis revealed that perception of a high level of exclusion results in lower satisfaction as well as lower psychological health when compared to their counterpart's or females of the same organizations.

William (20007) attempts to explore the phenomenon of ostracism, social exclusion, and rejection. The study was continued through a selection of narrative

literature search which covers a wide range of reviews from different disciplines. The Meta-analysis of the review revealed that experience of ostracism results in sadness and anger which threatens the fundamental needs of the employees. Further, it explored that behavior consequences of ostracism can be divide into two categories (a) Attempts to fortify relational needs (b) Attempt to fortify efficacy/existence needs of control and recognition, the former generally leads towards prosocial behavior whereas the later leads to anti-social thoughts and behaviors.

Salvy (2012) assessed the effects of the experience of ostracism and social connection. The data were collected from adolescents through cyber ball and Aversion Impact Questionnaire. The collected data were analyzed using a t-test, MANOVA, and ANOVA. The analyzed data indicated that ostracized individuals have less positive self-esteem, lack of control and greater negative mood.

Ahmed (2013) studied the importance of social support in the workplace so as to avoid the feelings of ostracism and its negative outcomes. A literature survey approach was considered for collecting information for the study. Qualitative analysis of the survey was done which suggests ways to overcome the negative effects of ostracism. The study also focussed on the importance of social support in reducing the phenomenon of ostracism.

Balliet (2013) investigated ostracism and prosocial behavior that whether the experience of ostracism leads to less prosocial behavior or more prosocial. The data were collected from University students of Singapore. The collected data wasanalyzed through Hierarchical Multiple regression analysis. The analyses of the data revealed that the experience of ostracism at the workplace has a significant negative relation with helping intentions of the ostracized employee.

Zhang (2015) explored the relation shared by neuroticism and ostracism in the workplace. The data were collected from new employees including male and female employees. It was collected through a Likert scale by sending it through E-mail. The collected data was analyzed uniformly by checking reliability, validity and then Pearson correlation and Linear regression were applied. The analysis of the data revealed that neuroticism positively affects the experience of ostracism at the

workplace which means that an employee higher in neurotic behavior very strongly experience the ostracism at the workplace. The analysis of moderating effects revealed that the lower the task interdependence, the stronger the relationship between neuroticism and ostracism at the workplace is observed.

Steele (2015) explored the negative consequences of the experience of ostracism. The study portrayed ostracism as the experience of rejection, exclusion and being ignored by the fellow members. To collect the data on the same, an experiment with the Cyberball technique was used. After conducting the experiment, the results indicated that an ostracized individual experience much enhance the accessibility of death thoughts due to low self-esteem when compared with less ostracized individuals

Chung (2015) studied the role of organizational conflict on the type of relation shared by ostracism with in-role behavior and ostracism with organizational-citizenship-behaviour. The data for this study was collected through the questionnaire. The responses were collected from full-time employees. It was gathered using two waved self-report survey as the longitudinal design was considered. The collected data was analyzed using Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Structural Equation Modelling. The analysis of the data revealed that ostracism is positively related to organizational conflict. Further mediation analysis explored that the relationship shared by ostracism with in-role behavior and organizational-citizenship-behaviours is fully mediated by employees' conflict.

Chung (2018) in his study explore about perceived stress and ostracism. The study also intends to explore the relation ostracism shares with an employee's helping behavior, their voicing behavior and their task-related performance. Further psychological empowerment is also hypothesized as a moderator on the type of relation shared by perceived stress and its aftermaths in terms of behavioral outcomes. The data was collected from full-time employees through a questionnaire in South Korea. The collected data were analyzed using regression analyses with bootstrapping. The findings indicated workplace ostracism as a stressor whereas the psychological empowerment as moderator which negatively effects ostracism.

Summary

The experience of ostracism at the workplace is considered a stressor (Chung, 2018). It results in sadness and anger which threatens the fundamental needs of the employees (William, 2007). It is also explored that behavior consequences of ostracism can be divide into two categories (a) Attempts to fortify relational needs (b) Attempt to fortify efficacy/existence needs of control and recognition, the former generally leads towards prosocial behavior whereas the later leads to anti-social thoughts and behaviors (William, 2007). The experience of ostracism at the workplace has a significant negative relation with helping intentions of the ostracized employee (Balliet 2013).

It has been explored that neurotic individuals are more prone towards the experience of ostracism at the workplace because it's been observed that neuroticism positively affects the experience of ostracism at the workplace which means that an employee higher in neurotic behavior very strongly experience the ostracism at the workplace (Zhang, 2015). The experience of ostracism results in several consequences like ostracized individuals have less positive self-esteem, lack of control and greater negative mood (Salvy, 2012) which results in much-enhanced accessibility of death thoughts when compared with less ostracized individuals (Steele, 2015). It has also been observed that men perceive a higher level of exclusion with lower satisfaction and psychological health when compared with the females of the same organizations (Hitlan, 2006). It was Chung (2015) explored that some organizational factors also support the phenomenon of ostracism, it has been proved that conflict, supervisor conflict, and task conflict are positively related to workplace ostracism.

Previous researchers explored the mediators and moderators of ostracism. Their researchers claimed a conflict of co-employees as a strong mediator on the type of relation ostracism shares with in-role behavior and ostracism with organizational citizenship behaviors (Chung, 2015) whereas Zhang (2015) claimed that lower task interdependence as a strong moderator between the relationship of neuroticism and ostracism. Chung (2018) revealed psychological empowerment as a moderator between the negative effects of ostracism on behavioral outcomes of employees

In an organization, both individual and organizational factors are responsible for the occurrence of ostracism. Social exchange relations are an effective strategy to overcome the negative outcomes of ostracism. This has further been supported by Ahmed (2013) as he mentioned in his study that there is a great need to empirically prove the importance of social support at work in reducing the side effects of ostracism.

2.7. SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

India is a country with great diversity and diversity has its own pros and cons. In many context, diversities is the root cause of stereotyping which can be positive as well as negative. When an individual is exposed to negative stereotyping, stereotype threat occurs which can further lead an individual to experience ostracism at the workplace which is considered to be one of the potential causes of stress at the workplace which adversely affects the job performance of an individual. When a threat is evoked an individual's hedonic wellbeing is also affected. Therefore, to manage the disturbance caused by negative stereotypes "resource-demanding coping strategies" is very much important.

In this chapter stereotype and its deleterious effects has been reported by presenting a few reviews on the phenomenon. One of the most widely studied effects of stereotype threat was its detrimental impact on job performance or performance of an individual. Thus, the researcher also presented studies on job performance and explored task, contextual and counterproductive work behavior as its dimension. Further through the reviews of stereotype threat, it has been explored that there is an underlying mechanism which affects the link between stereotype threat and performance, considering this the study included hedonic wellbeing coping strategy and workplace ostracism as mediators. Therefore, the chapter also presents reviews on hedonic wellbeing which states that "Emotional quality of an individual's everyday experience—the frequency and intensity of experiences of joy, fascination, anxiety, sadness, anger, and affection makes one's life pleasant or unpleasant". So, therefore hedonic well-being of an individual is a very important factor in one's life. Secondly, coping strategy also plays an important role in the situation with stress or especially in the workplace. It is very much important in our

daily life as employees are expecting to contribute more and more in the organization and gradually the demand is increasing day by day.

To overcome the stressor like ostracism at the workplace, the use of effective coping strategy is suggested. The reviews on ostracism are also included which states that due to this phenomenon, few behavioral problems might also occur like low pro-social behavior and frequent antisocial thoughts. The reviews on ostracism also included its relationship with one's personality type and other factors which can be individual as well as organizational factor.

CHAPTER – III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The present chapter highlights the research methodology considered for the present study. It highlights the procedure of data collection, measures used in data collection, research design, and sampling frame. The chapter has been systematically arranged in different sections for more clarity viz. section 3.1 discusses the sampling frame considered for the study, 3.2 presents the sample size considered by the researcher, section 3.3 provides a sampling process, 3.4 discusses the research instruments used in the study, 3.5 presents the details of the instruments used in the present study. Section 3.6 explains the reliability and validity of research instruments used in the study. Section 3.7 deals with the conceptual framework of the study. Section 3.8 discusses the research design whereas section 3.9 discusses data collection. Section 3.10 will describe the approach for data analysis and section 3.11 deals with the techniques used in the analysis of the data.

3.1. POPULATION/ SAMPLING FRAME

The study has been conducted on the primary and secondary school teachers of government schools of the eastern region of Uttar Pradesh. There are 15 districts in eastern region of state namely Allahabad, Azamgarh, Baharaich, Ballia, Basti, Deoria, Faizabad, Ghazipur, Gonda, Gorakhpur, Jaunpur, Mirzapur, Pratapgarh, Sultanpur and Varanasi in which total number of primary and secondary school teachers are 166859 (75%) and 57650 (25%) respectively. The figure below systematically represents the number of schools in each district.
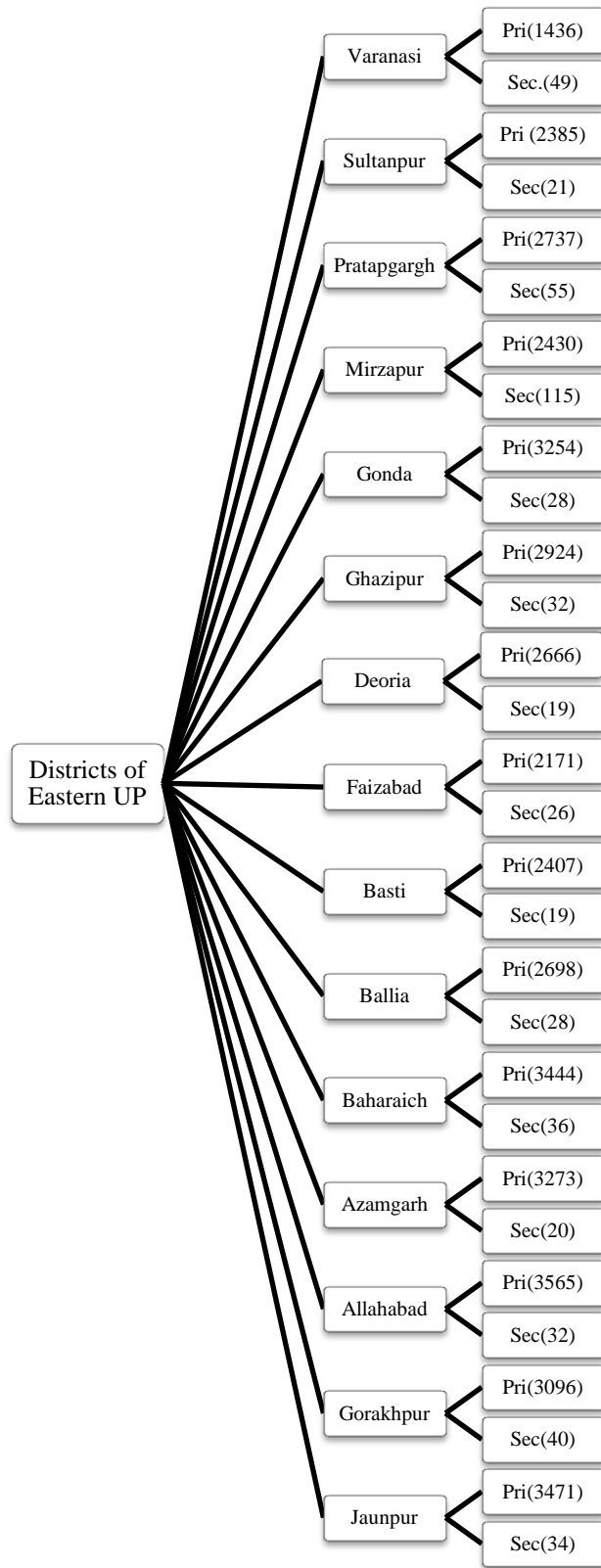
Fig. 3.1: Number of Schools in Each District of Eastern Uttar Pradesh (U.P)

3.2. SAMPLE

In the present study the investigator used Multi-stage sampling technique for selecting the samples. The sampling has been divided into 3-stages. In the first stage, out of 15 districts 6 districts has been selected as per the convienience. The factors considered for selection of districts are because of the number of schools, number of teachers and societal setup. In the second stage, proportionate stratified sampling technique has been used to calculate the number of teachers to be taken from the primary and secondary schools. The sampling frame of the study such that teachers working in government schools are 2,24,509. There is no fixed rule to decide the sample size. Some researcher's favors utilizing sample frame for selection of sample (Mesa et al., 2016). Considering the target population to select reasonable sample to represent the population of teachers website of surveymonkey.com was used. The sample was calculated considering the confidence level of 95% with margin of error of 5%. The calculator estimated a valid sample size of 384 which is sufficient to represent the population of eastern uttar Pradesh. However, in order to cover the dropout rate and data cleaning processes the investigator planned to collect sample 550 to 600 teachers from the respective districts. The final figure of approached teachers is 591 respondents. The proportionate representation of teachers working in primary and secondary schools was also considered. Hence, keeping in view, the population of primary teachers i.e. 166859 (75%) and the secondary school teachers 57650 (25%) the investigator collected the data final data from 443 primary teachers (75%) and 148 secondary teachers (25%), which comes out to be 591 teachers in total.

In the third stage the teachers were contacted personally by the investigator to collect the data related to the purpose of the study. The final collected data after the data cleaning and removal of incomplete forms remained 446 teachers. For supervisory rating on job performance of teachers, 180 principals were also contacted. The further analysis and interpretation of data was conducted on this sample which was adequately above the required 384 suggested for the target population.

3.3   PROCEDURE

The present study is the school level study. The data collection process was done twice for (a) validation of the tools used and (b) data required for analysis and interpretation.

For tool validation, the criteria of number of items in the different tools was considered and hence reasonable sample of 390 teachers and Principals were approached to get their responses on the items of the tools. To collect data from the respondents, the pilot study for scale validation has adopted convenience sampling technique.

In final data collection 591 respondents were approached. However, after the cleaning of the data only 446 respondents data were included. Purposive sampling technique was used in order to select desired sample arising due to the solo-status in the school either because of gender, caste or religion. The representations of gender were also considered while collecting the data. From each school, three to four teachers were contacted for their consent to participate in the study. The average strength of the teachers in the schools varied from 7-18.

In order to collect the sample the respondents six districts of Uttar Pradesh namely Allahabad, Varanasi, Jaunpur, Balia, Deoria and Gorakhpur was visited by the investigator. Formal ethical approval was taken from the recognized authority. The investigator explained the purpose of the study to the respective respondents i.e. teachers and principals. The teachers were informed by the investigator about their performance evalution by their respective principals.

The primary and secondary government schools from the eastern region of Uttar Pradesh constituted the population for the study. The personal survey constituted 180 schools from six districts of Uttar Pradesh. Approximately three to four respondents were taken from each school which includes teachers and principal. The investigator personally interacted with the respondents of each school and got the questionnaire filled from the teachers and their respective heads. In total 591 responses (representing 180 schools) were finally selected for analysis. The average response of respondents from 180 schools was used for data analyses and interpretation. A brief description of the sample is given below in table 3.3.

Table 3.1: Sample Profile

Criteria	Category	Number	Percentage
Gender	Male (M)	225	38%
	Female (F)	366	62%
Caste Category	General (GN)	242	41%
	Other Backward Class (OBC)	242	41%
	Schedule Caste (SC)	95	16%
	Schedule Tribe (ST)	12	2%
Designation	Primary Teacher (PRT)	443	75%
	Trained Graduate Teacher (TGT)	148	25%

3.4. RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

The questionnaire method has been used for measuring the variables in the conceptualized model (Fig3.7). The questionnaire included Likert-type scales for measuring Stereotype Threat (ST), Job Performance (JP), Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB), Coping Strategy (COPE), Workplace Ostracism (WOS) and Tokenism (TOK).

The dependent variable – Job Performance (JP) has been measured using task performance, contextual performance, and counterproductive work behavior. The job performance scale is supervisory rating scale. The aforementioned dimensions of job performance have been assessed by identifying items from the previous literature.

The independent variable - Stereotype Threat (ST) has been measured using occupational identification (Oi), Gender Identification (Gi), Gender Stigma Consciousness (Gs), Religion Identification (Ri) Religion-Stigma Consciousness (Rs), Caste-category Identification (Ci), Caste-category Stigma Consciousness (Cs) and Negative Affect (Na). The aforementioned dimensions of stereotype threat have been assessed by using Identification scale by Mael and Ashforth, (1992), Stigma Consciousness Scale by Pinel (1999) and Negative Affect Scale by (Picho and Brown, 2011; Marx and Stapel, 2006) on a rating ranging on 5-point Likert scale.

The other variables workplace ostracism and Hedonic wellbeing are uni-dimensional constructs whereas coping strategy and tokenism are multi-dimensional construct with Self-care, Social-Support, Cognitive- Coping and Recreation as sub-dimensions of coping strategy and Visibility, Polarization and assimilation as sub-dimensions of Tokenism.

3.5   THE DEVELOPMENT OF RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

The development of an estimation scale to measure construct is an extreme, tedious and awkward job. It includes heaps of reviewing previous literature, fixation, and devotion. This investigation as of now talked about has built up the scale according to the rules and techniques of Churchill (1979) and Hekin (1995). The overview strategy has been produced after profound and careful reviewing previous researches with a specific end goal to get bits of knowledge into the impact of stereotype threat on job performance. In the present study only those research instruments are used which showed high validity and reliability in line with the research objectives. To measure job performance a pool of item was generated on five points Likert scale where 1- Strongly Disagree and 5- Strongly Agree). After the selection of the items for the construct content validity of the research, the instrument was also assessed by sending the scale to 5 experts of some top-notch universities. Before finalizing the scale pilot study was done to check the reliability of the scale. Details of the scale development procedure have been discussed in the next chapter-IV

3.6.   RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

It is quite important that the research instrument used to measure construct in any study should be reliable as well as valid. By following the procedure of reliability and validity the results produced by the scales will be stable and consistent. The scale which is not reliable and valid will produce vague and questionable findings thereby challenging the authenticity of the research. Therefore in the present study, the process of reliability and validity is followed, so as to maintain a high level of consistency in the scales used to measure the variables.

3.6.1 Validity of the Instruments

There is no consensus among the researchers regarding the definition of validity. One of the most popular definitions of validity is given by Joppe (2000) which states that

"Validity determines whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are". In other words, does the research instrument allow you to hit "the bull's eye" of your research object? Researchers generally determine validity by asking a series of questions, and will often look for the answers in the research of others. (p. 1)"

Content validity, Convergent validity, and discriminant validity have been used in the present study to assess the validity of the measures. The instruments content validity has been assessed by presenting the instruments to the experts of the top universities. All the experts expressed satisfaction with the validity of the instruments.

3.6.2 Reliability of the Instruments

Generally, the term reliability is explained as the consistency of the result. Researchers define reliability as "The extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable. (Joppe, 2000, p.1)"

Generally, reliability is categorized as internal and external reliability. The former assesses the items internal correlations whereas the latter is concerned with the results generalization (Black, 1999). According to Carmines and Zeller (1979), internal consistency can be assessed by simply checking the Cronbach's-Alpha of the instrument. The Cronbach's-Alpha minimum value should be 0.7 (Nunnally, 1994). Therefore, considering the above suggestion given by previous researchers the instruments used in the present study satisfies the minimum threshold of reliability. Thus instruments were finalized and can be used for data collection.

3.7   CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY
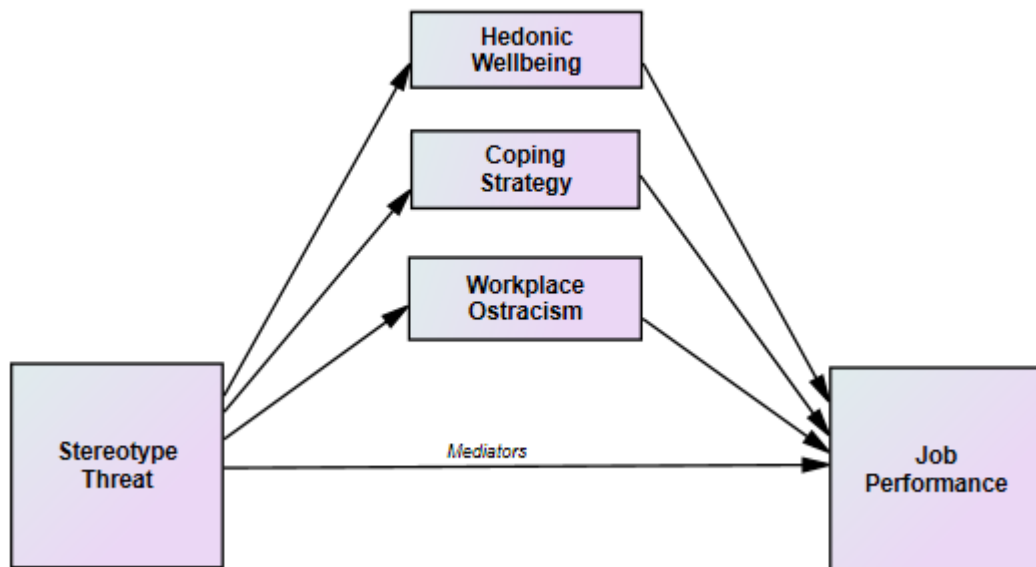
Fig. 3.2: Conceptual Model of the Study

The model presented above provides a conceptual framework of the research work executed with the major objective for studying the linkages and the nature of outcomes. "Stereotype threat is a self-confirming belief that one may be evaluated based on a negative stereotype".

As per Aronson et al., (1998) stereotype threat is the distress experienced by the individuals from the adversely stereotyped social-group in circumstances when they see themselves in danger of affirming that negative observation. It is a mental wonder that has been appeared to contrarily affect the exhibition of an assortment of gatherings (e.g., racial/ethnic minorities, ladies, and individuals with low financial status).

Many researchers in their researches continue to portray stereotype threat as a phenomenon which decreases the performance. As per the understanding of prevalent societal structure in the Indian setting, it is hypothesized that the factors which trigger stereotype threat are gender (G), religion (R), category (C) and tokenism (T) in the workplace in teaching sector. Job performance is all the behaviors an employee's engagement while at work. It is referred to as an act of

accomplishing or executing a given task (Lindsay, 1995; Griffin, 2012). It can be stated as any behavior which is focused toward the task or goal accomplishment. Job performance or work performance of an individual vary from job to job. Thus there is no clarity on what exactly constitutes individual job performance.

As per meta-analytical study job performance can be measured on three components i.e., Task Performance (TP), Contextual Performance (CP) and Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB). Stereotype threat sources like gender (G), religion(R), category (C) and tokenism (TOK) will influence task performance, contextual performance and counterproductive work behavior in a job setting. Being the mechanism of stereotype threat working at the cognitive and affective level there are some psychological aspects which mediate its influence positively and negatively on the functions exhibited in the form of behavior. Fredickson (1998, 2001) in broadening and build theory portrayed positive emotions as vehicles for one's growth and social connection. These growth and social connections were built by one's personal and social resources, which further facilitate the people in the transformation for the betterment of their lives in the future. The situational aspect of the work profile and performance of teachers in Indian setting shows that teachers mostly experience stressful conditions in the profession. Hepburn and Brown (2001) reasoned that teacher's work burden is identified by the amount of paper work, devoting extra time in teaching and other school activities, etc which gradually make the teaching profession more stressful.

Identification for stress causing factors like (threat, fear, uncertainty, cognitive dissonance, life causes, frustration, conflicts, pressures, environment, fatigue, and overwork) of stress is the first step to deal with stress (Manjula, 2007). A teacher's identification or awareness about the aforementioned factors is the most important step as it helps in increasing the level of positive emotion thereby increasing ones emotional well-being (Fredickson and Joiner, 2002). Hedonic well-being or experienced happiness refers to the "emotional quality of an individual's everyday experience—the frequency and intensity of experiences of joy, fascination, anxiety, sadness, anger, and affection that make one's life pleasant or unpleasant" (Kahneman and Deaton, 2010). So, therefore, the hedonic well-being of the teacher is a very important factor which negates/facilitates stereotype threat which is a type

of social threat which directly or indirectly leads an individual to feel stressed. Secondly, the groupism at play due to different sources of stereotype threat leading to ostracization at work also had a role to play in the show off behavior. Thirdly, the influence of ostracization and well-being forces the cognitive functioning to employ coping strategies to adapt to work performance. Therefore through the present study, the investigator intended to understand the mediating/moderating effect of hedonic well-being, coping strategies and ostracism on stereotype threat - job performance link.

3.8 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design is "A plan, structure, and strategy of the investigation so conceived as to obtain answers to research questions or problem" (Kerlinger, 1995). There are numerous definitions given by researchers in the past about research design which more or less speaks about the fact that basically, it is a roadmap which guides us towards the research being directed in the best and productive way. The present study is descriptive in nature and survey method of data collection has been applied through self-developed and adapted scales.

It involves measurement of the mediation design approach to measuring the proposed mediating effects of Hedonic well-being coping strategies and workplace ostracism. The mediating effect has been studied through the use of Baron and Kenny (1986) bootstrapping method.

3.9. DATA COLLECTION

After the satisfactory results of validity and reliability of the research instruments, the scales were finalized and again the finalized instrument was administered for final data. The respondents were first approached via Social-media 'WhatsApp' by creating two 'WhatsApp' groups namely 'Teachers Integration Group' and 'Teachers Survey Group'. These groups include primary and secondary school teachers and principals of different districts of Uttar Pradesh. The questionnaire was shared using 'Google-Drive' but the response rate was very low. Therefore, the investigator decided not to include the data collected through an online survey.

It was at this point when a self-decision was taken to collect the data by personally visiting schools. First appointments from principals were taken and then the hard copy of the questionnaire was distributed to teachers and to principals. There were two different sets of questionnaires Viz. Teachers-Questionnaire and the Principals-Questionnaire. The questionnaires for teachers were divided into five-sections containing questions on Stereotype-Threat (ST), Coping-Strategy (COPE), Workplace-Ostracism (WOS), Hedonic-Wellbeing (HWB) and Tokenism (TOK). The questionnaire for principals contains questions on the performance of teachers in which principals have to rate the performance of teachers working in their school. Apart from these sections, there was a separate section on the demographic details of the respondents in both the questionnaire. To fill the questionnaire each respondent on an average took about 35-45 minutes.

3.10. DATA ANALYSIS

To analyze the collected data it was first punched into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Then the entered data was cleaned, as well as outliers were removed. Then the Mean, Standard Deviation, Skewness, and Kurtosis were scanned. For empirical findings in the present study, tools viz. Microsoft-Excel (MS-Excel), Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 22.0 and an added module of SPSS which is Analysis of Moment Structure (AMOS) were used.

The descriptive statistics were employed to the obtained data-set so as to apprehend the nature of data. Univariate, Bi-Variate and Multivariate analysis techniques were used to assess the normality of the data. Mahalanobis D^2 was considered to assess Multivariate Normality of the data.

To explore the dimensionality of the construct Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was used which was followed by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) with maximum Likelihood criteria has been adopted for the measurement and validation of scales used in the study. It considered to confirm convergent and discriminant validity and composite reliability of the scales used. By using various model-fit-indices like RMR, CFI, GFI, AGFI, RMSEA, and Normed Chi-Square the scales were validated.

A t-test was used to find the differences due to gender and Religion in the experience of stereotype threat whereas ANOVA was used to find out the difference among categories in the experience of stereotype threat. A regression analysis has been used to study the impact of tokenism in the occurrence of stereotype threat. To measure the impact of stereotype threat (ST) on Job Performance (JP), Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) and coping strategies (COPE), Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) and workplace ostracism (WOS), Coping Strategies (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS) measurement and structural model was tested in AMOS. The mediating role of Hedonic wellbeing (HWB), Coping Strategy (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS) was assessed using mediation analysis through bootstrapping.

3.11 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

The collected data has been analyzed using Descriptive Statistics, Reliability analysis, Bivariate, and Multivariate analysis. Software packages like SPSS and AMOS were used for computerized data analysis.

1) Descriptive statistics like mean, S.D, normality test has been applied to understand the nature of the data.

2) t-test and ANOVA has been used to find significant differences between groups.

3) The regression analysis has been used to predict the outcome variable.

4) A Measurement Model (MM) and Structural Model (SM) through SEM were used to predict the outcomes of independent variable Stereotype Threat on dependent variable Job Performance.

5) Baron and Kenny's method of Bootstrapping has been used to see the mediation of the variables viz. hedonic wellbeing, coping strategy, and workplace ostracism.

CHAPTER – IV

SCALE VALIDATION

The present study has used well-established and renowned scale development and validation procedures. This chapter presents the procedure of scale development suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) which was further supported by Henkin (1995). The present chapter has been divided into six sections. The consecutive sections 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, 4.4.4.5 and 4.6 deals with scale development procedure for the constructs stereotype threat, Job Performance, Tokenism, Workplace Ostracism, Coping Strategy, and Hedonic wellbeing respectively.

The procedure of scale development comprised of item generation followed by the content validity of the constructs. The next step is scale development and refinement followed by pilot testing and factor analysis (EFA and CFA) of the scales. The last step deals with the evaluation of Scale followed by construct validity and reliability testing of the scales. The steps followed for the development of scale in the present study has been highlighted in the following three stages.

Item Generation and Selection
- Deductive/Inductive
- Content Validity

Scale Development and Refinement
- Pilot-Study
- Exploratory-Factor-Analysis (EFA)
- Confirmatory-Factor-Analysis (CFA)

Scale Evaluation
- Construct Validity
- Reliability Testing
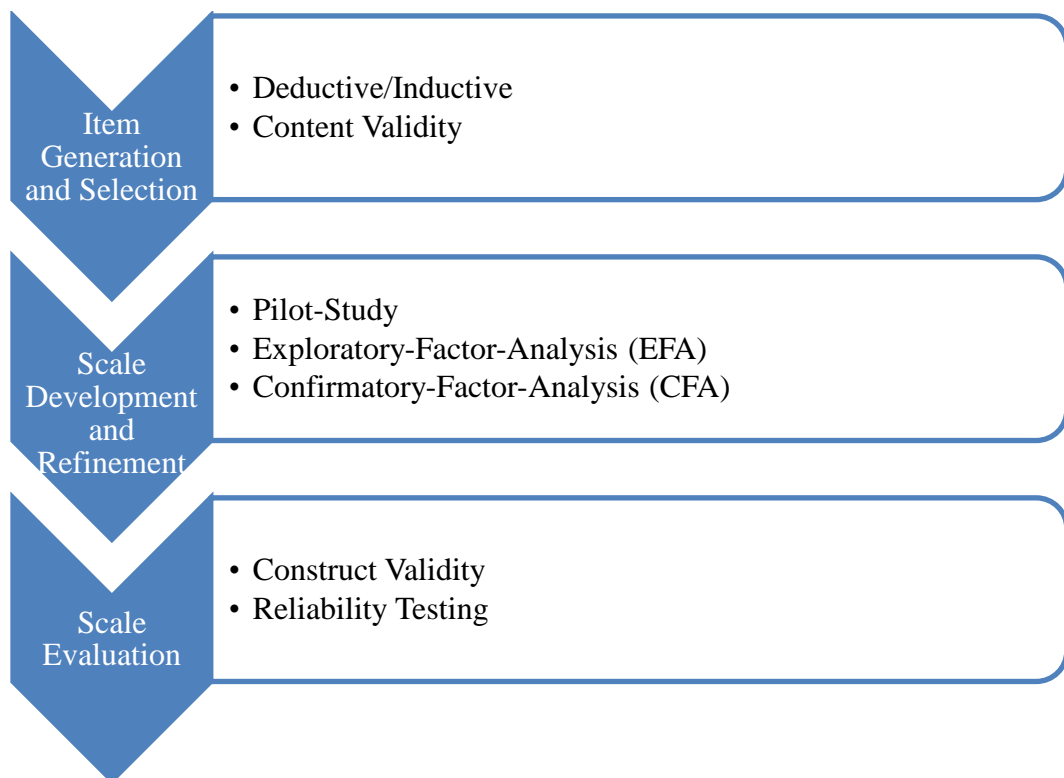
Fig. 4.1: Steps Followed in Scale Development (Source: Henkin, 1995)

Item Generation: The process of scale development carried out with the generation of a pool of items. The generated items capture the domains specified in the present research with enough theoretical support as suggested by (Hutz et al. 2015). Basically, there are two methods for the generation of items which are an inductive and deductive method (Hunt, 1991). Some researchers also determine the combination of both the methods for the generation of items. Inductive method is time-consuming as the generation of items using this method is based on the qualitative evidence or statistics of the construct. The qualitative information can be obtained through focus group interviews, expert panels and qualitative exploratory research methodologies from the targeted population (Kapuscinski and Masters, 2010). The deductive method is quite famous among researchers. The generation of items through this method involves extensive review to develop a theoretical definition of construct so that it can be used as guiding manual to ease the development of items (Schwab, 1980, Hinkin, 1995). The present study has used a deductive approach for the generation of items for specific constructs.

There is no specific thumb rule for a number of items in a scale. Though, Hinkin and Schriesheim (1979) suggested at least four to five items so that adequate internal consistency can be achieved.

Content Validity is one of the most fundamental steps after the generation of items which is mostly overlooked by the researchers. It is generally known as theoretical analysis which ensures that the developed items reflect the desired construct (Arias et al.2014). In the present study, internal consistency of the operationalized items was checked by subject matter experts working in reputed universities like Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi, Punjabi University, Patiala, VIT, Vellore, etc. The experts were presented with construct definitions and were asked to match items with the conforming definition. An acceptable agreement index was determined prior to administration of the items and definitions. Response choices ranged from 1 to 4 viz. Not relevant= 1, somewhat relevant =2, quite relevant=3, highly relevant=4 were presented to the subject experts for rating. According to Veneziano and Hooper (1997) content validity is determined as (Number of Experts Positively Answered / Total Number of Experts) − 1. Therefore, in the present study the items rated by at least 80% of the judges as at least

somewhat representative, or by 60% as clearly representative, were retained. The assessment of items by expert judges in the initial round identified few items which lack transparency and will eventually result in misinterpretation by the respondents.

Scale Development and Refinement: It alludes to the means taken to enhance the psychometric execution of a scale. The procedure suggested by Churchill (1979) and Henkin (1995) was followed for the establishment of better internal-consistency and verification of content homogeneity. All the necessary and important steps like Pilot-Study, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) have been considered for the refinement of scale. This examination has refined the scale by experiencing every single stage guaranteeing that all the fundamental conditions were satisfied.

Pilot Study: In order to purify the measure and to inspect the internal consistency of retained items, the items finalized were then taken to the next stage which is 'Pilot Study'. The method suggested by Churchill (1979) for the administration of finalized items to the targeted sample was followed.

In the process of scale development, the assessment of reliability and validity of the scale is an important stage. The validation of the scales used in the present study has been assessed using Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. According to Child (2006), these methods are used for the simplification of interrelated measures as well as it also explores patterns in a set of variables.

Exploratory Factor Analysis is a statistical technique used in a situation where a researcher requirement is to un-cover the essential structure of a construct which has a relatively large set of variables. It is a procedure suggested to simplify inter-related measures so as to explore a meaningful set of items into different factor structure (Child, 2006; Yong and Pearce, 2013). In the present study, the scale development procedure followed, recommends employing Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to the emerged factor structure after Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). According to the majority of the researcher's scale purification through Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) enhances the scales psychometric properties (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Arnold and Reynolds, 2003; Farooq, 2016). Therefore in the present study, CFA will be applied to all the contructs.

Scale Evaluation: The final stage of the scale development process includes evaluation of the scale because the main aim of scale development was to generate a measure which explains validity and reliability. Reliability testing is done after applying confirmatory factor analysis so as to establish a fact that a significant degree of internal consistency is achieved after confirmation of factors.

Construct Validity: Nunally (1978) stated that factorial validity is also named as construct validity. It was Guilford (1946) who claimed that "factorial validity of the test is given by its loading in meaningful, common reference factors". Hence it can be concluded that testing reliability, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) provides enough details about scales construct validity. It can be assessed by examining Average Extracted Variance AVEs.

According to previous researchers Average Extracted variance of Factors should be either 0.4 or more than 0.4 (Forner and Larcker, 1981; Farooq, 2016). The Average Variance Extracted of the construct used in the present study were above the suggested threshold value. Further composite reliability of the scales have also been examined which also satisfies the threshold value suggested by Hair et al., (1998).

The scales used in the present study were categorized into two section scale adaptation and scale construction. Stereotype threat and Job Performance scale were constructed by the investigator whereas scales of coping strategy, Hedonic wellbeing, tokens, and workplace ostracism were adapted. The following are the details of the scales used in the study.

4.1. THE DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF STEREOTYPE THREAT (ST) SCALE

Operationalization of Stereotype threat (ST) Construct

In the present study Stereotype threat (ST) is operationalized as multidimensional construct with Occupational Identification (Oi), Gender Identification (Gi), Gender Stigma Consciousness (Gs), Caste-category Identification (Ci), Caste-category Stigma Consciousness (Cs), Religion Identification (Ri), Religion Stigma Consciousness (Rs) and Negative Affect (Na) as

its sub-dimensions. The scale developed by Mael and Ashforth (1992) has been replicated for occupational identification, Gender identification, religion identification and caste-category identification, the scale developed by Pinel (1999) has been replicated for Gender stigma consciousness, Religion Stigma Consciousness and Caste-category Stigma Consciousness whereas the scale developed by Picho (2011) has been replicated for Negative Affect (Na). Stereotype threat has been operationalized from an individualistic perspective. Stereotype threat is most likely to be experienced by persons high in domain identification (Steele, 1997 and Keller, 2002).

Operationalization of Occupational Identification (Oi)

Occupational Identification (Oi) has been measured with five-items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree as shown in Table 4.1. In the present study, 'Identification' has been conceptualized as a uni-dimensional construct.

Table 4.1: Items Selected to Measure Occupational Identification (Oi)

Item Code	Statement	Source/s
Oi1	When someone criticizes the teaching profession in government schools it feels like a personal insult.	Mael and Ashforth, (1992)
Oi2	I am very much interested in what other's think about the teaching profession in a government school.	
Oi3	When someone praises the teaching profession in government schools it feels like a personal compliment.	
Oi4	My occupations successes are my successes.	
Oi5	If a story in the newspaper or on television criticizes teaching profession in government schools, I would feel embarrassed.	

Operationalization of Gender Identification (Gi)

Gender Identification (Gi) has been measured with five items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree as shown in Table 4.2. It has been conceptualized as a uni-dimensional construct from an individualistic perspective.

Table 4.2: Items Selected to Measure Gender Identification (Gi)

Item Code	Statement	Source/s
Gi1	When a teacher of opposite gender criticizes job performance of teachers of my gender, it feels like a personal insult.	Mael and Ashforth, (1992)
Gi2	I am very much interested in what other's think about taking teaching as a profession by people of my gender.	
Gi3	When someone praises Job performance of teachers of my gender it feels like a personal compliment.	
Gi4	My gender successes in teaching profession successes are my successes.	
Gi5	If a story in the newspaper or on television criticizes teachers of my gender, I would feel embarrassed.	

Operationalization of Gender Stigma Consciousness (Gs)

Gender Stigma Consciousness (Gs) has been measured with five-items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree as shown in Table 4.3. It has been conceptualized as a uni-dimensional construct from an individualistic perspective.

Table 4.3: Items Selected to Measure Gender Stigma Consciousness (Gs)

Item Code	Statement	Source/s
Gs1	Most teachers of opposite gender have a lot more negative thoughts about the performance of other teachers of my gender than they actually express.	Pinel (1999)
Gs2	Most of the teachers judge job performance on the basis of gender.	
Gs3	Most of the teachers have a problem viewing the performance of other teachers from the opposite gender as equal to their performance.	
Gs4	When interacting with teachers/officials, I feel they interpret all my behaviors in terms of the fact that I belong to the opposite gender.	
Gs5	Stereotypes about the performance of my gender in the teaching profession have affected me personally.	

Operationalization of Caste category Identification (Ci)

Caste-category Identification (Ci) has been measured with five items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree as shown in Table 4.4. The scale was adapted from Mael and Ashforth (1992). It has been conceptualized as a uni-dimensional construct from an individualistic perspective.

Table 4.4: Items Selected to Measure Caste category Identification (Ci)

Item Code	Statement	Source/s
Ci1	When someone criticizes the job performance of the teacher of my caste-category, it feels like a personal insult.	Mael and Ashforth, (1992)
Ci2	I am very much interested in what other's think about taking teaching as a profession by people of my caste-category.	
Ci3	When someone praises the job performance of teachers of my caste-category, it feels like a personal compliment.	
Ci4	I view other teacher success of my caste-category in the teaching profession as my successes.	
Ci5	If a story in the newspaper or on television criticizes teachers of my caste-category, I would feel embarrassed.	

Operationalization of Caste Category Stigma Consciousness (Cs)

Caste-category Stigma Consciousness (Cs) has been measured with five items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree as shown in Table 4.5. It has been conceptualized as a uni-dimensional construct from an individualistic perspective.

Table 4.5: Items Selected to Measure Caste-category Stigma Consciousness (Cs)

Item Code	Statement	Source/s
Cs1	Most teachers of other caste category have a lot more negative thoughts about the performance of teachers of my caste-category than they actually express.	Pinel (1999)
Cs2	Most of the teachers judge job performance on the basis of caste-category.	

Item Code	Statement	Source/s
Cs3	Most of the teachers have problems viewing the performance of our caste category teachers as equal to theirs.	Pinel (1999)
Cs4	When interacting with teachers/officials, I feel they interpret all my behaviors in terms of the fact that I belong to another caste category.	
Cs5	Stereotypes about the performance of my caste category in the teaching profession have affected me personally.	

Operationalization of Religion Identification (Ri)

Religion Identification (Ri) has been measured with five items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree as shown in Table 4.6. They conceptualized 'Identification' as a uni-dimensional construct from an individualistic perspective.

Table 4.6: Items Selected to Measure Religion Identification (Ri)

Item Code	Statement	Source/s
Ri1	When someone criticizes job performance of teacher of my religion, it feels like a personal insult.	Mael and Ashforth, (1992)
Ri2	I am very much interested in what other's think about taking teaching as a profession by people of my religion.	
Ri3	When someone praises the job performance of teachers of my religion, it feels like a personal compliment.	
Ri4	I view other teacher success of my religion in the teaching profession as my successes.	
Ri5	If a story in the newspaper or on television criticizes teachers of my religion, I would feel embarrassed.	

Operationalization of Religion Stigma Consciousness (Rs)

Religion Stigma Consciousness (Rs) has been measured with five items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree as shown in Table 4.7. It has been conceptualized as a uni-dimensional construct from an individualistic perspective.

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Table 4.7: Items Selected to Measure Religion Stigma Consciousness (Rs)

Item Code	Statement	Source/s
Rs1	Most teachers of other religion have a lot more negative thoughts about the performance of teachers of my religion than they actually express.	Pinel (1999)
Rs2	Most of the teachers judge job performance on the basis of religion.	
Rs3	Most of the teachers have a problem viewing the performance of my religion teacher as equal to theirs.	
Rs4	When interacting with teachers/officials, I feel they interpret all my behaviors in terms of the fact that I belong to other religion.	
Rs5	Stereotypes about the performance of my religion in the teaching profession have affected me personally.	

Operationalization of Negative Affect (Na)

Negative Affect has been measured with five items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree as shown in Table 4.8. It has been conceptualized as a uni-dimensional construct from an individualistic perspective.

Table 4.8: Items Selected to Measure Negative Affect (Na)

Item Code	Statement	Source/s
Na1	I experience feeling of dejection at school.	Picho (2011)
Na2	I feel like I am letting myself down in the teaching profession.	
Na3	I start to lose confidence in my abilities as a teacher.	
Na4	I feel hopeless at school.	
Na5	I feel like giving up the Teaching Profession.	

Content Validity

After the operationalization of the sub-dimensions of stereotype threat scale. The next step is to check the content validity of the operationalized constructs. The

experts were presented with construct definitions and were asked to match items with the conforming definition. The table's 4.9 and 4.10 presents the construct definition provided to experts whereas the next table contains the details of the expert.

Table 4.9: Construct Definitions Provided to Experts for Content Validity of Stereotype Threat (ST) Scale

Sr. No	Dimension	Definition
1	Occupational Identification (Oi)	It is the degree to which one personally values achievement in a given domain.
2	Gender Identification (Gi)	"The extent to which ones gender forms a central part of one's self-concept" (Picho,2011)
3	Gender Stigma Consciousness (Gs)	"The extent to which one is chronically self-conscious of the stigma attached to one's gender" (Picho, 2011)
4	Caste category Identification (Ci)	"The extent to which one's caste category forms a central part of one's self-concept" (Steele, 1997)
5	Caste category Stigma Consciousness (Cs)	"The extent to which one is chronically self-conscious of the stigma attached to one's caste category" (Pinel, 1999)
6	Religion Identification (Ri)	"The extent to which one's religion forms a central part of one's self-concept" (Steele,1997)
7	Religion Stigma Consciousness (Rs)	"The extent to which one is chronically self-conscious of the stigma attached to one's religion" (Pinel, 1999)
8	Negative Affect (Na)	"Negative feelings of dejection experienced during performing a job or task" (Picho,2011)

The following table represents the details of the experts approached for the content validity of the scale. The experts approached were from the filed of psychology, human resource management and education.

Table 4.10: List of Experts Consulted for Content Validity of Stereotype Threat (ST) Scale

Sr. No.	Name	Designation	University
1	Dr. Kulwinder Singh	Professor	Department of Education and Community Service, Punjab University, Patiala, Punjab.
2	Dr. Jahanara	Professor	Department of Anthropology, S.H.I.A.T.S, Allahabad, Uttar Pradesh.
3	Dr. Shabana Bano	Professor	Department of Psychology, Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi, Uttar Pradesh.
4	Dr. R.C Mishra	Professor	Department of Psychology, Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi, Uttar Pradesh.
5	Dr. Sangeeta Trott	Asst. Professor	Institute for Technology and Management, Navi Mumbai, Maharashtra.
6	Dr. Mridula Misra	Professor	Mittal School of Business, Lovely Professional University, Punjab.

The scale presented to the experts comprised of options viz., 1 to 4 viz. Not relevant= 1, somewhat relevant =2, quite relevant=3, highly relevant=4 after each item. By presenting these options besides each statement, the investigator asked the experts to rate the appropriateness of each item according to the construct definition provided to them. Table 4.11 below presents the outline of the assessment tool presented to the experts.

Table 4.11: Rating Presented to Experts for Content Validity

Statements	Ratings			
	Not Relevant	**Somewhat Relevant**	**Quite Relevant**	**Highly Relevant**
e.g. Item: I feel hopeless at school	1	2	3	4

After collecting the responses of the experts the content validity rates (CVR) was calculated for each item by the formula suggested by Veneziano and Hooper (1997) and Yurdagul (2005). The formula is:

$$\text{CVR} = \frac{NA}{N/2} - 1$$

Where, CVR= Content Validity Rates.

NA= No. of Experts who answered positively.

N= Total no. of Experts

When the expert opinion for stereotype threat was calculated according to the stated formula, for 6 experts 0.99 value was used as CVR value. No items were excluded in this process. The table 4.12, below presents the CVR for items of stereotype threat scale. No items were deleted in this process.

Table 4.12: Content Validity Rates for Items Considered for Stereotype Threat (ST) Scale

Item. No.	Statements	CVR
Oi1	When someone criticizes the teaching profession in government schools it feels like a personal insult.	1.00**
Oi2	I am very much interested in what others think about the teaching profession in a government school.	1.00**
Oi3	When someone praises the teaching profession in government schools it feels like a personal compliment.	1.00**
Oi4	My occupations successes are my successes.	1.00**
Oi5	If a story in the newspaper or on television criticizes teaching profession in government schools, I would feel embarrassed.	1.00**
Gi1	When a teacher of opposite gender criticizes job performance of teachers of my gender, it feels like a personal insult.	1.00**
Gi2	I am very much interested in what others think about taking teaching as a profession by people of my gender.	1.00**
Gi3	When someone praises Job performance of teachers of my gender it feels like a personal compliment.	1.00**
Gi4	My gender successes in teaching profession successes are my successes.	1.00**

Item. No.	Statements	CVR
Gi5	If a story in the newspaper or on television criticizes teachers of my gender, I would feel embarrassed.	1.00**
Gs1	Most teachers of opposite gender have a lot more negative thoughts about the performance of other teachers of my gender than they actually express.	1.00**
Gs2	Most of the teachers judge job performance on the basis of gender.	1.00**
Gs3	Most of the teachers have a problem viewing the performance of other teachers from the opposite gender as equal to their performance.	1.00**
Gs4	When interacting with teachers/officials, I feel they interpret all my behaviors in terms of the fact that I belong to the opposite gender.	1.00**
Gs5	Stereotypes about the performance of my gender in the teaching profession have affected me personally.	1.00**
Ci1	When someone criticizes the job performance of teacher of my caste category, it feels like a personal insult.	1.00**
Ci2	I am very much interested in what others think about taking teaching as a profession by people of my caste category.	1.00**
Ci3	When someone praises the job performance of teachers of my caste category, it feels like a personal compliment.	1.00**
Ci4	I view other teacher success of my caste category in the teaching profession as my successes.	1.00**
Ci5	If a story in the newspaper or on television criticizes teachers of my caste category, I would feel embarrassed.	1.00**
Cs1	Most teachers of other caste category have a lot more negative thoughts about the performance of teachers of my caste category than they actually express.	1.00**
Cs2	Most of the teachers judge job performance on the basis of caste category.	1.00**
Cs3	Most of the teachers have problems viewing the performance of our caste category teachers as equal to theirs.	1.00**
Cs4	When interacting with teachers/officials, I feel they interpret all my behaviors in terms of the fact that I belong to another caste category.	1.00**
Cs5	Stereotypes about the performance of my caste category in the teaching profession have affected me personally.	1.00**

Item. No.	Statements	CVR
Ri1	When someone criticizes job performance of teacher of my religion, it feels like a personal insult.	1.00**
Ri2	I am very much interested in what others think about taking teaching as a profession by people of my religion.	1.00**
Ri3	When someone praises the job performance of teachers of my religion, it feels like a personal compliment.	1.00**
Ri4	I view other teacher success of my religion in the teaching profession as my successes.	1.00**
Ri5	If a story in the newspaper or on television criticizes teachers of my religion, I would feel embarrassed.	1.00**
Rs1	Most teachers of other religion have a lot more negative thoughts about the performance of teachers of my religion than they actually express.	1.00**
Rs2	Most of the teachers judge job performance on the basis of religion.	1.00**
Rs3	Most of the teachers have a problem viewing the performance of my religion teacher as equal to theirs.	1.00**
Rs4	When interacting with teachers/officials, I feel they interpret all my behaviors in terms of the fact that I belong to other religion.	1.00**
Rs5	Stereotypes about the performance of my religion in the teaching profession have affected me personally.	1.00**
Na1	I experience feeling of dejection at school.	1.00**
Na2	I feel like I am letting myself down in the teaching profession.	1.00**
Na3	I start to lose confidence in my abilities as a teacher.	1.00**
Na4	I feel hopeless at school.	1.00**
Na5	I feel like giving up the Teaching Profession.	1.00**

Administration of Scale (Pilot Study): The pilot study was conducted to collect the response of the teachers on Stereotype Threat (ST) scale. To collect data from the respondents, the pilot study for scale validation has adopted convenience sampling technique. Stereotype threat questionnaire was distributed via hard copy to teachers to collect their responses. Total 390 data was collected from teachers. As, there is no fixed rule to decide the sample size. Hinkin (1995; 2005) favors ratio

ranging from 1:4 to 1: 10 between number of items and respondents for sample selection. Therfore, the sample considered for validation of the scale is appropriate.

Before starting the data collection formal ethical approval was taken from the recognized authority. After the collection of data, the technique used to inspect internal consistency was Cronbach's alpha. The Cronbach's Alpha was calculated with the help of IBM, SPSS version 20. The Cronbach's alpha value of stereotype threat construct was 0.847 which was above the acceptable threshold level. The next step is the confirmatory factor analysis of the construct. Table 4.13 presents the reliability statistics of stereotype threat construct.

Table 4.13: Reliability Statistics of Stereotype Threat (ST) Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.847	40

Table 4.14: Reliability Statistics of Sub-dimensions of Stereotype Threat (ST) Scale

Construct	Sub-dimension	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Stereotype Threat (ST)	Occupational Identification	5	0.683
	Gender Identification	5	0.806
	Gender Stigma Consciousness	5	0.817
	Caste category Identification	5	0.722
	Caste category Stigma Consciousness	5	0.802
	Religion Identification	5	0.897
	Religion Stigma Consciousness	5	0.785
	Negative Affect	5	0.845

Construct Validity: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was run through AMOS 20.version to study the confirmatory model of the above-stated constructs. The model indices like

Root Mean Square (RMR), Goodness of Fit (GFI), AGFI RMSEA and Chi-square were observed in the confirmatory model of the constructs.

Stereotype Threat (ST) is a multi-dimensional construct with Occupational Identification (Oi), Gender Identification (Gi), Gender Stigma Consciousness (Gs), Caste category Identification (Ci), Caste category Stigma Consciousness (Cs), Religion Identification (Ri), Religion Stigma Consciousness (Rs) and Negative Affect (Na) as its dimension. The scales of Mael and Asforth (1992), Pinel (1999) and Picho (2011) has been replicated into the aforementioned dimensions. Therefore, it was decided to cross-validate the factor structure of the present sub-scale through Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The validations of the sub-scales are as follow:

Validation of Occupational Identification (Oi) Scale

Occupational Identification (Oi) has been measured using a 5-item scale as shown in the figure 4.2 represented below. It was decided to cross-validate the factor structure of the present scale through Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).

Fig. 4.2: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model of Occupational Identification

Table 4.15: Model Fit Indices for Occupational Identification (Oi) Scale

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ^2	Df	p-value	χ^2/df
I	0.76	0.962	0.887	0.957	0.127	37.65	5	0.000	7.53
II	0.054	0.985	0.945	0.985	0.80	15.29	4	0.004	3.80

The above Table.4.15 comprised of two CFA default models, it is observed that the CFA default Model-1 indicated a poor fit. The value of RMSEA and χ2/df were not close to the threshold level. Therefore it was decided to introduce covariance between e4 and e5 rather than deleting any item from the model for improving model-fit indices of the model. Hence from the CFA default, Model-II indicated good model-fit indices, therefore occupational identification (Oi) construct is validated.

Validation of Gender Identification (Gi) Scale

Gender Identification (Gi) scale has been measured using a 5-item scale as shown in the figure below. It was decided to cross-validate the factor structure of the present scale through Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).

Fig. 4.3: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model for Gender Identification (Gi)

Table 4.16: Model Fit Indices for Gender Identification (Gi) Scale

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ2	Df	p-value	χ2/df
I	0.019	0.988	0.964	0.994	0.058	11.93	5	0.036	2.38

From the above table.4.16, it has been observed that the CFA default Model-I indicated a good model-fit. The value of RMR, GFI, AGFI, CFI, RMSEA, and χ2, and Normed Chi-square indicated good model-fit indices. Therefore, Gender Identification (Gi) construct is validated.

Validation of Gender Stigma Consciousness (Gs) Scale

Gender Stigma Consciousness (Gs) scale has been measured using a 5-item scale as shown in the figure below. It was decided to cross-validate the factor structure of the present scale through Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).

Fig. 4.4: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model for Gender Stigma Consciousness (Gs)

Table 4.17: Model Fit Indices for Gender Stigma Consciousness (Gs) Scale

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ^2	Df	p-value	χ^2/df
I	0.021	0.987	0.961	0.991	0.062	12.824	5	0.025	2.56

From the above table 4.17, it is observed that the CFA default Model-I indicated a good model-fit. The value of RMR, GFI, AGFI, CFI, RMSEA, and χ^2, and Normed Chi-square indicated good model-fit indices. Therefore, Gender Stigma Consciousness (Gs) construct is validated.

Validation of Caste **Category** *Identification (Ci) Scale*

Caste Category Identification (Ci) scale has been measured using a 5-item scale as shown in the figure below. It was decided to cross-validate the factor structure of the present scale through Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).
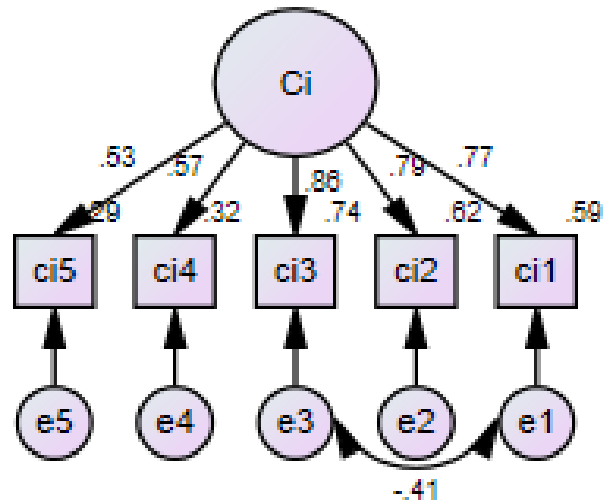
Fig. 4.5: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model for Caste Category Identification (Ci)

Table 4.18: Model Fit Indices for Caste Category Identification (Ci) Scale

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ^2	Df	p-value	χ^2/df
I	0.032	0.977	0.932	0.974	0.096	23.58	5	0.000	4.717
II	0.023	0.991	0.966	0.992	0.057	9.34	4	0.053	2.33

From the above Table 4.18, it has been observed that the CFA default Model-1 indicated a poor fit. The value of RMSEA and χ^2/df were not close to the threshold level. Therefore it was decided to introduce covariance between e1 and e3 rather than deleting any item from the model for improving model-fit indices of the model. Hence, from the Table 4.18 CFA default, Model-II indicated good model-fit indices; therefore caste category identification (Ci) construct is validated.

Validation of Caste **Category** *Stigma Consciousness (Cs) Scale*

Caste Category Stigma Consciousness (Cs) scale has been measured using a 5-item scale as shown in the figure below. It was decided to cross-validate the factor structure of the present scale through Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).
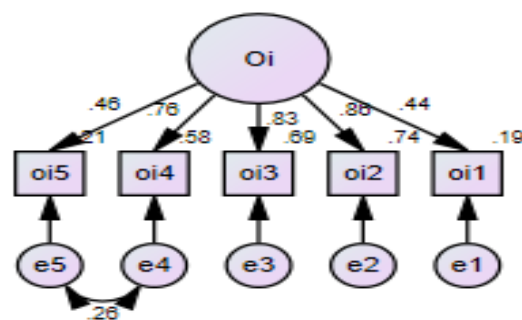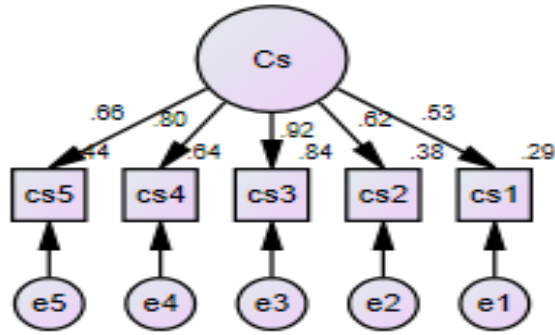
Fig. 4.6: Confirmatory Factor analysis model for Caste Category Stigma Consciousness

Table 4.19: Model Fit Indices for Caste Category Stigma Consciousness (Cs) Scale

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ2	Df	p-value	χ2/df
I	0.033	0.986	0.959	0.989	0.067	14.11	5	0.015	2.823

From the above table 4.19, it is observed that the CFA default Model-I indicated a good model-fit. The value of RMR, GFI, AGFI, CFI, RMSEA, and χ2, and Normed Chi-square indicated good model-fit indices. Therefore, Caste Category Stigma Consciousness (Cs) construct is validated.

Validation of Religion Identification (Ri) Scale

Religion Identification (Ri) scale has been measured using a 5-item scale as shown in the figure below. It was decided to cross-validate the factor structure of the present scale through Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).
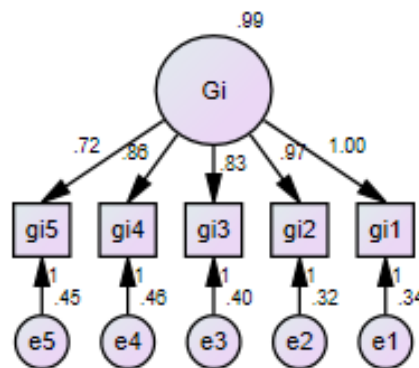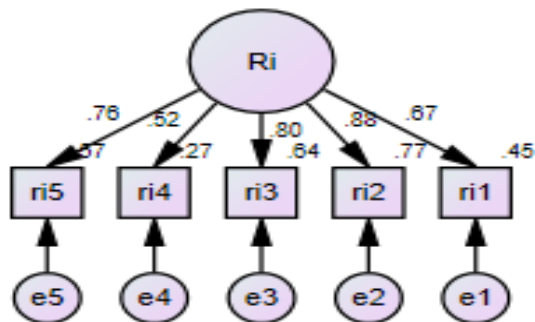

Fig. 4.7: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model for Religion Identification (Ri)

Table 4.20: Model Fit Indices for Religion Identification (Ri) Scale

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ^2	Df	p-value	χ^2/df
I	0.023	0.994	0.981	0.998	0.027	6.502	5	0.260	1.300

From table 4.20, it is observed that the CFA default Model-I indicated a good model-fit. The value of RMR, GFI, AGFI, CFI, RMSEA, and χ^2, and Normed Chi-square indicated good model-fit indices (Forner and Larker, 1981). Therefore, Religion Identification (RI) construct is validated.

Validation of Religion Stigma Consciousness (Rs) Scale

Religion Stigma Consciousness (Rs) scale has been measured using a 5-item scale as shown in the figure below. It was decided to cross-validate the factor structure of the present scale through Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).
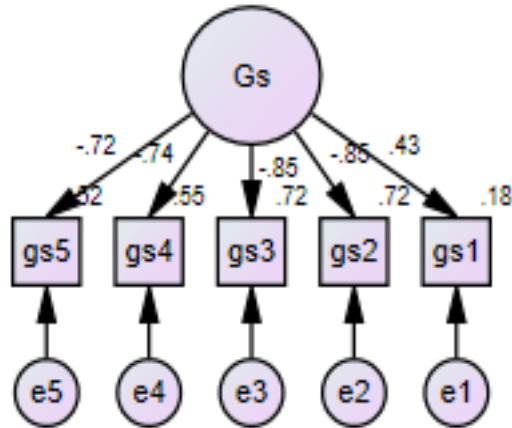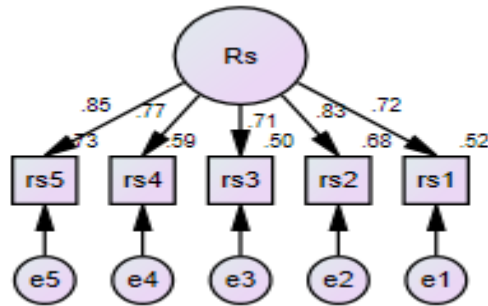

Fig. 4.8: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model For Religion Stigma Consciousness (Rs)

Table 4.21: Model Fit Indices for Religion Stigma Consciousness (Rs) Scale

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ^2	Df	p-value	χ^2/df
I	0.034	0.984	0.951	0.989	0.075	16.303	5	0.006	3.26

From Table 4.21, it is observed that the CFA default Model-I indicated a good model-fit. The value of RMR, GFI, AGFI, CFI, RMSEA, and χ^2, and Normed Chi-square indicated good model-fit indices (Forner and Larker, 1981). Therefore, Religion Stigma Consciousness (Rs) construct is validated.

Validation of Negative Affect (Na) Scale

Negative Affect (Na) scale has been measured using a 5-item scale as shown in the figure below.
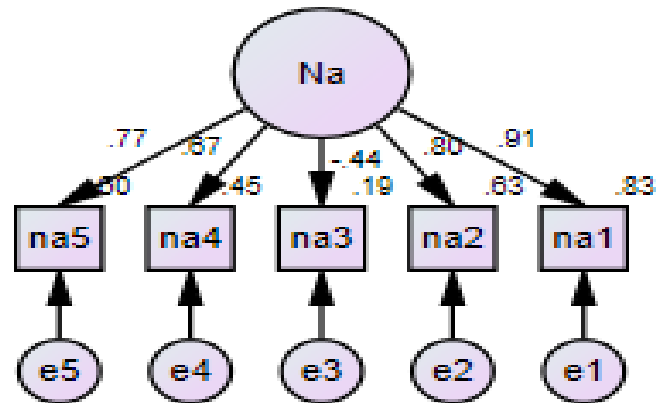
Fig. 4.9: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model for Negative Affect (Na)

Table 4.22: Model Fit Indices for Negative Affect (Na) Scale

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ^2	Df	p-value	χ^2/df
I	0.039	0.985	0.956	0.988	0.071	15.30	5	0.009	3.061

From table 4.22, it has been observed that the CFA default Model-I indicated a good model-fit. The value of RMR, GFI, AGFI, CFI, RMSEA, and χ^2, and Normed Chi-square indicated good model-fit indices (Forner and Larker, 1981). Therefore, Negative Affect (Na) construct is validated.

Confirmatory Model of Stereotype Threat (ST) Scale

Since, stereotype threat (ST) is a multi-dimensional construct with Occupational Identification (Oi), Gender Identification (Gi), Gender Stigma Consciousness (Gs), Caste category Identification (Ci), Caste category Stigma Consciousness (Cs), Religion Identification (Ri), Religion Stigma Consciousness (Rs) and Negative Affect (Na) as its dimension. Its confirmatory model is tested with 40-items for all its eight dimensions.
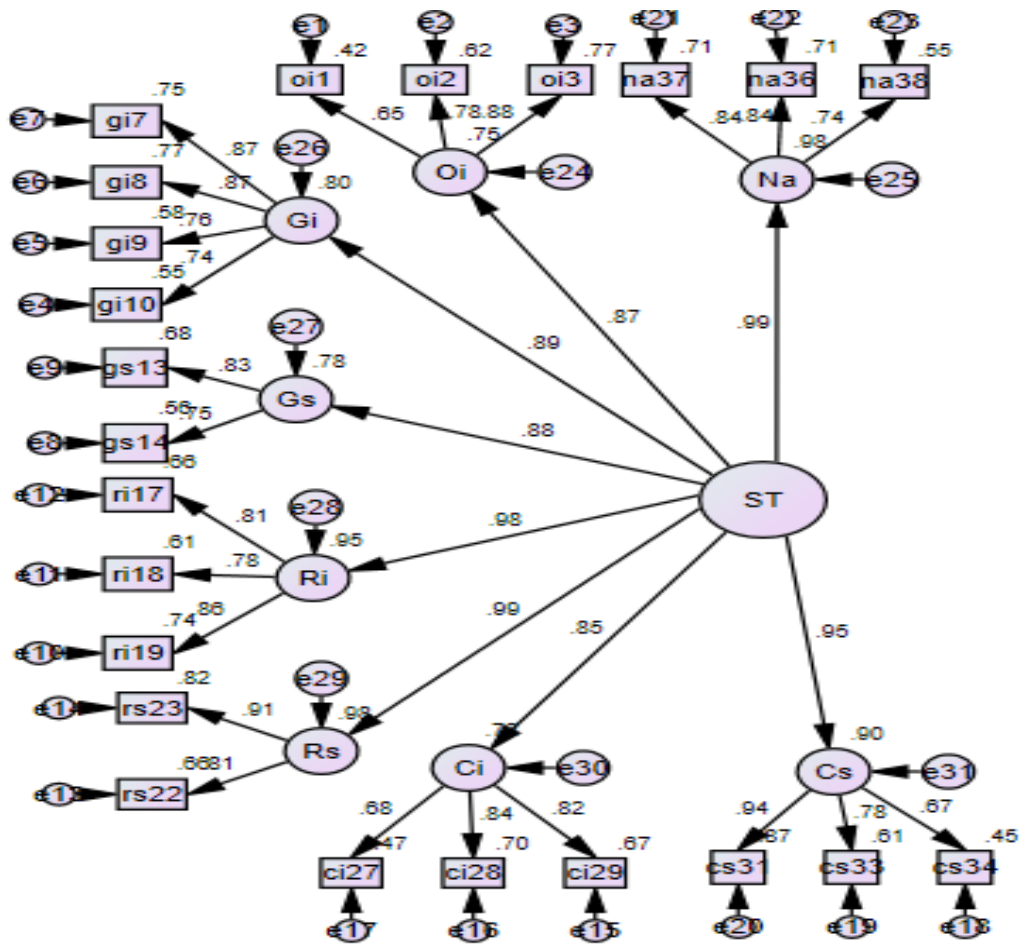
Fig. 4.10: Confirmatory Model of Stereotype Threat (ST) Scale

Table 4.23: Model Fit Indices for Stereotype Threat (ST) Scale

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ2	df	p-value	χ2/df
I	0.073	0.822	0.790	0.883	0.088	843.08	240	.000	3.512
II	0.053	0.871	0.837	0.935	0.075	716.08	218	.000	3.285

The multi-dimensionality of the Stereotype Threat (ST) was checked using CFA. The model in the stage-I indicated poor model-fit indices, represented as CFA default Model-I in Table 4.23. The fit indices like RMR, GFI, AGFI, CFI, RMSEA were below the threshold level. Therefore item purification is done by eliminating item oi4,Oi5 gi6, gs11, gs12,gs15, ri16,ri20,rs21,rs24,rs25,ci26,ci30, Cs32, Cs35, Na39 and Na40. The eliminated items observed low standardized regression weights which suggest high modification indices to the present model. The elimination of the

above-mentioned items increased the model fit indices of the present model which can be observed in Table 4.23 of CFA default Model-II.

After going through the procedures of scale refinement as suggested by Henkin (1995), evaluation of scale is suggested. The present scale of stereotype threat was evaluated by testing the reliability and construct validity of the scale.

Testing Reliability and validity

Internal Consistency: To establish the fact that a significant degree of internal consistency is achieved after confirmation of factors of stereotype threat scale, the researcher applied Cronbach's Alpha through SPSS. The value of Cronbach's Alpha came out to be 0.953 which satisfies the threshold value suggested by various researchers.

Table 4.24: Reliability Statistics of Stereotype Threat (ST) Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.953	23

Table 4.25: Reliability Statistics of Sub-dimension of Stereotype Threat (ST) Scale

Sr. No.	Construct	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
1	Occupational Identification	3	0.704
2	Gender Identification	4	0.859
3	Gender Stigma Consciousness	2	0.894
4	Caste category Identification	3	0.825
5	Caste category Stigma Consciousness	3	0.857
6	Religion Identification	3	0.904
7	Religion Stigma Consciousness	2	0.837
8	Negative Affect	3	0.877

Average Extracted Variance: The validity of stereotype threat was assessed by examining Average Extracted Variance of the scale. The Average Extracted Variance (AVE) of stereotype threat is 0.77, which ensures that the scale is of the stereotype threat is valid enough to be used in the present study.

Composite Reliability: Stereotype threat (ST) scale was found to be reliable with CR = 0.977, ensuring the validation of stereotype threat (ST) scale. Hence, it can be concluded that the stereotype threat scale used in the present study indicates a high degree of convergence.

4.2. THE DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF JOB PERFORMANCE (JP) SCALE

Operationalization of Job Performance (JP) Construct

In the present study Job, Performance (JP) is operationalized as a multidimensional construct with Task Performance (TP), Contextual Performance (CP), Adaptive Performance (AP) and Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) as its sub-dimensions. Job performance has been operationalized from the supervisor's (Head-teachers/Principals) perspective rather than an individual's (teachers) perspective. It has been measured as a higher-order-latent construct reflected in Task Performance (TP), Contextual Performance (CP), Adaptive Behavior and Counterproductive work behavior (CWB).

Operationalization of Task Performance (TP)

Task performance has been measured with 8-items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=Strongly disagree to 5=Strongly agree. The items for task performance were identified from various literature sources as shown in below Table 4.26.

Table 4.26: Items Selected to Measure Task Performance (TP)

Item Code	Statement	Source/s
T1	Enough proficient in his/her teaching skills while delivering a lecture.	Befort and Hattrup (2003), Bhat and Beri (2016)
T2	Takes longer to complete his/her tasks than planned.	Koopmans et al. (2012)
T3	Uses effective teaching methodology for the facilitation of student's experiences.	Bhat and Beri (2016)
T4	Communicates intelligibly with others during school hours.	Befort and Hattrup (2003)
T5	Capable of making workable suggestions in the absence of the principal.	Bhat and Beri (2016)
T6	Finds supervisory task hectic.	Bhat and Beri (2016)
T7	Complete duties specified in his/her job description.	Befort and Hattrup (2003), Amin et al. (2013)
T8	Performs well in the overall job by carrying out tasks as expected.	Osim et al. (2012)

Operationalization of Contextual Performance (CP)

Contextual performance (CP) has been measured with 11- items on 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=Strongly Disagree to 5= Strongly Agree. The items for contextual performance were identified from various literature sources as shown in below Table 4.27.

Table.4.27: Items Selected to Measure Contextual Performance (CP)

Item Code	Statement	Source/s
C1	Helps colleagues in the workplace to resolve work problems	Amjad et al. (2015)
C2	Discusses and communicates with colleague's about teaching and classroom –management	Hu et al. (2015)
C3	Praises and congratulates colleagues when they are awarded honors	Amjad et al. (2015)

Contd....

Item Code	Statement	Source/s
C4	Devotes extra time for the overall development of students	Really and Aronson (2012); Hu et al. (2015)
C5	Voluntarily helps student's when they encounter difficulties' in studies or in life	Hu et al. (2015)
C6	Explore and try new teaching methods.	Hu et al. (2015)
C7	Regularly make efforts to introduce or publicize the merits of my schools	Really and Aronson (2012)
C8	Puts forward constructive suggestions for the improvement of school or department	Hu et al. (2015)
C9	Encourages co-workers to overcome their difference	Amjad et al. (2015)
C10	Takes initiative to orient new employees to the department	Hu et al. (2015); Impleman (2007)
C11	Obey rules and regulation even in unfavorable situations	Impleman (2007)

Operationalization of Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB)

Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) has been measured with 11-items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree. The items for counterproductive work behavior were identified from various literature sources as shown in below Table 4.28.

Table 4.28: Items Selected to Measure Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB)

Item Code	Statement	Source/s
CW1	Purposely waste schools materials/supplies	Spector et al. (2010); Raman et al. (2016)
CW2	Tells people outside the job what a lousy place he/she works for	Spector et al. (2010); Koopmans et al. (2014)

Item Code	Statement	Source/s
CW3	Comes to school late without permission	Spector et al. (2010); Raman et al. (2016)
CW4	Purposely works slowly when things needed to get done	Koopmans et al. (2014)
CW5	Takes a longer break than they were allowed to take	Raman et al. (2016)
CW6	Insults other teachers about their performance	Spector et al. (2010); Raman et al. (2016)
CW7	Makes fun of other employee's personal life	Spector et al. (2010); Raman et al. (2016)
CW8	Takes supplies or tools of school to home without permission	Raman et al. (2016)
CW9	Blame other employees for his/her error at work	Raman et al. (2016)
CW10	Have said something obscene to someone at work	Raman et al. (2016)
CW11	Tries to look busy while doing nothing	Koopmans et al. (2014)

Operationalization of Adaptive Performance (AP)

Adaptive performance has been measured with 12- items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=Strongly disagree to 5= Strongly agree. The items for adaptive performance were identified from various literature sources as shown in below Table 4.29.

Table 4.29: Items Selected to Measure Adaptive Performance (AP)

Item Code	Statement	Source/s
AP1	Able to achieve total focus on the situation to act quickly	Pulakos et al
AP2	Work-related stress impacts the quality of work	Voirin and Roussel (2012)

Item Code	Statement	Source/s
AP3	Does not hesitate to go against established ideas to propose an innovative solution	Pulakos et al
AP4	Can only work efficiently in a comfortable environment	Voirin and Roussel (2012)
AP5	Integrate modern techniques & audio-visual aids to teach my students.	Bhat and Beri (2016)
AP6	Maintains a courteous and respectful approach while dealing with others at work.	Bhat and Beri (2016)
AP7	Additional work unexpectedly makes him/her very anxious	Pulakos et al
AP8	Undergoes training on a regular basis at or outside of work to keep competencies up to date.	Voirin and Roussel (2012)
AP9	Looks for every opportunity that enables him/her to improve performance.	Pulakos et al
AP10	Learns new ways to do his/her job in order to collaborate better with others.	Voirin and Roussel (2012)
AP11	Frequently feel awkward because of problems in understanding the work practices of people of other culture.	Griffin and Hesketh (2003)
AP12	Sometimes reach his/her physical limits to accomplish an urgent task	Pulakos et al

Content Validity

After operationalizing job performance (JP) construct the internal consistency of the operationalized items were present to the subject matter experts. The subject matter experts were presented with the definition of dimensions of Job Performance and were requested to classify items with the conforming definition. The table presented below provides the description of the subject matter experts as well as with the construct definition provided to them.

Table 4.30: Construct Definitions Provided to Experts for Content Validity of Job Performance (JP) Scale

Sr.no	Dimension	Definition
1	Task Performance (TP)	It is defined as the proficiency or competency with which one performs central job-tasks viz. work quality and job-knowledge
2	Contextual Performance (CP)	It is defined as an employee's behaviors that support the organizational, social and psychological environment such as taking on extra tasks, showing initiative or coaching newcomers on the job.
3	Adaptive Performance(AP)	It is defined as the extent to which an individual adapts to changes in a work-system or work-roles such as creatively solving problems or dealing efficiently with unpredicted situations.
4	Counterproductive-Work-Behavior (CWB)	It is defined as behavior that harms the wellbeing of an institution which includes behaviors like theft, abuse, absenteeism, etc.

Source: Koopmans (2014)

Table 4.31: List of Experts Consulted for Content Validity of Job Performance (JP) Scale

Sr. No.	Name	Designation	University
1	Dr. Kulwinder Singh	Professor	Department of Education and Community Service, Punjab University, Patiala, Punjab.
2	Dr. Rashmi Chaudhari	Professor	Department of Education, Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi.
3	Dr. Seema	Professor	Department of Education, Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi.
4	Dr. Jubily Navaprabha	Associate Professor	Department of Commerce and Research Centre, Sanatana Dharma College, Alappuzha, Kerala.
5	Dr. Mridula Misra	Professor	Mittal School of Business, Lovely Professional University, Punjab.

An acceptable agreement index was determined prior to administration of the items and definitions. Response choices ranged from 1 to 4 viz. Not relevant= 1, somewhat relevant =2, quite relevant=3, highly relevant=4 were presented to the subject experts for rating. The table 4.32, below represents the choices presented to the subject experts.

Table 4.32: Rating Presented to Experts for Content Validity

Statements	Ratings			
e.g. Item: Complete duties specified in his/her job description.	**Not Relevant**	**Somewhat Relevant**	**Quite Relevant**	**Highly Relevant**
	1	2	3	4

After collecting the responses of the experts the content validity rates (CVR) was calculated for each item by the formula suggested by Veneziano and Hooper (1997) and Yurdagul (2005). The formula is:

$$CVR = \frac{NA}{N/2} - 1$$

Where, CVR= Content Validity Rates.

NA= No. of Experts who answered positively.

N= Total no. of Experts

When the expert opinion for job performance was calculated according to the stated formula, for 5 experts 0.99 value was used as CVR value. The items having CVR values below 0.99 were excluded. Total 4-items were deleted.

Table 4.33: Content Validity Rates for Items Considered for Job Performance (JP) Scale

Sr. No.	Statement	CVR
1	Enough proficient in his/her teaching skills while delivering a lecture.	1.00**
2	Takes longer to complete his/her tasks than planned.	1.00**

Contd....

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Sr. No.	Statement	CVR
3	Uses effective teaching methodology for facilitation of student's experiences.	1.00**
4	Communicates intelligibly with others during school hours.	1.00**
5	Capable of making workable suggestions in the absence of the principal.	1.00**
6	Finds supervisory task hectic.	1.00**
7	Complete duties specified in his/her job description.	1.00**
8	Performs well in the overall job by carrying out tasks as expected.	1.00**
9	Helps colleagues in the workplace to resolve work problems	1.00**
10	Discusses and communicates with colleagues about teaching and classroom management	1.00**
11	Praises and congratulates colleagues when they are awarded honors	1.00**
12	Devotes extra time for the overall development of students	1.00**
13	Voluntarily helps students when they encounter difficulties in studies or in life	1.00**
14	Explore and try new teaching methods	1.00**
15	Regularly make efforts to introduce or publicize the merits of my schools	1.00**
16	Puts forward constructive suggestions for the improvement of school or department	1.00**
17	Encourages co-workers to overcome their difference	1.00**
18	Takes initiative to orient new employees to the department	1.00**
19	Obey rules and regulation even in unfavourable situations	1.00**
20	Purposely waste schools materials/supplies	1.00**
21	Tells people outside the job what a lousy place he/she works for	1.00**
22	Comes to school late without permission	1.00**
23	Purposely works slowly when things needed to get done	1.00**
24	Takes a longer break than they were allowed to take	1.00**
25	Insults other teachers about their performance	1.00**
26	Makes fun of other employee's personal life	1.00**

Contd....

Sr. No.	Statement	CVR
27	Takes supplies or tools of school to home without permission	1.00**
28	Blame other employees for his/her error at work	1.00**
29	Have said something obscene to someone at work	1.00**
30	Tries to look busy while doing nothing	1.00**
31	Able to achieve total focus on the situation to act quickly	0.33
32	Work-related stress impacts the quality of work	1.00**
33	Does not hesitate to go against established ideas to propose an innovative solution	1.00**
34	Can only work efficiently in a comfortable environment	1.00**
35	I integrate modern techniques & audio-visual aids to teach my students.	0.22
36	Maintain a courteous and respectful approach while dealing with others at work.	1.00**
37	Additional work unexpectedly makes him/her very anxious	1.00**
38	Undergoes training on a regular basis at or outside of work to keep competencies up to date.	1.00**
39	Looks for every opportunity that enables him/her to improve performance.	1.00**
40	Learns new ways to do his/her job in order to collaborate better with others.	1.00**
41	Frequently feel awkward because of problems in understanding the work practices of people of other culture.	0.33
42	Sometimes reach his/her physical limits to accomplish an urgent task	0.33

Administration of Scale (Pilot Study)

The pilot study was conducted to collect the response of principals on Job Performance (JP) scale. To collect data from the respondents, the pilot study for scale validation has adopted convenience sampling technique. Job performance questionnaire was distributed via hard copy to principals to collect their responses on performance of their teachers. Total 390 data was collected from principals. As, there is no fixed rule to decide the sample size. Hinkin (1995; 2005) favors ratio

ranging from 1:4 to 1: 10 between number of items and respondents for sample selection. Therfore the sample considered for validation of the scale is appropriate.

Before starting the data collection formal ethical approval was taken from the recognized authority. The questionnaire was distributed via hard copy to over 390 principals. After the collection of data, the technique used to inspect internal consistency was Cronbach's alpha.

Table 4.34: Reliability Statistics of Job Performance (JP) Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.733	38

The Cronbach's alpha value of job performance construct was 0.733 which was above the acceptable threshold level. The Cronbach's Alpha was calculated with the help of IBM, SPSS version 20. The tables below present the reliability statistics of the entire construct used in the present study.

Table 4.35: Reliability Statistics of Sub-dimensions of Job Performance (JP) Scale

Construct	Sub-dimension	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Job Performance (JP)	Task Performance	08	0.722
	Contextual Performance	11	0.747
	Adaptive Behaviour	08	0.601
	Counterproductive Work Behaviour	11	0.823

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

To explore a meaningful set of items into different factor structure exploratory analysis is applied. EFA is recommended under certain conditions few of them are (a) When there is no hypothesis about the nature of the underlying factor structure of the respective measure, (b) When researcher generate their own items or customize them from the literature. In the present study out of six constructs, job-performance scale constitutes of items customized from the previous literature.

Therefore the researcher opts to conduct Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) on the performance scale.

There is no consensus among researchers regarding the adequate sample size to validate a scale. To conduct an appropriate test for statistical significance, some researchers favor respondent-to-statement ratio as 4:1 (Rummel, 1970), some favors it as 5:1 (Hatcher, 1994; Tatham and Black, 1995) whereas some favor a higher ratio of 10:1 (Schwab,1980). But the majority of the researcher favors the ratio of 3:1(Catell, 1978; Arrindell and Van Der Ende, 1985). Therefore; the dataset used in the present study satisfies the condition for factor analysis. Hence factor analysis can be applied to obtain a meaningful set of variables for construct Job-Performance (EFA).

Researchers suggest that before applying factor analysis to the dataset one should check the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value of the data. The Kaiser-Meyer-Value (KMO) value should be 0.60 or more (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996) for a good and effective factor structure. The table 4.36, below presents the KMO and Bartletts Test values.

Table 4.36: KMO and Bartlett's Test Values

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.823
Approx.Chi-Square	9972.545
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Df	378
Sig.	.000

The above table reveals that the performance dataset of the present study which fulfills the criteria to conduct further analysis. The researcher employed Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and the varimax method of rotation for extracting the factors.

The extraction of factors includes the application of several iterations to the dataset. In every iteration's 'total variance explained' with a number of factors is observed by the researcher. The main aim of the researcher is to improve 'total variance explained' as well as obtaining a good matrix with good loadings.

Table 4.37: Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis for the Construct 'Job Performance' (JP) Construct

Construct	Factors (% of Variance)	Dimensions	Item Code	Items	Factor Loading
Job Performance (JP)	Factor 1 (34.085)	Task Performance	T1	Enough proficient in his/her teaching skills while delivering lectures?	0.994
			T2	Uses effective teaching methodology for the facilitation of student's experience	0.993
			T3	Communicates intelligibly with others during school hours.	0.975
	Factor 2 (16.515)	Contextual Performance	C1	Praises and congratulates colleagues when they are awarded honors	0.574
			C2	Discusses and communicate with colleagues about teaching and classroom management.	0.909
			C3	Devote extra time for the overall development of students.	0.928
			C4	Put forward constructive suggestions for the improvement of department or school	0.949
	Factor 3 (16.402)	Counterproductive Work Behavior	CW1	Purposely waste schools materials/supplies.	0.961
			CW2	Comes to school late without permission	0.838
			CW3	Tries to look busy while doing nothing	0.732
			CW4	Blame other employees for his/her error at work.	0.651
			CW5	Takes schools supplies and tools home without permission.	0.609
			CW6	Can only work efficiently in a comfortable environment.	0.580
			CW7	Purposely works slowly when things need to get done.	0.552
			CW8	Finds supervisory task hectic.	0.949
			CW9	Takes longer to complete his/her work tasks than planned	0.914
			CW10	Makes fun of other employees personal life	0.788

Therefore, factors which did not have a factor loading more than 0.50 was deleted (Karatepe et al., 2005). The factor loading of the statements ranged from 0.552 to 0.994. A total of twenty one items were deleted as it could not satisfy the criteria suggested by Karatepe et al. (2005). Therefore, a total of 17-items were finally classified under three factors, with Eigen values more than one, were revealed (Kaiser, 1960).

A total of 67.002% of the variance was explained by three factors which is acceptable as per the recommendations suggested by various researchers (Field, 2009). The table presented below summarizes the results of Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) with 'Rotated Component Matrix' for job performance construct.

The statements classified under different extracted factors. These extracted factors were given appropriate names after reviewing the literature. The emerged factors were Task Performance (TP), Contextual Performance (CP) and Counterproductive Work behavior (CWB). The table below represents our understanding of the extracted factors after reviewing the literature.

After naming the extracted factors, the next phase is the validation of the emerged factor structure. The confirmatory factor analysis was applied. The details of the analysis are discussed below:

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Job Performance (JP) is a multi-dimensional construct with Task Performance (TP), Contextual Performance (CP) and Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB) as its dimensions. The confirmatory model of job performance was tested with 17-items for all its three dimensions.
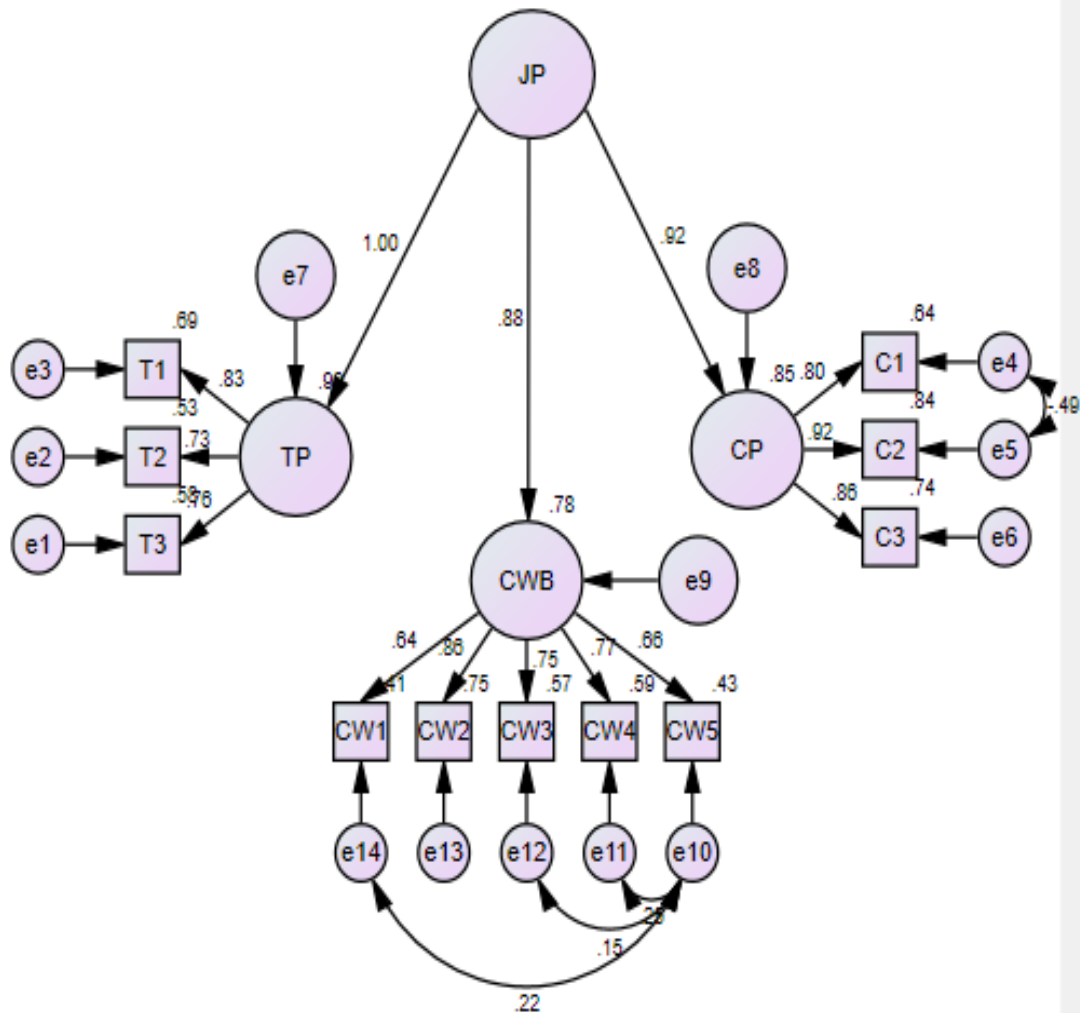
Fig. 4.11: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model of Job-Performance (JP) Scale

Table 4.38: Model Fit Indices for Job Performance (JP) Scale

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ^2	Df	p-value	χ^2/df
I	0.084	0.879	0.821	0.929	0.066	144.847	37	0.000	3.91
II	0.021	0.942	0.918	0.974	0.056	165.526	75	0.000	2.207

The multi dimensionality of job performance was checked using CFA. The model in the stage-I indicated poor model fit, represented as CFA default model-I. The fit-indices like RMR, GFI, RMSEA were below the threshold level. Therefore it was decided to go for item purification by eliminating items C4, CW6, CW7, CW8, CW9 and CW10. The eliminated items observed low standardized regression

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weights which suggest modification indices to the present model. The elimination of the stated items increased the model fit indices as suggested by Forner and Larker (1981),which can be observed in the CFA default model-II.

After going through the procedures of scale refinement as suggested by Henkin (1995), evaluation of scale is suggested. The present supervisory rating scale of the job performance of teachers was evaluated by testing the reliability and construct validity of the scale.

Testing Reliability and Validity

Internal Consistency: To establish the fact that a significant degree of internal consistency is achieved after confirmation of factors of the job performance scale, the researcher applied Cronbach's Alpha through SPSS. The value of Cronbach's Alpha came out to be 0.839, which satisfies the threshold value suggested by various researchers.

Table 4.39: Reliability Statistics of Job Performance (JP) Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.839	11

Table 4.40: Reliability Statistics of Sub-constructs of Job-Performance

Sr. No.	Construct	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
1	Task Performance	3	0.761
2	Contextual Performance	3	0.856
3	Counterproductive Work Behaviour	5	0.889

Average Extracted Variance: The validity of Job Performance scale was assessed by examining Average Extracted Variance (AVE) of the scale. The Average Extracted Variance (AVE) of Job Performance is 0.613, which ensures that the scale is of the Job Performance is valid enough to be used in the present study.

Composite Reliability: Job Performance (JP) scale was found to be reliable with CR = 0.945, ensuring the validation of Job Performance (JP) scale. Hence, it

can be concluded that the Job Performance scale used in the present study indicates a high degree of convergence.

4.3.   THE VALIDATION OF TOKENISM (TOK) SCALE

Operationalization of Tokenism (TOK) Construct

Tokenism (TOK) scale has been measured with ten items on a five-point Likert scale ranging from '1' strongly disagree to '5' strongly agree, as shown in Table 4.41. The scale was adopted from Stroshine and Brandl (2011). Tokenism has been operationalized on the basis of 3 sub-dimensions viz. Visibility (2-items), Polarization (7-items) and Assimilation (1-item) identified by Stronshine and Brandl (2011), based on the previous work of Kanter (1977).

Table 4.41: Items Selected to Measure Tokenism (TOK)

Item Code	Statement	Source/s
TOK1	Coworkers often commend me when I do good work	Stroshine and Brandl (2011)
TOK2	Supervisors often commend me when I do good work	
TOK3	My coworkers have ridiculed me when I have asked questions about how to do my job.	
TOK4	My supervisors have ridiculed me when I have asked questions about how to do my job.	
TOK5	My supervisors joke about gender to the point that it bothers me.	
TOK6	My coworkers joke or make offensive remarks about my race or ethnic background	
TOK7	My supervisor's joke or make offensive remarks about my race or ethnic background.	
TOK8	Co-workers tend to forget I'm here; for example, they do not invite me to things, they do not introduce me, or they leave my name off lists.	
TOK9	My supervisors tend to forget I'm here; for example, they do not invite me to things, they do not introduce me, or they leave my name off lists.	
TOK10	I have at least as much opportunity as my coworkers at about my rank for receiving preferred assignments.	

Administration of Scale (Pilot Study)

The pilot study was conducted to collect the response of teachers on the scale measuring tokenism effect (TOK). To collect data from the respondents, the pilot study for scale validation has adopted convenience sampling technique. Tokenism effect scale was distributed via hard copy to teachers to collect their responses. Total 390 data was collected from teachers. As, there is no fixed rule to decide the sample size. Hinkin (1995; 2005) favors ratio ranging from 1:4 to 1: 10 between number of items and respondents for sample selection. Therfore the sample considered for validation of the scale is appropriate.

Before starting the data collection formal ethical approval was taken from the recognized authority. The questionnaire was distributed via hard copy to over 390 teachers. After the collection of data, the technique used to inspect internal consistency was Cronbach's alpha. The Cronbach's alpha value of Tokenism was below the acceptable threshold level. It was suggested that items with low correlation can be deleted to improve the alpha value of a construct (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011). Therefore to improve the reliability of tokenism construct two of its items (TOK_9 and TOK_10) were deleted. The Cronbach's value came out to be 0.820, which is above the threshold value. The Cronbach's Alpha was calculated with the help of IBM, SPSS version 20. The table 4.42 presented below the reliability statistics of the entire construct used in the present study.

Table 4.42: Reliability Statistics of Tokenism (TOK) Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.820	08

Confirmatory Model of Tokenism (TOK) Scale

After the deletion of 2-items from Tokenism (TOK) scale, the scale now consists of only two dimensions viz Visibility (2-items) and Polarization (6-items). Confirmatory factor analysis was applied to the emerged factors of tokenism (TOK) as it enhances the scales psychometric properties. The Tokenism scale was measured with 8-items as shown in the figure below:
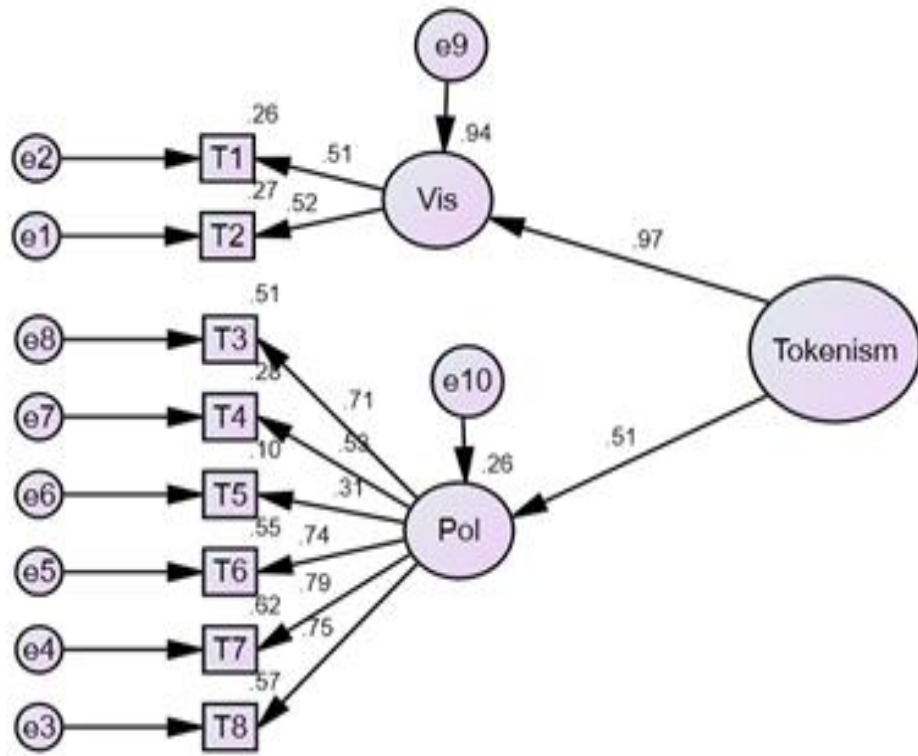
Fig. 4.12: Confirmatory Model of Tokenism (TOK) Scale

Table 4.43: Model Fit Indices for Tokenism (TOK) Scale

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ2	df	p-value	χ2/df
I	0.158	0.913	0.843	0.893	0.109	58.946	20	0.000	2.947
II	0.044	0.935	0.871	0.965	0.053	27.524	18	0.000	1.529

The multi-dimensionality of the Tokenism (TOK) was checked using CFA. The model in the stage-I indicated poor model-fit indices, represented as CFA default Model-I in Table 4.43. The fit indices like RMR, GFI, AGFI, CFI, RMSEA were below the threshold level. Therefore item purification is done by eliminating an item T9. The eliminated items observed low standardized regression weights which suggest high modification indices to the present model. The elimination of the above-mentioned items increased the model fit indices as suggested by Forner and Larker (1981).The model fit indices of the present model is represented in Table 4.43 of CFA default Model-II.

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After going through the procedures of scale refinement as suggested by Henkin (1995), evaluation of scale is suggested. The present supervisory rating scale of the Tokenism (TOK) scale of teachers was evaluated by testing the reliability and construct validity of the scale.

Testing Reliability

Internal Consistency: To establish the fact that a significant degree of internal consistency is achieved after confirmation of factors of Tokenism scale, the researcher applied Cronbach's Alpha through SPSS. The value of Cronbach's Alpha came out to be 0.820 which satisfies the threshold value suggested by various researchers.

Table 4.44: Reliability Statistics of Tokenism (TOK) Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.820	08

Average Variance Extracted: The validity of Tokenism scale was assessed by examining Average Extracted Variance of the scale. The Average Extracted Variance (AVE) of Tokenism scale is 0.47, which ensures the construct validity of tokenism scale.

Composite Reliability: Tokenism (TOK) scale was found to be reliable with CR = 0.874, ensuring the validation of Tokenism (TOK) scale. Hence, it can be concluded that the Tokenism scale used in the present study indicates a high degree of convergence.

4.4.   THE VALIDATION OF WORKPLACE OSTRACISM (WOS) SCALE

Operationalization of Workplace Ostracism (WOS) Construct

Workplace Ostracism (WOS) is operationalized as a uni-dimensional construct. It has been measured using ten-items on seven-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 to 7 viz., 1=Never; 2=Once in a While'; 3=Sometimes', 4=fairly often'; 5=often', 6=constantly' and 7-'Always' as shown in Table 4.45. The scale was

adapted from Ferris et al. (2008). They conceptualized workplace ostracism as a uni-dimensional construct.

Table 4.45: Items Selected to Measure Workplace Ostracism (WOS)

Item Code	Statement	Source/s
WOS1	Others ignored you at work	
WOS2	Others left the area when you entered	
WOS3	Your greetings have gone unanswered at work	
WOS4	You involuntarily sat alone in a crowded lunchroom at work	
WOS5	Others avoided you at work.	Ferris et al. (2008)
WOS6	You noticed others would not look at you at work.	
WOS7	Others at work shut you out of the conversation.	
WOS8	Others refused to talk to you at work.	
WOS9	Others at work treated you as if you weren't there.	
WOS10	Others at work did not invite you or ask you if you wanted anything when they went out for a coffee break.	

After adapting all 10-items of ostracism the next step was to collect the data (pilot testing).

Administration of Scale (Pilot Study)

The pilot study was conducted to collect the response of teachers on the scale measuring experience of workplace ostracism (WOS). To collect data from the respondents, the pilot study for scale validation has adopted convenience sampling technique. Workplace Ostracism questionnaire was distributed via hard copy to teachers to collect their responses. Total 390 data was collected from teachers. As, there is no fixed rule to decide the sample size. Hinkin (1995; 2005) favors ratio ranging from 1:4 to 1: 10 between number of items and respondents for sample selection. Therfore the sample considered for validation of the scale is appropriate.

In the present research, formal ethical approval before starting data collection from the recognized authority was taken. The pilot study was conducted to collect

the response of the principals on the scale for Workplace Ostracism (WOS). Before starting the data collection formal ethical approval was taken from the recognized authority. The questionnaire was distributed via hard copy to over 390 teachers. After the collection of data, the technique used to inspect internal consistency was Cronbach's alpha. The Cronbach's alpha value of Workplace Ostracism (WOS) construct was found to be 0.782 which was above the acceptable threshold level. The Cronbach's Alpha was calculated with the help of IBM, SPSS version 20. The table 4.46 below, present the reliability statistics of the entire construct used in the present study.

Table 4.46: Reliability Statistics of Workplace Ostracism (WOS) Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.782	10

Confirmatory Model of Workplace Ostracism (WOS) Scale

Confirmatory factor analysis was applied to ostracism scale as it enhances the scales psychometric properties. The Tokenism scale was measured with 8-items as shown in the figure below:
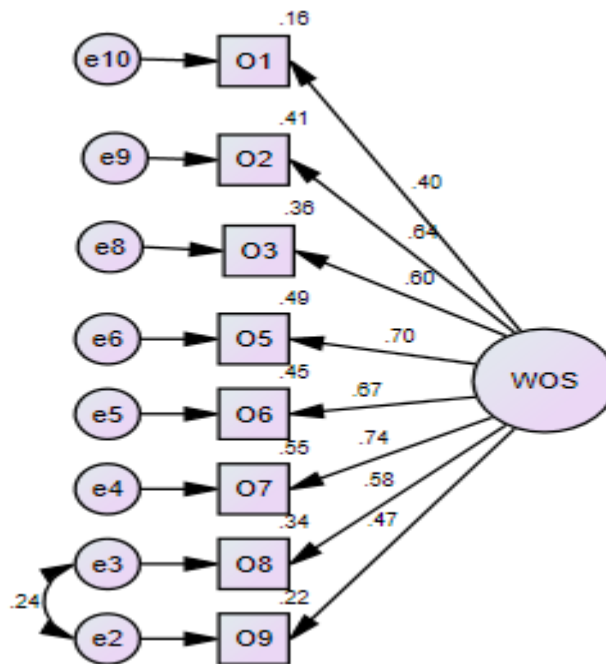

Fig. 4.13: Confirmatory Model of Workplace Ostracism (WOS) Scale

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Table 4.47: Model Fit Indices for Workplace Ostracism (WOS) Scale

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ2	df	p-value	χ2/df
I	0.108	0.946	0.914	0.924	0.069	84.370	35	0.000	2.411
II	.079	0.972	0.946	0.976	0.052	34.053	19	0.000	1.792

From Table 4.47, it is observed that the CFA default model indicated a poor fit. The value of RMSEA and χ2/df were not close to the threshold level. Therefore it was decided to introduce covariance between e2 and e3 rather than deleting any item from the model for improving model-fit indices of the model. Hence from the Table, 4.47 CFA default Model-II indicated a good model-fit index (Forner and Larker,1981), therefore Workplace Ostracism (WOS) construct is validated.

After going through the procedures of scale refinement as suggested by Henkin (1995), evaluation of scale is suggested. The present supervisory rating scale of the Workplace Ostracism (WOS) of teachers was evaluated by testing the reliability and construct validity of the scale.

Testing Reliability and validity

Internal Consistency: To establish the fact that a significant degree of internal consistency is achieved after confirmation of factors of ostracism scale, the researcher applied Cronbach's Alpha through SPSS. The value of Cronbach's Alpha came out to be 0.864 which satisfies the threshold value suggested by various researchers.

Table 4.48: Reliability Statistics of Workplace Ostracism (WOS) Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.864	08

Average Variance Extracted: The validity of the ostracism scale was assessed by examining Average Extracted Variance of the scale. The Average Extracted Variance (AVE) of Ostracism scale is 0.40, which ensures the construct validity of the ostracism scale.

Composite Reliability: Workplace Ostracism (WOS) scale was found to be reliable with CR = 0.821, ensuring the validation of Workplace Ostracism (WOS) scale. Hence, it can be concluded that the workplace ostracism scale used in the present study indicates a high degree of convergence.

4.5. THE VALIDATION OF COPING STRATEGY (COPE) SCALE

Operationalization of Coping Strategy (COPE) Construct

Coping Strategy (COP) scale has been measured with 40 items on a 5-point scale ranging from 1= rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3= Often, 4= Usually and 5= Mostly. The Scale was adapted from Osipow and Spokane (1998). They conceptualized a coping strategy as a multi-dimensional construct comprising of Recreation (R), Self-Care (SC), Social-Support (SS) and Cognitive-Coping (CC) as its sub-dimensions. The table 4.49 below presents the items of Recreation, Self-Care, Self-Support and Cognitive-Coping dimensions of coping strategy.

Table 4.49: Items Selected to Measure Coping Strategy (COPE)

Items Selected to Measure Recreation (R).		
Item Code	**Statement**	**Source/s**
C1	When I need a vacation I take one.	Osipow and Spokane (1998)
C2	I am able to do What I want to do in my free time	
C3	On weekends I spend time doing the things I enjoy most	
C4	I hardly ever watch television	
C5	A lot of my free time is spent attending performances (Sporting events, theatre, movies, concerts, etc.)	
C6	I spend a lot of my free time in participant activities (e.g. sports, music, painting, woodworking, sewing, etc.)	
C7	I set aside time to do the things I really enjoy	
C8	When I'm relaxing, I frequently think about work.	
C9	I spend enough time on recreational activities to satisfy my needs.	
C10	I spend a lot of my free time on hobbies (e.g., a collection of various kinds, etc.)	

Items Selected to Measure Self-Care (SC)		
Item Code	Statement	Source/s
C11	I am careful about my diet.	Osipow and Spokane (1998)
C12	I am careful about my diet.	
C13	I avoid excessive use of alcohol.	
C14	I exercise regularly.	
C15	I practice "relaxation" techniques.	
C16	I get the sleep I need.	
C17	I avoid eating or drinking things I know are unhealthy.	
C18	I engage in meditation.	
C19	I practice deep breathing exercises a few minutes several times each day.	
C20	I floss my teeth regularly.	
Items Selected to Measure Social-Support (SS)		
Item Code	Statement	Source/s
C21	There is at least one person important to me who values me.	Osipow and Spokane (1998)
C22	I have help with tasks around the house.	
C23	I have help with the important things that have to be done.	
C24	There is at least one sympathetic person with whom I can discuss my concerns.	
C25	There is at least one sympathetic person with whom I can discuss my work problems.	
C26	I feel I have at least one good friend I can count on.	
C27	I feel loved.	
C28	There is a person with whom I feel really close.	
C29	I have a circle of friends who value me.	
C30	If I need help at work, I know who to approach.	

Items Selected to Measure Cognitive Coping (CC)		
Item Code	Statement	Source/s
C31	I am able to put my job out of my mind when I go home.	Osipow and Spokane (1998)
C32	I feel that there are other jobs I could do besides my current one.	
C33	I periodically reexamine or recognize my work style and schedule.	
C34	I can establish priorities for the use of my time.	
C35	Once they are set I am able to stick to my priorities.	
C36	I have techniques to help avoid being distracted.	
C37	I can identify important elements of problems I encounter.	
C38	When faced with the need to make a decision I try to think through the consequences of choices I might make.	
C39	When faced with the need to make a decision I try to think through the consequences of choices I might make.	
C40	I try to keep aware of the important ways I behave and the things I do.	

Administration of Scale (Pilot Study)

The pilot study was conducted to collect the response of the teachers on Coping Strategy (COPE) scale. To collect data from the respondents, the pilot study for scale validation has adopted convenience sampling technique. Coping Strategy questionnaire was distributed via hard copy to teachers to collect their responses. Total 390 data was collected from teachers. As, there is no fixed rule to decide the sample size. Hinkin (1995; 2005) favors ratio ranging from 1:4 to 1: 10 between number of items and respondents for sample selection. Therfore the sample considered for validation of the scale is appropriate.

Before starting the data collection formal ethical approval was taken from the recognized authority. The questionnaire was distributed via hard copy to over 390 teachers. After the collection of data, the technique used to inspect internal

consistency was Cronbach's alpha. The Cronbach's alpha value of Coping Strategy (COPE) construct was found to be 0.714 which was above the acceptable threshold level. The Cronbach's Alpha was calculated with the help of IBM, SPSS version 20. The tables below present the reliability statistics of the entire construct used in the present study.

Table 4.50: Reliability Statistics of Coping Strategy (COPE) Scale

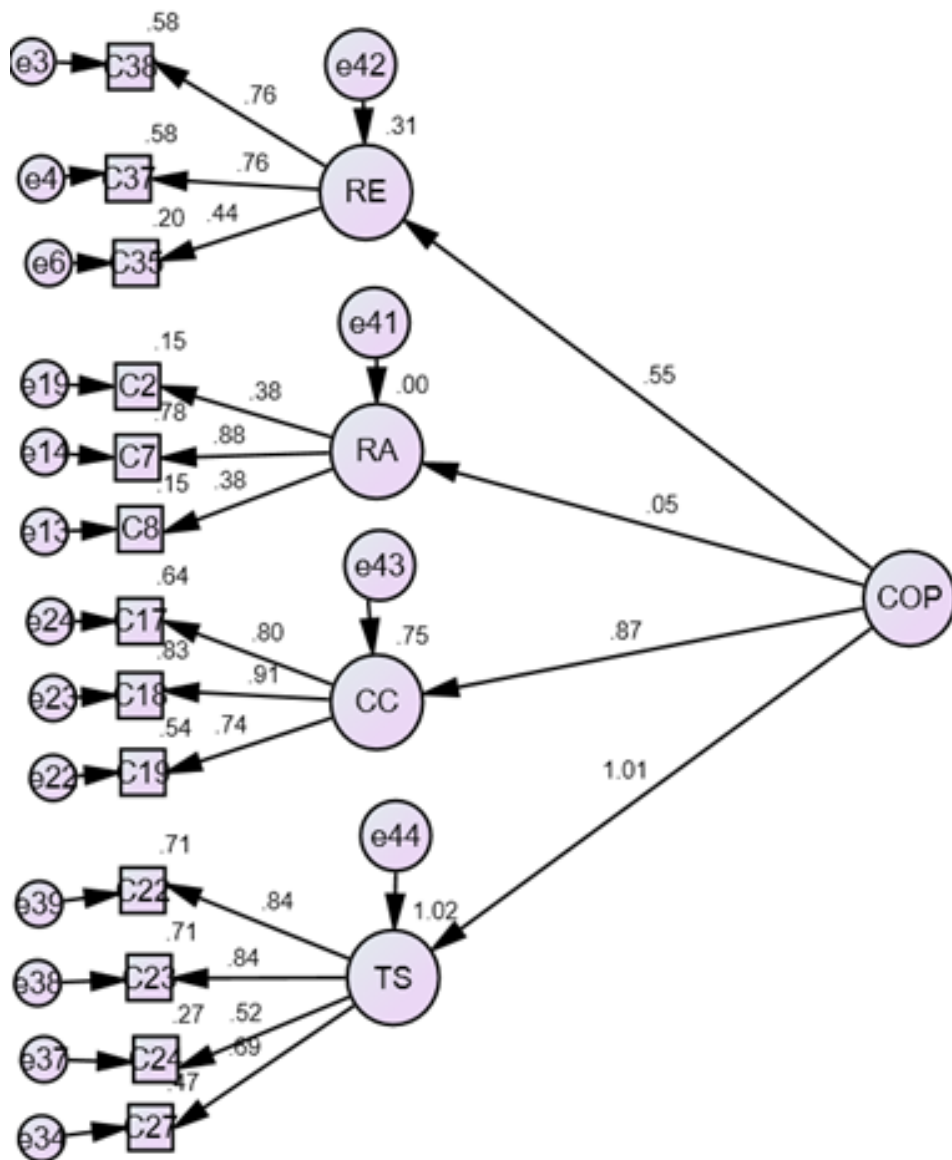| Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.714	40

Fig. 4.14: Confirmatory Model of Coping Strategy (COPE) Scale

Table 4.51: Model Fit Indices for Coping Strategy (COPE) Scale

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ^2	Df	p-value	χ^2/df
I	.101	.889	.859	.914	0.73	468.8	149	.000	3.146
II	0.088	0.955	0.930	0.953	0.63	200.17	59	0.000	3.393

The multi-dimensionality of the Coping Strategy (COPE) was checked using CFA. The model in the stage-I indicated poor model-fit indices, represented as CFA default Model-I in Table 4.51. The fit indices like RMR, GFI, AGFI, CFI, RMSEA were below the threshold level. Therefore item purification is done by eliminating items from all the four dimensions of the Coping Strategy Scale. The eliminated items observed low standardized regression weights which suggest high modification indices to the present model. The elimination of the items increased the model fit indices which is as per Forner and Larker (1981). The model fit indices of the present model can be observed in Table 4.51 of CFA default Model-II.

Testing Reliability and validity

Internal Consistency: To establish the fact that a significant degree of internal consistency is achieved after confirmation of factors of coping strategy scale, the researcher applied Cronbach's Alpha through SPSS. The value of Cronbach's Alpha came out to be 0.839 which satisfies the threshold value suggested by various researchers.

Table 4.52: Reliability Statistics of Coping Strategy (COPE) Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.839	13

Table 4.53: Reliability Statistics of Sub-dimensions of Coping Strategy (COPE) Scale

Sr. No.	Construct	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
1	Recreation	3	0.883
2	Social Support	4	0.857
3	Self-Care	3	0.823
4	Cognitive Coping	3	0.874

Average Variance Extracted: The validity of the coping Strategy was assessed by examining Average Extracted Variance of the scale was also examined. The Average Extracted Variance (AVE) of coping strategy scale is 0.50 which ensures the construct validity of the coping strategy scale.

Composite reliability: Coping Strategy (COPE) scale was found to be reliable with CR = 0.926, ensuring the validation of Coping strategy (COPE) scale. Hence, it can be concluded that the Coping Strategy scale used in the present study indicates a high degree of convergence.

4.6. THE VALIDATION OF HEDONIC WELLBEING (HWB) SCALE

Operationalization of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) Construct

Hedonic Wellbeing is operationalized as a uni-dimensional construct. It has been measured using four items on 7-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 to 7 viz 1-Not at All to 7-A great deal. The scale was adopted from Lyubomirsky and Lepper (1999). Hedonic wellbeing has been operationalized as a uni-dimensional construct by Lyubomirsky and Leeper.

Table 4.54: Items Selected to Measure Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) Scale

Item Code	Statement	Source/s
H1	In general, I consider myself.	Lyubomirsky and Lepper (1999)
H2	Compared with most of my peers, I consider myself.	
H3	Some people are generally very happy. They enjoy life regardless of what is going on, getting the most out of everything. To what extent does this characterization describes you.	
H4	Some people are generally not very happy. Although they are not depressed, they never seem as happy as they might be. To what extent does this characterization describes you?	

Administration of Scale (Pilot Study)

The pilot study was conducted to collect the response of the teachers on Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) scale. To collect data from the respondents, the pilot

study for scale validation has adopted convenience sampling technique. Hedonic Wellbeing questionnaire was distributed via hard copy to teachers to collect their responses. Total 390 data was collected from teachers. As, there is no fixed rule to decide the sample size. Hinkin (1995; 2005) favors ratio ranging from 1:4 to 1: 10 between number of items and respondents for sample selection. Therfore the sample considered for validation of the scale is appropriate.

Before starting the data collection formal ethical approval was taken from the recognized authority. The questionnaire was distributed via hard copy to over 390 teachers. After the collection of data, the technique used to inspect internal consistency was Cronbach's alpha. The Cronbach's alpha value of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) construct was found to be 0.782 which was above the acceptable threshold level. The Cronbach's Alpha was calculated with the help of IBM, SPSS version 20. The tables 4.55 presented below the reliability statistics of the entire construct used in the present study.

Table 4.55: Reliability Statistics of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.782	04

Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) Scale

Hedonic wellbeing is a uni-dimensional construct. The scale of hedonic wellbeing was adapted from Lyubomirsky et al. (2005). Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) was measured with four items as shown in the Figure 4.15 presented below
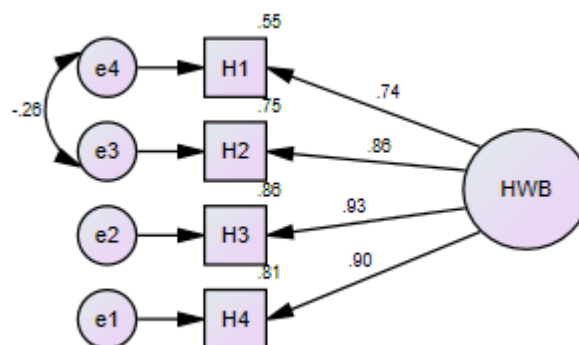

Fig. 4.15: Confirmatory Model of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) Scale

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Table 4.56: Model Fit Indices for Hedonic Wellbeing (HBW) Scale

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ2	Df	p-value	χ2/df
I	0.019	0.979	0.894	0.987	0.140	107.676	35	0.001	7.087
II	0.005	0.998	0.980	0.992	0.028	1.252	1	0.000	1.252

From Table 4.56, it is observed that the CFA default model indicated a poor fit. The value of RMSEA and χ2/df were not close to the threshold level. Therefore it was decided to introduce covariance between e3 and e4 rather than deleting any item from the model for improving model-fit indices of the model. Hence from the Table, 4.56 CFA default Model-II indicated a good model-fit index (Forner and Larker, 1981), therefore Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) construct is validated.

Testing Reliability and Validity

Internal Consistency: To establish the fact that a significant degree of internal consistency is achieved after confirmation of factors of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB), the researcher applied Cronbach's Alpha through SPSS. The value of Cronbach's Alpha came out to be 0.904 which satisfies the threshold value suggested by various researchers. The table 4.57 presents the reliability statistic of hedonic wellbeing scale:

Table 4.57: Reliability Statistics of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.904	04

Average Variance Extracted: The validity of the Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) scale was assessed by examining Average Extracted Variance and further composite reliability of the scale was also examined. The Average Extracted Variance (AVE) of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) is 0.74, which ensures the construct validity of the Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) scale.

Composite Reliability: Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) scale was found to be reliable with CR = 0.919, ensuring the validation of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) scale. Hence, it can be concluded that the Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) used in the present study indicates a high degree of convergence.

CHAPTER – V

DATA ANALYSIS

5.1   DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics enable the researcher to understand the basic features of the data which further helps to analyze, summarize and to interpret data in a significant manner. The present study implied univariate as well as multivariate analysis techniques. In the present chapter descriptive statistics tables provides summaries about the responses of the sample on the constructs used in the study. The descriptive tables include mean, standard deviation Skewness and kurtosis are provided for all the six constructs i.e stereotype threat, job performance, hedonic wellbeing, coping strategy, workplace ostracism and tokenism used in the study. The below tables provide construct wise description.

Table 5.1: Descriptive Statistics for Construct "Stereotype Threat" (ST)

Construct	Item Code	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Stereotype Threat (S.T)	Oi1	446	1.51	0.85	1.85	1.83
	Oi2	446	2.11	0.79	0.35	0.20
	Oi3	446	1.8	0.96	0.66	0.78
	Gi4	446	2.79	1.14	0.20	0.56
	Gi5	446	3.24	0.20	0.26	0.80
	Gi6	446	3.19	1.18	0.83	0.95
	Gi7	446	3.28	1.25	0.13	1.14
	Gs8	446	3.02	1.16	0.12	0.93
	Gs9	446	3.08	1.11	0.13	0.61
	Ri10	446	3.12	1.20	0.08	0.99
	Ri11	446	3.17	1.19	0.10	0.93
	Ri12	446	2.99	1.13	0.13	0.91
	Rs13	446	2.86	1.14	0.24	0.68

Construct	Item Code	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Stereotype Threat (S.T)	Rs14	446	3.08	1.16	0.12	0.81
	Ci15	446	2.70	1.08	0.28	0.38
	Ci16	446	2.35	1.06	0.60	0.22
	Ci17	446	2.61	1.06	0.28	0.63
	Cs18	446	2.85	1.12	0.23	0.71
	Cs19	446	2.74	1.15	0.08	0.84
	Cs20	446	2.93	1.18	0.76	0.99
	N21	446	2.78	1.22	0.19	0.89
	N22	446	2.72	1.25	0.20	1.02
	N23	446	2.40	1.25	0.50	0.75

*All items were measured on five-point Likert type scale

Table 5.2: Descriptive Statistics for Construct "Job Performance" (JP)

Construct	Item Code	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Job Performance(J.P)	T1	446	2.51	1.20	0.48	0.73
	T2	446	2.62	1.14	0.37	0.73
	T3	446	2.95	1.24	0.13	1.08
	Cp4	446	2.96	1.14	0.13	0.90
	Cp5	446	2.47	1.16	0.62	0.33
	Cp6	446	2.55	1.17	0.53	0.63
	Cw7	446	2.76	1.14	0.19	0.83
	Cw8	446	3.34	1.35	0.28	1.21
	Cw9	446	3.37	1.23	0.18	0.98
	Cw10	446	3.39	1.21	0.21	1.07
	Cw11	446	3.49	1.16	0.38	0.77

*All items were measured on five-point Likert type scale

Table 5.3: Descriptive Statistics for Construct "Coping Strategy" (COPE)

Construct	Item Code	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Coping Strategy (COPE)	C1	446	2.37	0.93	0.55	0.20
	C2	446	2.52	1.23	0.36	0.79
	C3	446	2.64	1.30	0.26	1.08
	C4	446	3.39	1.22	0.42	0.83
	C5	446	3.34	1.29	0.39	0.96
	C6	446	3.19	1.28	0.27	1.01
	C7	446	3.40	1.29	0.54	0.84
	C8	446	3.41	1.21	0.45	0.74
	C9	446	3.07	1.14	0.00	0.78
	C10	446	3.17	1.12	0.29	0.75
	C11	446	3.02	1.13	0.00	0.84
	C12	446	2.96	1.30	0.03	1.15
	C13	446	3.12	1.19	0.03	1.00

*All items were measured on five-point Likert type scale

Table 5.4: Descriptive Statistics for construct "Hedonic Wellbeing" (HWB)

Construct	Item Code	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB)	H1	446	4.15	1.69	0.19	0.76
	H2	446	4.15	1.55	0.32	0.75
	H3	446	4.26	1.63	0.35	0.76
	H4	446	4.19	1.77	0.29	0.55

*All items were measured on seven-point Likert type scale

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Table 5.5: Descriptive Statistics for construct "Tokenism" (TOK)

Construct	Item Code	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Tokenism (TOK)	T1	100	6	0.86	0.05	1.68
	T2	100	5.86	0.79	0.25	1.35
	T3	100	5.44	0.67	0.24	0.28
	T4	100	5.77	0.83	0.45	1.43
	T5	100	5.90	0.92	0.20	1.82
	T6	100	5.44	0.72	0.32	0.21
	T7	100	5.50	0.79	0.59	0.41
	T8	100	5.44	0.70	0.29	0.26

* All items were measured on a seven-point Likert type scale

Table 5.6: Descriptive Statistics for construct "Workplace-Ostracism" (WOS)

Construct	Item Code	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Workplace Ostracism (WOS)	O1	446	5.12	1.66	0.88	0.14
	O2	446	5.11	1.71	0.86	0.08
	O3	446	4.27	1.76	0.18	0.97
	O4	446	4.57	1.81	0.35	0.97
	O5	446	4.60	1.93	0.33	1.05
	O6	446	4.10	1.94	0.09	1.20
	O7	446	4.03	1.05	0.05	1.34
	O8	446	4.35	1.76	0.11	1.08

* All items were measured on a seven-point Likert type scale

The construct Stereotype threat (ST), Job performance (JP) and Coping Strategy (COPE) were measured on five-point Likert scale whereas other constructs like Hedonic wellbeing (HWB), Tokenism (TOK) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS) were measured on seven-point Likert Scale. The descriptive tables describe the

characteristics of the data. The first column in the table is of mean which represents the average response values of the respondents whereas the second column highlights the degree of variance from the mean. The next two columns are of skewness and kurtosis.

To check that a distribution of the scores is normal, we considered the values of skewness and kurtosis (Field, 2009). The independent construct, stereotype threat skewness ranges from 0 to 1.85 and kurtosis ranges from 0.1 to 1.83. The value of skewness and kurtosis for job performance ranges from 0.35 to 0.62 and 0.33 to 1.21 respectively. The skewness and kurtosis value for coping strategy ranges from 0 to 0.55 and 0.2 to 1.15 respectively. For construct, hedonic wellbeing skewness values ranged from 0.19 to 0.35 and kurtosis values ranged from 0.55 to 0.76. The skewness value of workplace ostracism ranged from 0.05 to 0.88 whereas kurtosis ranged from 0.08 to 1.20. The skewness value for tokenism ranged from 0.05 to 0.59 and kurtosis ranged from 0.21 to 1.82. George and Mallery (2010) stated that the value for skewness and kurtosis if ranged between -2 and +2 are considered acceptable in order to prove the distribution of data normal. Byrne (2010) suggested a kurtosis value of 3 for a normal, while values which exceed 5 indicates data to be non-normally distributed (Bentler, 2006). Whereas Hair et al. (2010) and Bryne (2010) argued that data is considered to be normal if Skewness is between -2 to +2 and Kurtosis is between -7 to +7. Therefore, the values of skewness and kurtosis in the descriptive tables for different constructs were within the acceptable limits indicating that the data was fit for further analysis.

The standard deviation values of Stereotype threat, Job Performance, Coping Strategy, hedonic wellbeing, tokenism, and workplace ostracism ranged from 0.85 to 1.4, 1.14 to 1.35, 0.93 to 1.3, 1.55 to 1.77, 0.67 to 0.92 and 1.05 to 1.94 respectively. This specifies that the deviation of the responses from the mean was low. Multivariate normality of the data was also checked by calculating Mahalanobis-D which did not indicate any problem with the data.

Table 5.7: Normality Test

Category	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
General	.039	227	.200[*]	.995	227	.661
ST	.177	11	.200[*]	.937	11	.492
OBC	.066	120	.200[*]	.971	120	.011
SC	.081	88	.200[*]	.974	88	.071
*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.						
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction						
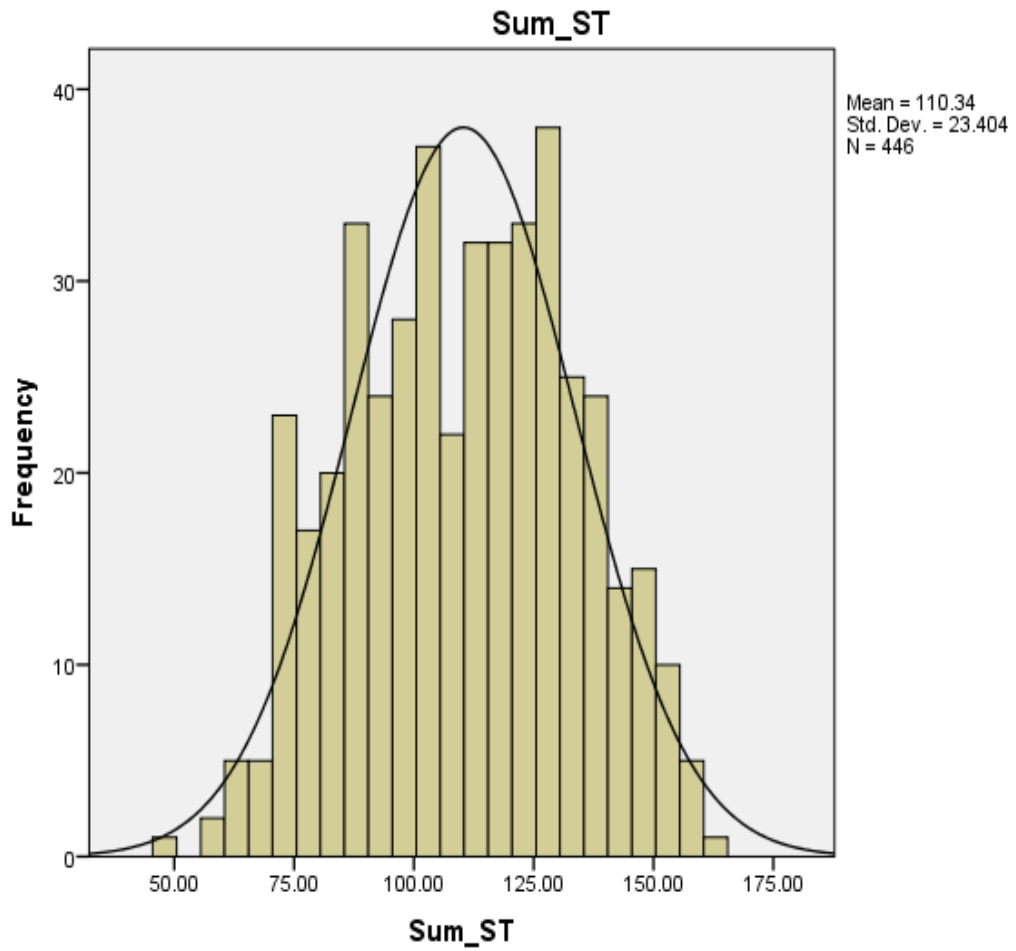
Fig. 5.1: Normality Graph

5.2. TESTING OF CONCEPTUAL MODEL

The present section deals with the validation of the hypotheses formulated to achieve the objectives of the study. From the detailed and in-depth literature review, it has been found that gender (G), religion (R), category (C) and tokenism (TOK) triggers stereotype threat (ST). Therefore objective was framed as:

5.2.1 Objective-1: To identify the role of caste category, religion, gender, and tokenism causing stereotype threat.

To achieve the objective following hypotheses were framed and tested.

H_01 : There is no significant difference in stereotype threat (ST) with respect to the gender of teachers.

H_02 : There is no significant difference in stereotype threat with respect to the religion of teachers.

H_03 : There is no significant difference in stereotype threat with respect to the caste category of teachers.

H_04 : There is no significant influence of Tokenism on Stereotype threat among teachers.

The analysis of data was done using t-test (gender &religion) ANOVA (Caste-Category) and Regression (tokenism). The hypothesis wise analysis is given here under:

H_01: There is no significant difference in stereotype threat (ST) with respect to the gender of teachers

To find the difference in the experience of stereotype threat on the basis of gender in the present study the investigator applied t-test and results are discussed below:

Table 5.8: Summary of t-Test on Stereotype Threat (ST) with respect to Gender of Teachers

Group Statistics						
Sum_ST						
Gender	**N**	**Mean (M)**	**Std. Deviation (SD)**	**Std. Error Mean**	**Df**	**t-Value**
Female	274	108.4453	24.18334	1.46097	391	2.214
Male	172	113.3488	21.83659	1.66502		

The table (5.8) above provides a summary of t-test for gender difference on the scores of stereotype threat. The table includes descriptive statistics for the two group's females and males which include a number of participants (N) Mean (M) and Standard Deviation (SD).

The mean score of males for stereotype threat is 113.3 and mean score of females for stereotype threat is 108.4 which reveal that males experience more stereotype threat when compared with females in the teaching profession. The t-value 2.21 in the table suggests that there is a significant difference between the group means of male and females since the p-value for two-tailed tests is found to be 0.027. The p-value is significant at 0.05 levels, thus the null hypothesis $H_0 1$ of objective 1 is rejected which means there is a significant difference in the scores of stereotype threat among male and female teachers. It has been found by the previous researches that activation of gender-relevant stereotypes negatively impacts the performance of an individual (Ambady et al., 2001).

$H_0 2$ - There will be a significant difference of religion on stereotype threat

To find the difference in the experience of stereotype threat on the basis of religion in the present study the investigator applied t-test and results are discussed below:

Table 5.9: Summary of t-Test on Stereotype Threat (ST) with respect to Religion of Teachers

Group Statistics						
Sum_ST						
Religion	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Df	t-Value
Hindu	400	109.6250	23.34130	1.16707	444	1.89
Muslim	46	116.5217	23.28351	3.43297		

The table (5.9) above provides a summary of t-test for difference on the scores of stereotype threat with respect to the religion of teachers. The table includes descriptive statistics for the two groups (Hindus and Muslim) which include a number of participants (N) Mean (M) and Standard Deviation (SD).

The mean score of Hindu s for stereotype threat is 109.6 and mean score of Muslims for stereotype threat is 116.5 which reveal that Muslims experience more stereotype threat when compared with Hindus in the teaching profession. The t-value 1.89 in the table suggests that there is a significant difference between the group means of Muslims and Hindus since the p-value for two-tailed tests is found to be 0.058. The p-value is significant at 0.05 level, thus the null hypothesis $H_0 2$ of objective 1 is rejected and the results indicate that there is a significant difference in the scores of stereotype threat with respect to religion among the teachers. Stereotype threat is a social psychological phenomenon in which minority group member experience an apprehension that they might be judged on the negative stereotypes about their group (Steele, 1997, Schneider, et al., 2012).

$H_0 3$-There is no significant difference in stereotype threat with respect to the category of teachers.

To find the difference on the experience of stereotype threat with respect to category (General, Schedule Tribe, Schedule Caste, Other Backward Caste) in the present study the investigator applied ANOVA and results are discussed below:

Table 5.10: Summary of ANOVA Test on Stereotype Threat (ST) with respect to Category of Teacher

Descriptive				
Sum_ST				
	N	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**Std. Error**
General	227	93	15.91	1.05
ST	11	129	17.83	5.37
OBC	120	125	12.72	1.16
SC	88	133	15.63	1.66
Total	446	110	23.40	1.10

The descriptive statistics tables include meaning, standard deviation and standard error for the dependent variable. Stereotype threat means scores for different category i.e. General, Schedule Tribe, other backward caste and Schedule Caste has been indicated in the above table. From the table 5.10, it is clear that the teachers belonging to Schedule Caste category have perceived highest Stereotype Threat (133) followed by Schedule Tribe with a mean score of 129, Other Backward Class and General has mean score of 125 and 93 respectively. The same is depicted in the graph given below.
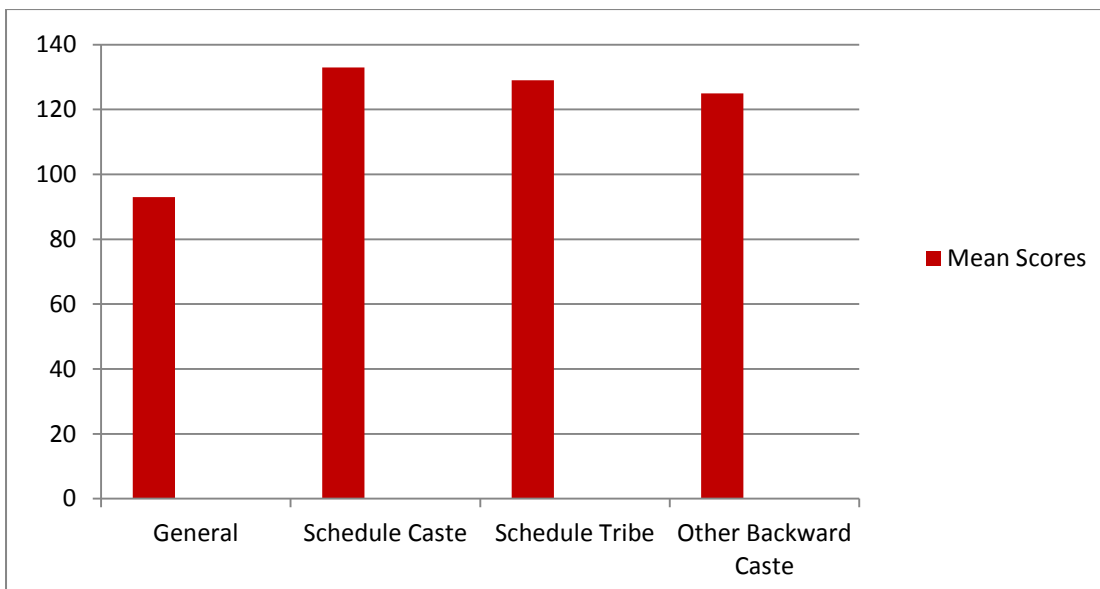
Fig. 5.2: Graph with Mean Score on Stereotype Threat of Teachers Category-wise

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Further to analyze the group differences, one-way ANOVA was applied to the scores of Stereotype threat for all the subgroups i.e. general, another backward caste, schedule caste, and schedule tribe. The results are presented below in the table 5.11.

Table 5.11: Summary of ANOVA Test on Stereotype Threat (ST) with respect to Category of Teacher

ANOVA					
Sum_ST					
	Sum of Squares	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
Between Groups	142836.992	3	47612.331	208.564	.000
Within Groups	100902.559	442	228.286		
Total	243739.552	445			

The ANOVA table 5.11 presents statistically significant differences in the experience of stereotype threat between the teachers belonging to different categories (General, Schedule caste, schedule tribe, and another backward caste). From the ANOVA table, it is observed that F-ratio is 208.56 which is found to be significant at 0.01 level of confidence on the scores of Stereotype Threat due to category. Further to analyze sub-group differences Tukey-HSD has been applied as post-hoc test. The table 5.12 showing the results of the Tukey post hoc test is presented below.

Table 5.12: Summary of Tukey Test for Pair Wise Comparison on Stereotype Threat (ST) with respect to Category of Teacher

Multiple Comparisons				
Dependent Variable: Sum_ST Tukey HSD				
(I) Category	**(J) Category**	**Mean Difference (I-J)**	**Std. Error**	**Sig.**
General	ST	36.03[*]	4.66	.000
	OBC	31.96[*]	1.70	.000
	SC	39.97[*]	1.89	.000
ST	OBC	4.07	4.75	.827
	SC	3.93	4.83	.848
OBC	SC	8.00[*]	2.12	.001
*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.				

The multiple comparison tables describe the pair wise comparison of caste category groups. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences between the pair wise sub-groups are found to be significant at 0.05 level of confidence for the pairs General (GN) – Schedule Tribe (ST); General (GN) – Other backward caste (OBC); General (GN) – Schedule Caste (SC) and Other backward caste (OBC) – Schedule Caste (SC).

From mean analysis for the pair General (GN) – Schedule Tribe (SC), it is found that teachers belonging to schedule caste category experience more stereotype threat than general category teachers. For the pair General (GN) – Schedule Tribe (ST), it found that teachers from ST category experience more Stereotype Threat than general. For the pair General (GN) – Other Backward Caste (OBC), it is found that teachers belonging to OBC category experience more stereotype threat than teachers belonging to general category. Further for pair Other Backward Caste (OBC) – Schedule Tribe (SC), it is observed that teachers belonging to schedule caste category experience more stereotype threat than teachers belonging to Other backward class (OBC).

From the above discussion it can be concluded that H_03 of objective 1 is not supported. As it has been observed that while performing, when caste identity is made salient in a stereotyped domain an individual performance is affected which indicates that social identity of an individual triggers the feeling of stereotype threat (Hoff and Pandey, 2006; Marx and Stapel,2006). Stereotype threat is also known as social identity threat (Schmader and Forbes, 2008; Steele, 1999) because it is an anxiety or concern which an individual experience in situations where ones social identity (Caste, religion, Gender etc) are either underrepresented or devalued or stereotyped to be inferior (Schmader and Croft, 2015; Steele et al. 2002).

H_04- There is no significant impact/ influence of Tokenism on Stereotype threat among teachers.

To explore the influence of tokenism effect on stereotype threat among the teachers in the present study the investigator applied linear regression and results are discussed below:

Table 5.13: Regression Analysis of Tokenism with Stereotype Threat among Teachers

Model Summary					
Model	**R**	**R Square**	**Adjusted R Square**	**Std. The error of the Estimate**	**R Square Change**
1	.677[a]	.459	.453	6.185	.459
a. Predictors: (Constant), TOKENISM					
b. Dependent Variable: STEREOTYPE					

The above table 5.13 is the model summary of tokenism as a predictor of stereotype threat. The value of R indicates the correlation between the predictor (Tokenism) and dependent (Stereotype threat) variable. The R-value is 0.677 which indicates a high correlation between the predictor variable and dependent variable. Further in above table the value of "R Square" represents the proportion of total variation for an outcome variable (stereotype threat) that is explained by predictor variable (Tokenism). In the present table, R-square is .459 which means the predictor explains 45.9% of the variability in the experience of stereotype threat by teachers. Further to test the significance of the model the ANOVA table is presented below for the model

Table 5.14: Summary of ANOVA Result of Regression Analysis Tokenism with Stereotype Threat among Teachers

ANOVA						
Model		**Sum of Squares**	**Df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
1	Regression	3180.43	1	3180.43	83.13	.000[b]
	Residual	3749.00	98	38.25		
	Total	6929.44	99			
a. Dependent Variable: STEREOTYPE						
b. Predictors: (Constant), TOKENISM						

The result of the ANOVA table 5.14 indicates that the dependent variable has been predicted significantly well. The table presents *p*-value which is .000 which

is less than 0.05 indicating the regression model to be statistically significant. Further, in order to frame the regression equation, the standardized and unstandardized coefficients were calculated and are presented below in the coefficient table 5.15 below:

Table 5.15: Summary of Coefficients of Regression Analysis Tokenism with Stereotype Threat among Teacher

Coefficients					
Model	**Unstandardized Coefficients**		**Standardized Coefficients**	**T**	**Sig.**
	B	**Std. Error**	**Beta**		
1 (Constant)	13.290	3.334		3.987	.000
TOKENISM	.646	.071	.677	9.118	.000
a. Dependent Variable: STEREOTYPE					

The above coefficient table 5.15 presents the regression coefficient of significant variable which is performed to derive a regression equation to predict the stereotype threat experienced by teachers. Model-1 in the table presents the unstandardized coefficient Beta value of 13.290 for constant, with a standard error of 3.334 and the significant t-value is 3.987

It also indicates that 'Tokenism' significantly contributes to the model as P value is 0.000. Further to present the regression equation the unstandardized coefficients values have been considered which is 13.290 and .646.

The resulting regression equation is:

Stereotype Threat = 13.29 + 0.646 (Tokenism).

The positive relationship between Tokenism and Stereotype Threat indicate that increase in tokenism effect leads to an increase in the experience of Stereotype Threat. Previous researchers explored that being a solo representative of one's group (token) do experience the effects of tokenism (Stroshine and Brandl, 2011) which eventually triggers the experience of stereotype threat (Roberson et al. 2003). Thus, the null hypothesis is not accepted.

5.2.2 Objective-2: To establish the relationship between stereotype threat and job performance.

To achieve the above objective following hypotheses was framed and tested. Therefore, hypotheses were framed as:

H_01 : There will be no significant relationship between stereotype threat (ST) and task Performance (TP) dimension of job performance (JP).

H_02 : There will be no significant relationship between Stereotype threat (ST) and contextual performance (CP) dimension of job performance (JP).

H_03 : There will be no significant relationship between Stereotype threat (ST) and counterproductive Work behavior (CWB) dimension of the job

The objective was framed based on the proposed conceptual model in the study. The conceptual model in the present study (as shown in Figure.3.3) is grounded on Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP) relationship. The hypothesized model endeavors to study the impact of Stereotype Threat (ST) on Job Performance (JP).

Therefore, this section will discuss the testing procedure of the conceptual model through AMOS. It was Fornell and Larcker (1981) and Hair et al. (2011) who suggested that the measurement model should be assessed before structural model which is applied to test a significant relationship between the constructs. Therefore, testing of the conceptual model is classified in two stages. Firstly measurement model of the construct is tested and then the structural model of the construct is tested. The structural model is tested for the causal relationship between Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP).

Further, the measurement and structural model of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Task Performance (TP), Stereotype Threat (ST) and Contextual Performance (CP), Stereotype Threat (ST) and Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB) dimension of Job Performance (JP) is also tested.

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5.2.2.1 Measurement Model (ST ←→ JP)

The first phase includes the measurement model of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP). The measurement model was built-in to examine convergent and discriminant validity. The model was also fitted to confirm the strength of dimension so that inter constructs estimates are not confounded.

To examine the robustness of dimensions between the statements and other associated constructs measurement models were built. It is also recommended that in the model, items that exhibit poor reliability or cross loads can be dropped so as to re-estimate the model (Hair et al. 2011 and Farooq, 2016). By doing this strength of measurement is ensured. The below-represented measurement model examines the relationships among measures of a different construct like stereotype threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP). The two-headed arrow in the model represents the covariance between the variables.
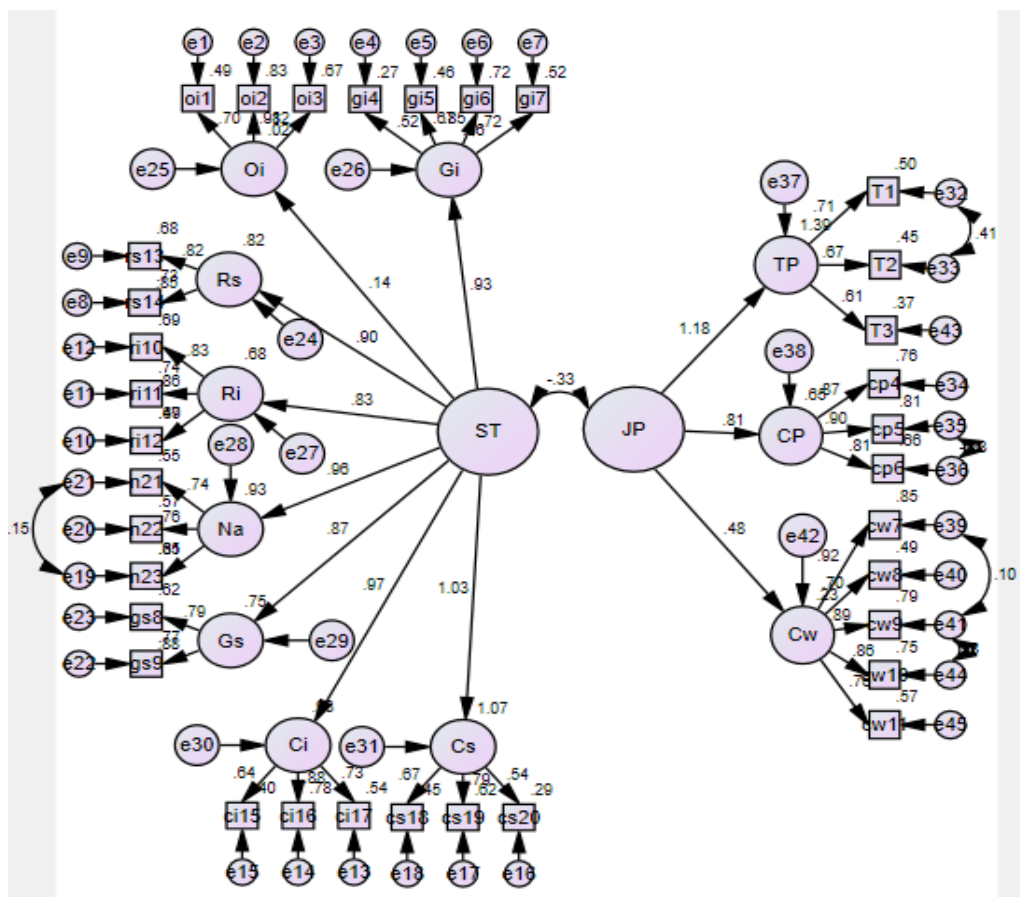
Fig. 5.3: Measurement Model of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP)

Table 5.16: Model Fit Indices of Measurement-Model for Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job-Performance (JP)

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	$\chi 2$	df	p-value	$\chi 2$/df
I	0.085	0.896	0.877	0.938	0.053	1502	394	0.000	3.81

Table 5.16 represents the model fit indices of Measurement Model of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP) which supports a good model fit. The values of RMR, GFI, CFI, RMSEA and Normed Chi-square were significant enough to reveal a good fit.

As suggested by Fornell and Larker (1981) the validity of Stereotype Threat (ST), and Job-performance (JP) constructs were tested using Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Construct Reliability (CR), and Discriminant validity. The AVE for the Stereotype Threat (ST) construct was found to be 0.58, which is above the threshold level, ensuring the convergent validity of the Stereotype Threat construct. The AVE of Job-Performance construct was found to be 0.64, which is above the threshold level. The composite reliability (CR) of Stereotype Threat construct was found to be 0.970 which is above the threshold level. The composite reliability (CR) of Job-Performance construct was found to be 0.951. Thus, the results ensure the reliability and validity of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job-Performance (JP) constructs. The discriminant validity was calculated by comparing AVE of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job-Performance (JP) with the inter-construct correlation estimates. The AVE was higher than inter-construct correlation estimates, which ensured the discriminant validity of Stereotype Threat (ST), and Job-Performance (JP) constructs.

5.2.2.2 Structural Model (ST➔JP)

The objective: *"To establish the relationship between stereotype threat and Job performance"* Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was used. The shift from Measurement Model to Structural Model is basically the implementation of structural theory in term of relationships among constructs.

A two-headed arrow indicates non-causal relationships between variables in the Measurement Model whereas in Structural Model a single-headed arrow indicates a dependence relationship. The structural model is based on a structural theory which postulates the relationship between constructs as well as the nature of relationships they share (Hair et al., 2010).

The Table (5.17) represents the model fit indices for Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) which advocated good model-fit. While moving from the measurement model to the structural model there was no adjustment observed in the model-fit-indices, which demonstrates that the basic model did not decrease the model-fit because of its predetermined relationship. The standardized estimates for path Stereotype Threat (ST) →Job Performance (JP) were -0.33 significant at 1% level (Fig. 5.4).
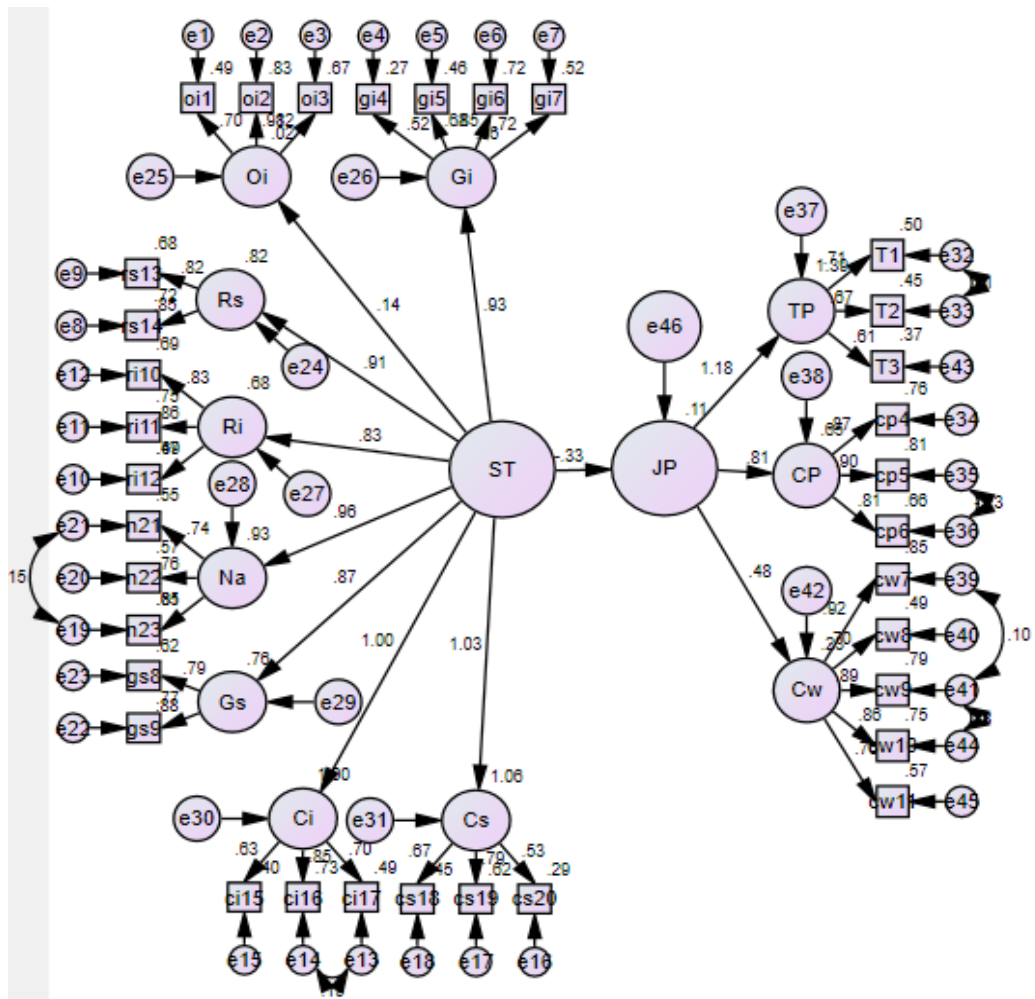
Fig. 5.4: Validated Structural Model of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP)

Table 5.17: Model Fit Indices of Structural Model for Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job-Performance (JP)

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	$\chi 2$	Df	p-value	$\chi 2$/df
I	0.085	0.896	0.877	0.938	0.053	1502	394	0.000	3.81

From the above discussions, it can be established that stereotype threat (ST) negatively affects Job Performance (Roberson et al. 2003; Cullen et al. 2004; Chung et al. 2010).

Further in the second phase measurement model of all three dimensions of Job Performance (JP) i.e. Task Performance (TP), Contextual performance (CP) and Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB) was built-in to assess the convergent and discriminant validity and to ensure the strength of measurement at the dimension level. The section 5.3, 5.4 and 5.5 discusses the measurement and structural model for dimensions of Job Performance (JP).

$H_0$1: There will be no significant relationship between stereotype threat (ST) and task Performance (TP) dimension of job performance (JP).

5.2.2.3 Measurement Model (ST ←→TP)

The present measurement model assess the relationship between stereotype threat (ST) and Task performance (TP) dimension of job performance (JP). The model contains two-headed arrow to connect all the parameters. The two-headed arrow in the present model indicates the covariance between the variables measured (Stereotype Threat and Task Performance).
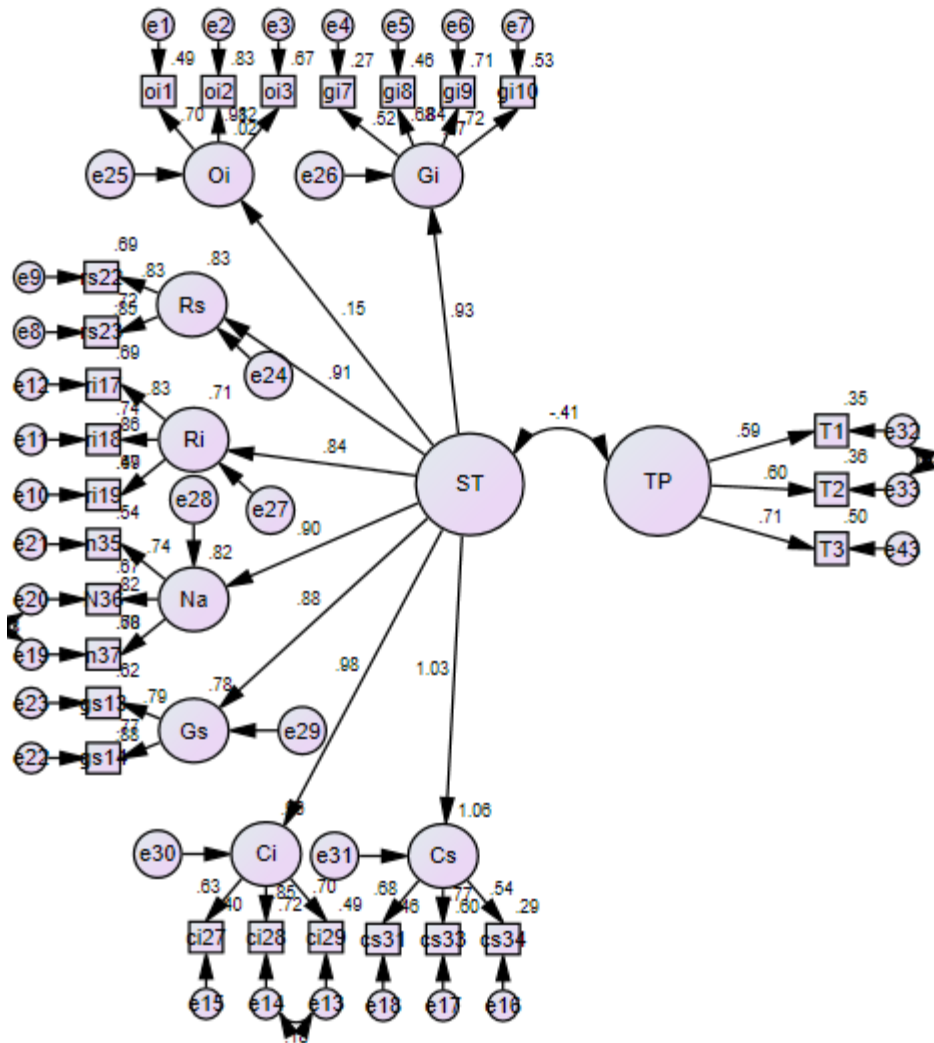
Fig. 5.5: Measurement Model of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Task Performance (TP)

Table 5.18: Model Fit Indices of Measurement Model for Stereotype Threat (ST) and Task-Performance (TP)

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ2	df	p-value	χ2/df
I	0.061	0.877	0.849	0.916	0.067	1049	287	0.000	3.656

The above table 5.18 shows the summary of the model fit indices supports a good-fit. The values of RMR, GFI, CFI, RMSEA and Normed Chi-square were significant enough to reveal a good fit. The validity of Stereotype Threat and Task Performance (TP) was tested through Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Construct

Reliability (CR) and Discriminant Validity (DV) as suggested by Fornell and Larker (1981). The score for Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for construct Stereotype Threat is 0.58 and 0.404 for Task performance which confirms convergent validity whereas the Composite reliability (CR) of Stereotype Threat (ST) is 0.970 and 0.656 for Task Performance (TP) affirms internal consistency. To calculate the discriminant validity AVE of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Task Performance (TP) was compared with the inter-construct correlation estimates. The inter-construct correlation estimates was lower than AVE which assured the discriminant validity of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Task Performance (TP).

The inter-relatedness of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Task Performance (TP) has been examined through the covariance arrow which reveals critical ratio.

5.2.2.4 Structural Model (ST→TP)

The hypothesis $H_0 1$: There will be no significant relationship between stereotype threat and task performance dimension of job performance was studied using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). The shift from Measurement Model to Structural Model is basically the implementation of structural theory in term of relationships among constructs.

A two headed arrow indicates non-causal relationships between variables in Measurement Model whereas in Structural Model a single headed arrow indicates a dependence relationship. The structural model is based on structural theory which postulates the relationship between constructs as well as the nature of relationships they share (Hair et al., 2010).

The table (5.19) represents the model fit indices for Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) which advocated good model-fit. While moving from measurement model to structural model there was no adjustment observed in the model-fit-indices, which demonstrates that basic model did not decrease the model-fit because of its predetermined relationship. The standardized estimates for path Stereotype Threat (ST) → Task Performance (TP) was -0.41 significant at 1% level (Fig. 5.6).
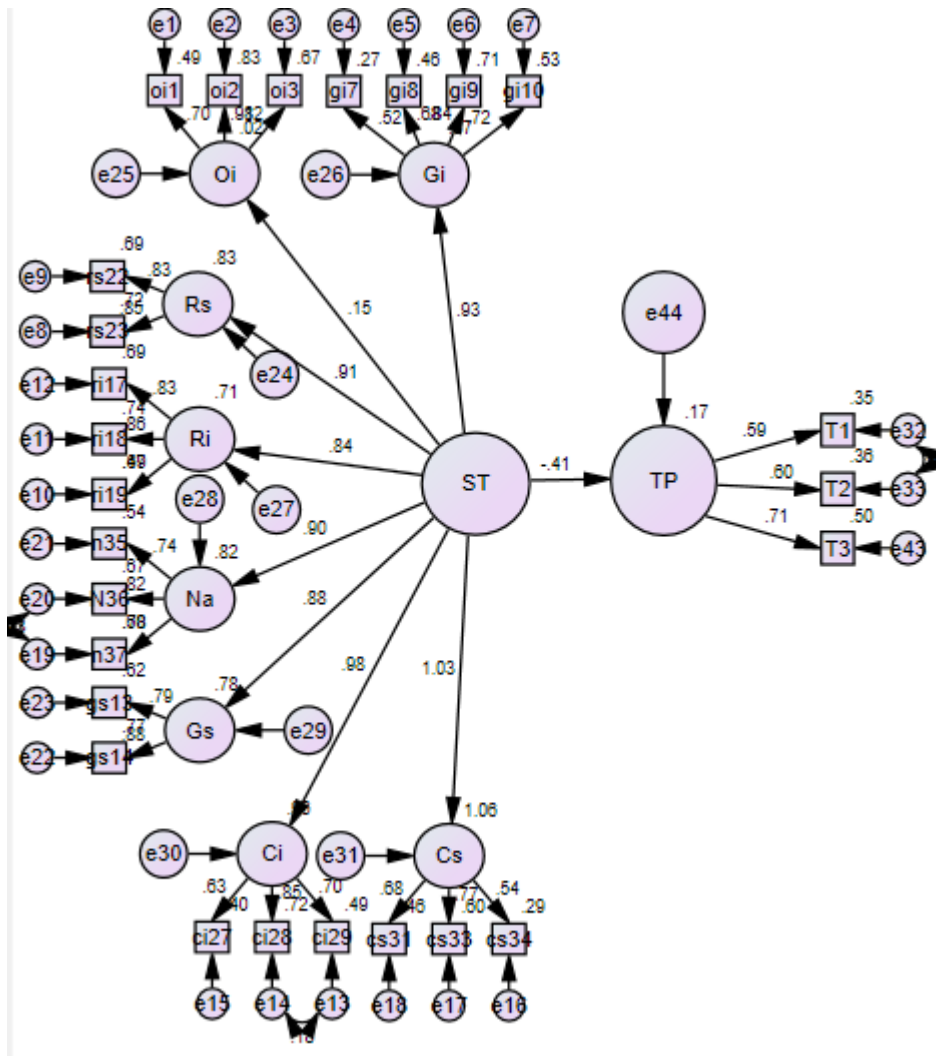
Fig. 5.6: Validated Structural Model of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Task Performance (TP)

Table 5.19: Model Fit Indices of Structural Model for Stereotype Threat (ST) and Task-Performance (TP)

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	$\chi 2$	df	p-value	$\chi 2$/df
I	0.061	0.877	0.849	0.916	0.067	1049	287	0.000	3.656

From the above discussions it can be established that stereotype threat (ST) negatively affects Task Performance (TP) which means that hypothesis H_01 of Objective 2 is not supported. Stereotype Threat effects the task performance of individuals when they fear about conforming the existing negative stereotype, which in turn increases the anxiety level and results detrimental to ones task performance

(Hill and Wigfield, 1984, Stangor et al. 1998; Cadinu et al. 2003; Frantz, Cuddy, Burnett, Ray, and Hart, 2004; Schmader et al. 2008).

H₀2: There will be no significant relationship between Stereotype threat (ST) and contextual performance (CP) dimension of job performance (JP).

5.2.2.5 Measurement Model (ST ←→CP)

The present measurement model assesses the relationship between stereotype threat (ST) and Contextual performance (CP) dimension of job performance (JP). The model contains two-headed arrow to connect all the parameters. The two-headed arrow in the present model indicates the covariance between the variables measured (Stereotype Threat and Contextual Performance).
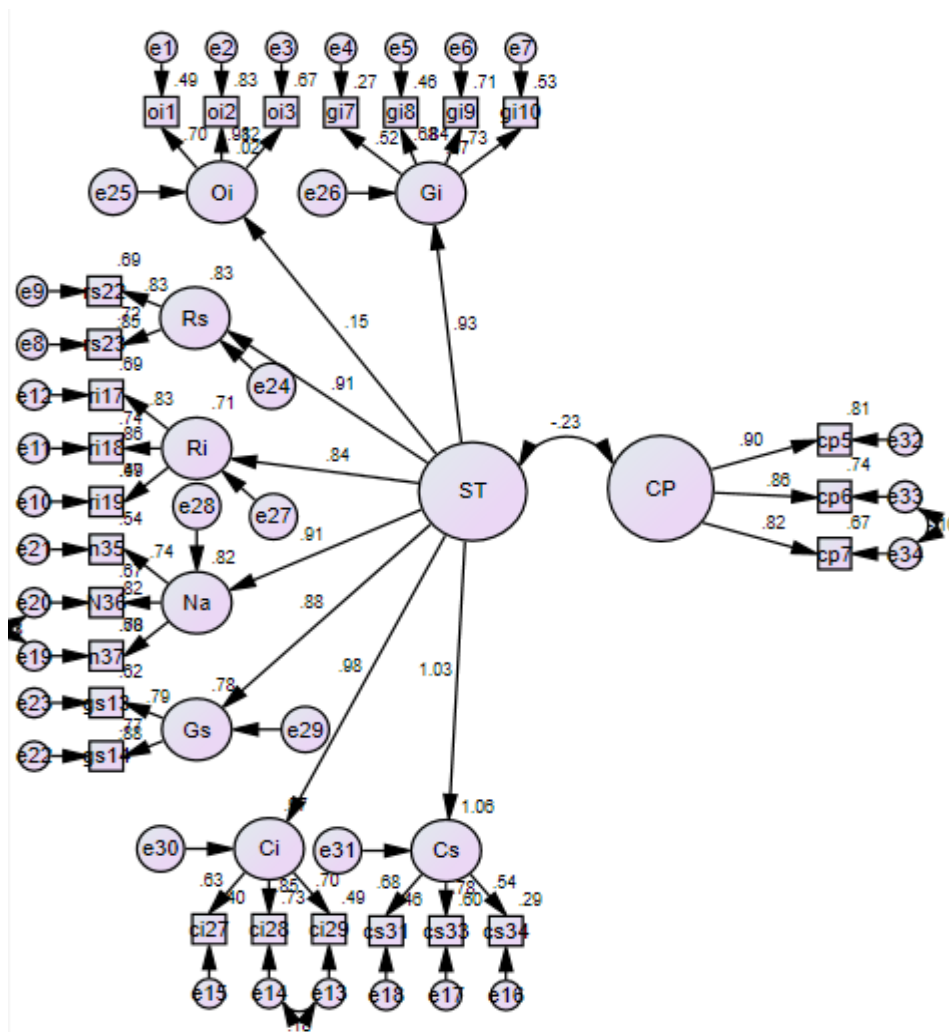
Fig. 5.7: Measurement Model of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Contextual Performance (CP)

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Table 5.20: Model Fit Indices of Measurement Model for Stereotype Threat (ST) and Contextual-Performance (CP)

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ^2	df	p-value	χ^2/df
I	0.061	0.875	0.848	0.919	0.068	1066	288	0.000	3.702

The above table (5.20) shows the summary of the model fit indices supports a good-fit. The values of RMR, GFI, CFI, RMSEA and Normed Chi-square were significant enough to reveal a good fit.

The validity of Stereotype Threat and Contextual Performance (TP) was tested through Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Construct Reliability (CR) and Discriminant Validity (DV) as suggested by Fornell and Larker (1981). The Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for Stereotype Threat is 0.58 and 0.74 for Contextual performance confirms convergent validity whereas the Composite reliability (CR) for Stereotype Threat (ST) is 0.970 and 0.786 for Contextual Performance (TP) affirms internal consistency. To calculate the discriminant validity AVE of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Contextual Performance (CP) was compared with the inter-construct correlation estimates. The inter-construct correlation estimates was lower than AVE which assured the discriminant validity of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Contextual Performance (CP).

The inter-relatedness of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Contextual Performance (CP) has been examined through the covariance arrow which reveals critical ratio

5.2.2.6 Structural Model (ST➔CP)

The hypothesis $H_0 2$: There will be no significant relationship between stereotype threat and Contextual performance dimension of job performance was studied using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). The shift from Measurement Model to Structural Model is basically the implementation of structural theory in term of relationships among constructs.

A two headed arrow indicates non-causal relationships between variables in Measurement Model whereas in Structural Model a single headed arrow indicates a dependence relationship. The structural model is based on structural theory which

postulates the relationship between constructs as well as the nature of relationships they share (Hair et al., 2010).

The table (5.21) represents the model fit indices for Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) which advocated good model-fit. While moving from measurement model to structural model there was no adjustment observed in the model-fit-indices, which demonstrates that basic model did not decrease the model-fit because of its predetermined relationship. The standardized estimates for path Stereotype Threat (ST) → Contextual Performance (CP) was -0.41 significant at 1% level (Figure 5.8). From the above discussions it can be established that stereotype threat (ST) negatively affects Contextual Performance (CP). Stereotype threat people behaviour can become consistent or inconsistent, increased hostility (Wheeler and Petty, 2001 and Bargh et al.1996).
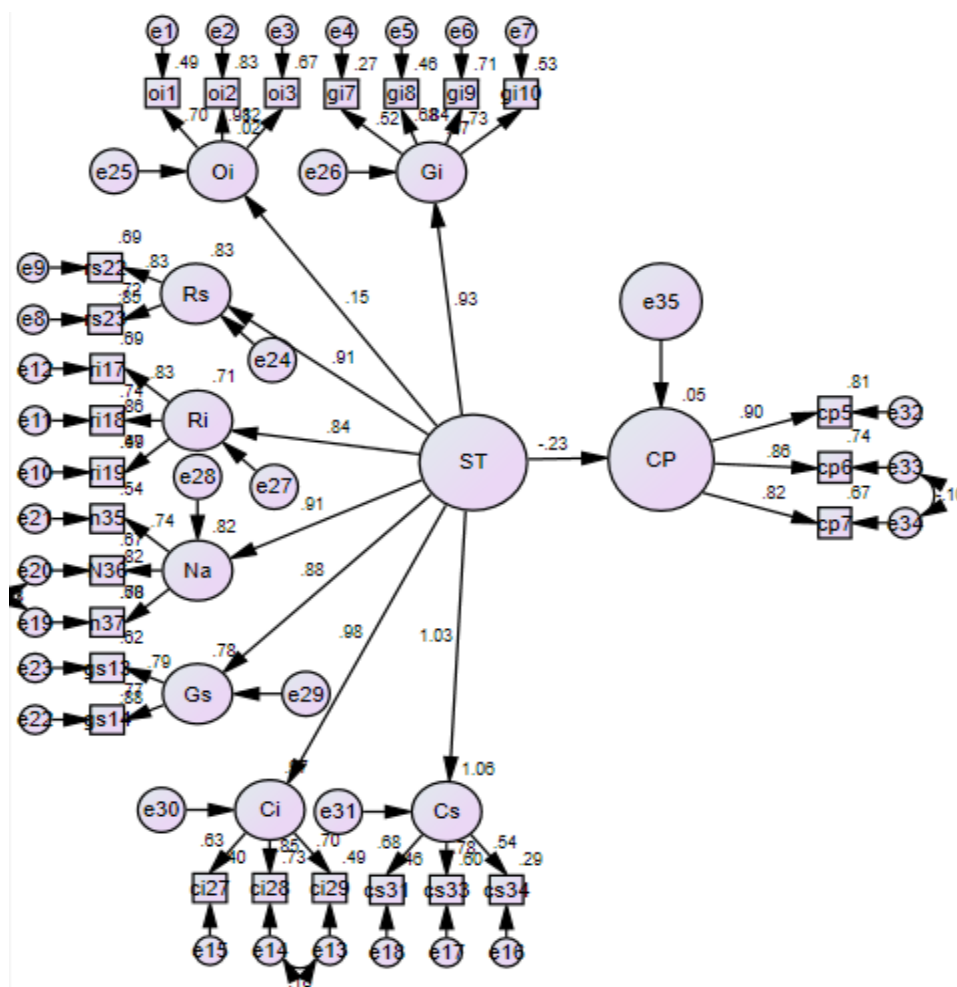
Fig. 5.8: Validated Structural Model of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Contextual Performance (CP)

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Table 5.21: Model Fit Indices of Structural Model for Stereotype Threat (ST) and Contextual-Performance (CP)

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ^2	df	p-value	χ^2/df
I	0.061	0.875	0.848	0.919	0.068	1066	288	0.000	3.702

The results of measurement and structural model for stereotype threat and contextual performance construct indicate a negative relationship which means that hypothesis $H_0 2$ of Objective 2 is not supported.

It has been observed that with the experience of stereotype threat the employee tend to perceive that either they are disrespect or devalued which results in suppression of norms of good conduct and action on its behalf (Belmi et al.2015; Colquitt et al. 2006; Tyler and Lind, 1992).

$H_0 3$: There will be no significant relationship between Stereotype threat (ST) and counterproductive Work behaviour (CWB) dimension of job.

5.2.2.7 Measurement Model (ST ←→CWB)

The present measurement model assesses the relationship between stereotype threat (ST) and Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB) dimension of job performance (JP). The model contains two-headed arrow to connect all the parameters. The two-headed arrow in the present model indicates the covariance between the variables measured (Stereotype Threat and Counterproductive Work Behavior).
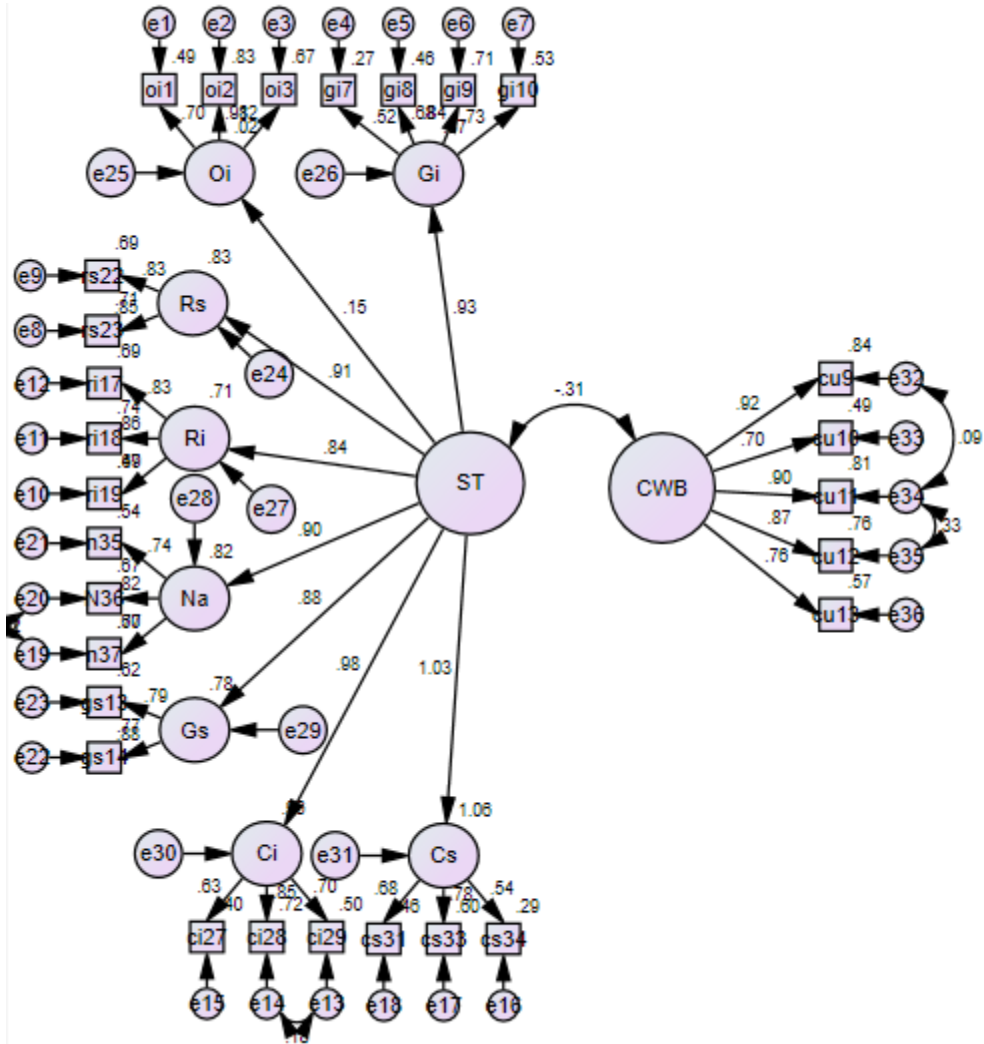
Fig. 5.9: Measurement Model of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB)

Table 5.22: Model Fit Indices of Measurement Model for Stereotype Threat (ST) and Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB)

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ2	df	p-value	χ2/df
I	0.062	0.875	0.849	0.926	0.064	1148	337	0.000	3.402

The above table 5.22 shows the summary of the model fit indices supports a good-fit. The values of RMR, GFI, CFI, RMSEA and Normed Chi-square were significant enough to reveal a good fit.

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The validity of Stereotype Threat and Counterproductive (CWB) was tested through Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Construct Reliability (CR) and Discriminant Validity (DV) as suggested by Fornell and Larker (1981). The Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for Stereotype Threat was found to be 0.58 and Average Variance Extracted for Counterproductive Work Behavior was 0.69 which confirms convergent validity whereas the Composite reliability (CR) for Stereotype Threat (ST) is 0.970 and Composite Reliability (CR) for Counterproductive Work behavior (CWB) is 0.830 which affirms internal consistency. To calculate the discriminant validity AVE of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB) was compared with the inter-construct correlation estimates. The inter-construct correlation estimates was lower than AVE which assured the discriminant validity of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB).

The inter-relatedness of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB) has been examined through the covariance arrow which reveals critical ratio.

5.2.2.8 Structural Model (ST→CWB)

The hypothesis $H_0 3$: There will be no significant relationship between stereotype threat and Counterproductive Work Behavior dimension of job performance was studied using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). The shift from Measurement Model to Structural Model is basically the implementation of structural theory in term of relationships among constructs.

A two headed arrow indicates non-causal relationships between variables in Measurement Model whereas in Structural Model a single headed arrow indicates a dependence relationship. The structural model is based on structural theory which postulates the relationship between constructs as well as the nature of relationships they share (Hair et al., 2010).

The table (5.23) represents the model fit indices for Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) which advocated good model-fit. While moving from measurement model to structural model there was no adjustment observed in the model-fit-indices, which demonstrates that basic model did not decrease the model-

fit because of its predetermined relationship. The standardized estimates for path Stereotype Threat (ST) → Counterproductive Work behavior (CWB) was -0.41 significant at 1% level (Figure 5.10). From the above discussions it can be established that stereotype threat (ST) negatively affects Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB).
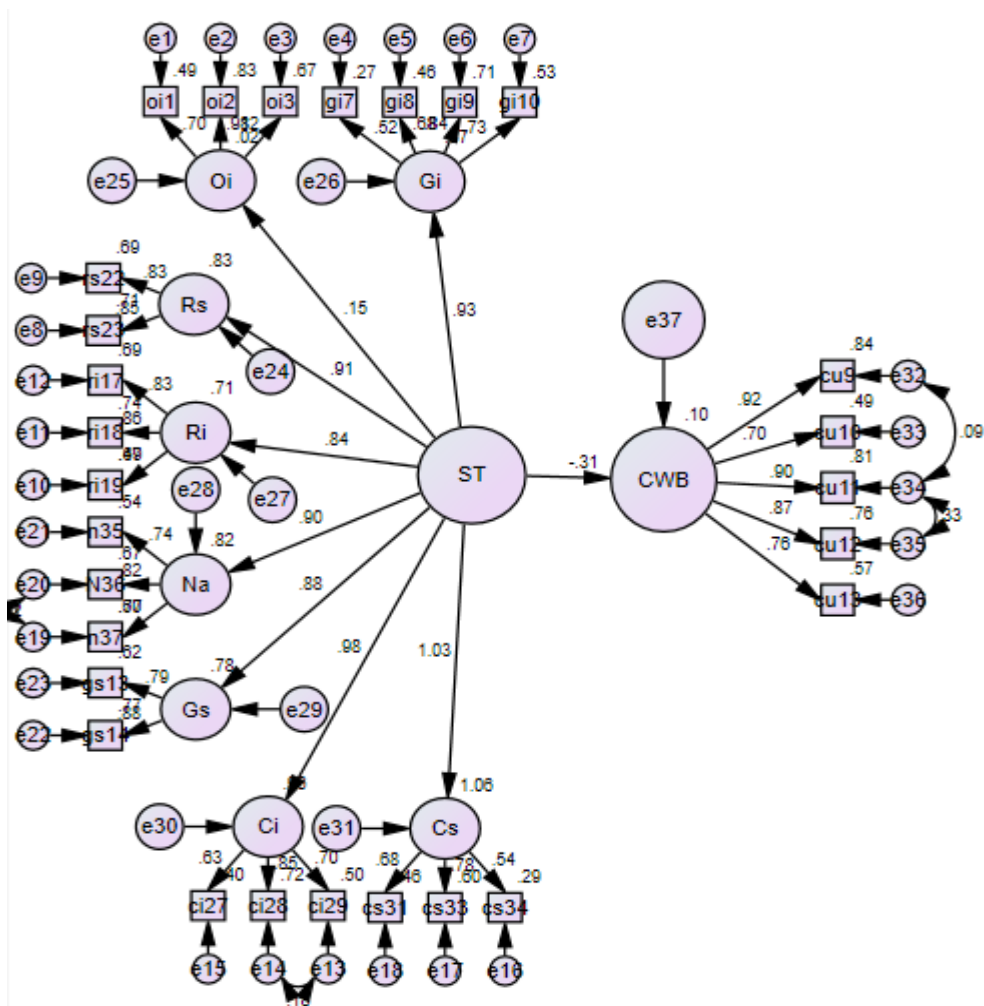

Fig. 5.10: Validated Structural Model of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB)

Table 5.23: Model Fit Indices of Structural Model for Stereotype Threat (ST) and Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB)

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ^2	df	p-value	χ^2/df
I	0.062	0.875	0.849	0.926	0.064	1148	337	0.000	3.402

From the above discussions it can be established that stereotype threat (ST) negatively affects counterproductive work behavior (CWB) which means that hypothesis $H_0 3$ of Objective 2 is not supported.

The results of the measurement and structural model indicate a negative relationship between stereotype threat and counterproductive work behavior. It means that under the experience of stereotype threat an individual does not allow oneself to indulge in counterproductive behavior. It might be due to the fact that the experience of stereotype threat generally induces coping strategy which are intrapersonal in nature and one of such method is 'Stereotype Denial' which is adopted to re-establish the perceived integrity of oneself (Von Hippel et al 2005). Generally, stereotype threat strongly endorses counterproductive work attitudes because they perceive disrespect from employees and organization which directly or indirectly engage the employees in deviant actions like stealing, cheating, lying etc. (Belmi et al 2015; Mendoza et al., 2002; Twenge et al. 2001).

5.2.3 Objective-3: To study the relationship between (a) Hedonic well-being and coping strategies; (b) Hedonic well-being and Workplace Ostracism; (c) Relationship between Coping Strategies and Workplace Ostracism.

To achieve the above objective following hypothesis were framed and tested. Therefore, hypotheses were framed as:

$H_0 1$: There will be no significant relationship between Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) and coping strategies (COPE)

$H_0 2$: There will be no significant relationship between Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) and workplace ostracism (WOS)

$H_0 3$: There will be no significant relationship between Coping Strategies (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS)

The above objective was framed based on the proposed conceptual model in the study. The conceptual model contained three intervening variables i.e. hedonic wellbeing (HWB), Coping Strategy (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS) which are considered as mediators between stereotype threat and job performance

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link. The hypothesized model endeavors to study the effect of mediators between the Stereotype Threat (ST) on Job Performance (JP) link.

Therefore, this section will discuss the testing procedure of the conceptual model through AMOS. It was Fornell and Larcker (1981) and Hair et al. (2011) who suggested that the measurement model should be assessed before structural model which is applied to test a significant relationship between the constructs. Therefore, testing of the conceptual model is classified in two stages. Firstly measurement model of the construct is tested and then the structural model of the construct is tested. The structural model is tested for the causal relationship between Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP).

Further the measurement and structural model of Stereotype Threat (ST) and Task Performance (TP), Stereotype Threat (ST) and Contextual Performance (CP), Stereotype Threat (ST) and Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB) dimension of Job Performance (JP) is also tested.

$H_0$1: There will be no significant relationship between Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) and coping strategies (COPE)

5.2.3.1 Measurement Model (HWB ←→COPE)

First phase includes the measurement model of Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) and Coping Strategy (COPE). The measurement model was built-in to examine the convergent and discriminant validity. The model was also fitted to confirm the strength of dimension so that inter constructs estimates are not confounded.

To examine the robustness of dimensions between the statements and other associated constructs measurement models were built. It is also recommended that in the model, items that exhibit poor reliability or cross loads can be dropped so as to re-estimate the model (Hair et al. 2011 and Farooq, 2016). By doing this strength of measurement is ensured. The below represented measurement model examines the relationships among measures of different construct like Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) and Coping Strategy (COPE). The two headed arrow in the model represents the covariance between the variables.
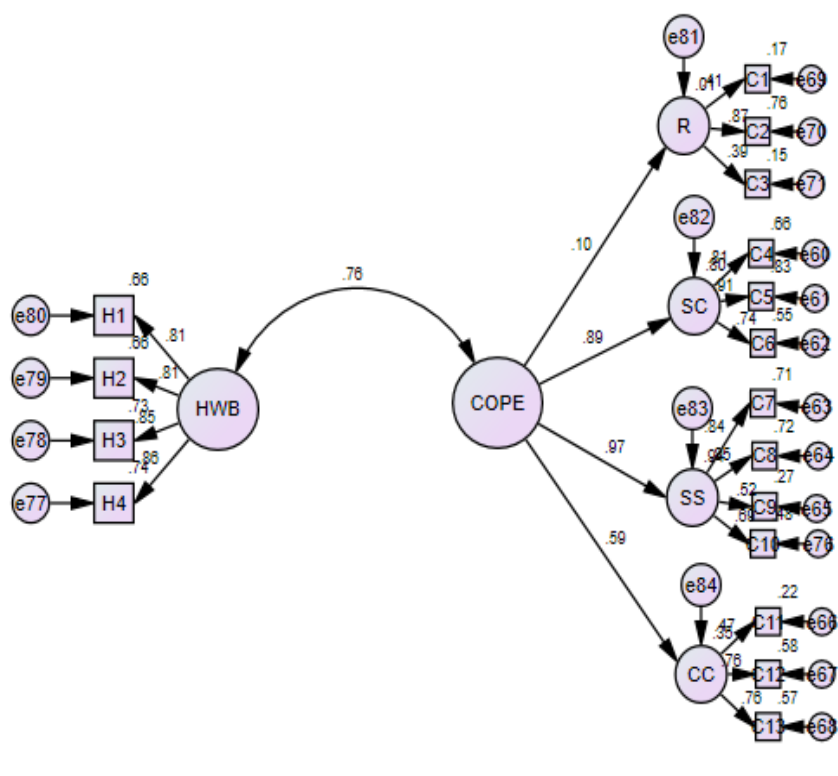
Fig. 5.11: Measurement Model of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) and Coping Strategy (COPE)

Table 5.24: Model Fit Indices of Measurement-Model for Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) and Coping Strategy (COPE)

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ^2	df	p-value	χ^2/df
I	0.065	0.938	0.917	0.957	0.056	325.06	114	0.000	2.851

Table 5.24 represents the model fit indices of Measurement Model of Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) and Coping Strategy (COPE) which supports a good model fit. The values of RMR, GFI, CFI, RMSEA and Normed Chi-square were significant enough to reveal a good fit.

As suggested by Fornell and Larker (1981) the validity of Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) and Coping Strategy (COPE) constructs was tested using Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Construct Reliability (CR), and Discriminant validity. The AVE for the Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) construct was found to be 0.694 which is above

the threshold level, ensuring the convergent validity of the Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) construct. The AVE of coping strategy (COPE) construct was found to be 0.52, which is above the threshold level. The composite reliability (CR) of Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) construct was found to be 0.90 which is above the threshold level. The composite reliability (CR) of Coping Strategy (COPE) construct was found to be 0.92. Thus, the results ensure the reliability and validity of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) and Coping Strategy (COPE) constructs. The discriminant validity was calculated by comparing AVE of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) and Coping Strategy (COPE) with the inter-construct correlation estimates. The AVE was higher than inter-construct correlation estimates, which ensured the discriminant validity of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB), and Coping Strategy (COPE) constructs.

5.2.3.2 Structural Model (HWB→COPE)

The sub hypothesis: *"There will be no significant relationship between Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) and Coping Strategies (COPE)"* was studied using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). The shift from Measurement Model to Structural Model is basically the implementation of structural theory in term of relationships among constructs.

A two headed arrow indicates non-causal relationships between variables in Measurement Model whereas in Structural Model a single headed arrow indicates a dependence relationship. The structural model is based on structural theory which postulates the relationship between constructs as well as the nature of relationships they share (Hair et al., 2010).

The Table (5.25) represents the model fit indices for Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) which advocated good model-fit. While moving from measurement model to structural model there was no adjustment observed in the model-fit-indices, which demonstrates that basic model did not decrease the model-fit because of its predetermined relationship. The standardized estimates for path Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) →Coping Strategy (COPE) was 0.76 significant at 1% level (Figure5.12).

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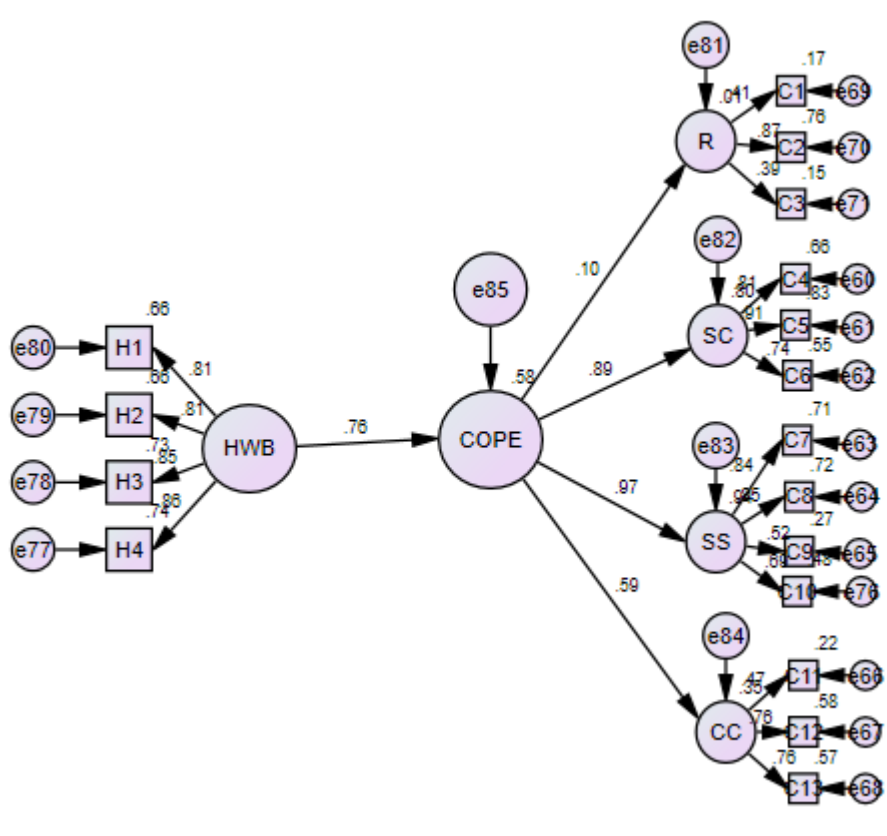
Fig. 5.12: Validated Structural Model of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) and Coping Strategy (COPE)

Table 5.25: Model Fit Indices of Structural Model for Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) and Coping Strategy (COPE)

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ2	df	p-value	χ2/df
I	0.065	0.938	0.917	0.957	0.056	325.06	114	0.000	2.851

From the above discussions it can be established that Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) positively affects Coping Strategy (COPE). Positive emotion can be useful response for coping with negative experience (Tugade and Fredrickson, 2007) which again in turn improves ones wellbeing (Porr et al 2010). Positive emotion plays an important role in effective coping for resilient people (Tugade and Fredrickson, 2007). As such, to the extent those positive emotions are useful in counteracting negative emotional experiences and broadening thoughts and actions (Fredrickson,

1998, 2001). It was Luthans and Youssef (2007) stated that employee's wellbeing is quite important when employees coping with distress.

H₀2: There will be no significant relationship between Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) and workplace ostracism (WOS).

5.2.3.3 Measurement Model (HWB ←→WOS)

First phase includes the measurement model of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS). The measurement model was built-in to examine the convergent and discriminant validity. The model was also fitted to confirm the strength of dimension so that inter constructs estimates are not confounded.

To examine the robustness of dimensions between the statements and other associated constructs measurement models were built. It is also recommended that in the model, items that exhibit poor reliability or cross loads can be dropped so as to re-estimate the model (Hair et al. 2011 and Farooq, 2016). By doing this strength of measurement is ensured. The below represented measurement model examines the relationships among measures of different construct like Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS). The two headed arrow in the model represents the covariance between the variables.

Fig. 5.13: Measurement Model of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS)

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Table 5.26: Model Fit Indices of Measurement-Model for Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS)

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ^2	df	p-value	χ^2/df
I	0.048	0.917	0.878	0.935	0.08	286.4	53	0.000	5.4

Table 5.26 represents the model fit indices of Measurement Model of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS) which supports a good model fit. The values of RMR, GFI, CFI, RMSEA and Normed Chi-square were significant enough to reveal a good fit.

As suggested by Fornell and Larker (1981) the validity of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS) constructs was tested using Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Construct Reliability (CR), and Discriminant validity. The AVE for the Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) construct was found to be 0.69, which is above the threshold level, ensuring the convergent validity of the Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) construct. The AVE of Workplace Ostracism (WOS) construct was found to be 0.48, which is very much close to the threshold level. The composite reliability (CR) of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) construct was found to be 0.90 which is above the threshold level. The composite reliability (CR) of Workplace Ostracism (WOS) construct was found to be 0.88. Thus, the results ensure the reliability and validity of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS) constructs. The discriminant validity was calculated by comparing AVE of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS) with the inter-construct correlation estimates. The AVE was higher than inter-construct correlation estimates, which ensured the discriminant validity of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS).

5.2.3.4 Structural Model (HWB➔WOS)

The second hypothesis: *"There will be no significant relationship between Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS)"* was studied using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). The shift from Measurement Model to

Structural Model is basically the implementation of structural theory in term of relationships among constructs.

A two headed arrow indicates non-causal relationships between variables in Measurement Model whereas in Structural Model a single headed arrow indicates a dependence relationship. The structural model is based on structural theory which postulates the relationship between constructs as well as the nature of relationships they share (Hair et al., 2010).

The Table (5.27) represents the model fit indices for Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) which advocated good model-fit. While moving from measurement model to structural model there was no adjustment observed in the model-fit-indices, which demonstrates that basic model did not decrease the model-fit because of its predetermined relationship. The standardized estimates for path Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) →Workplace Ostracism (WOS) was -0.49 significant at 1% level (Figure5.14).
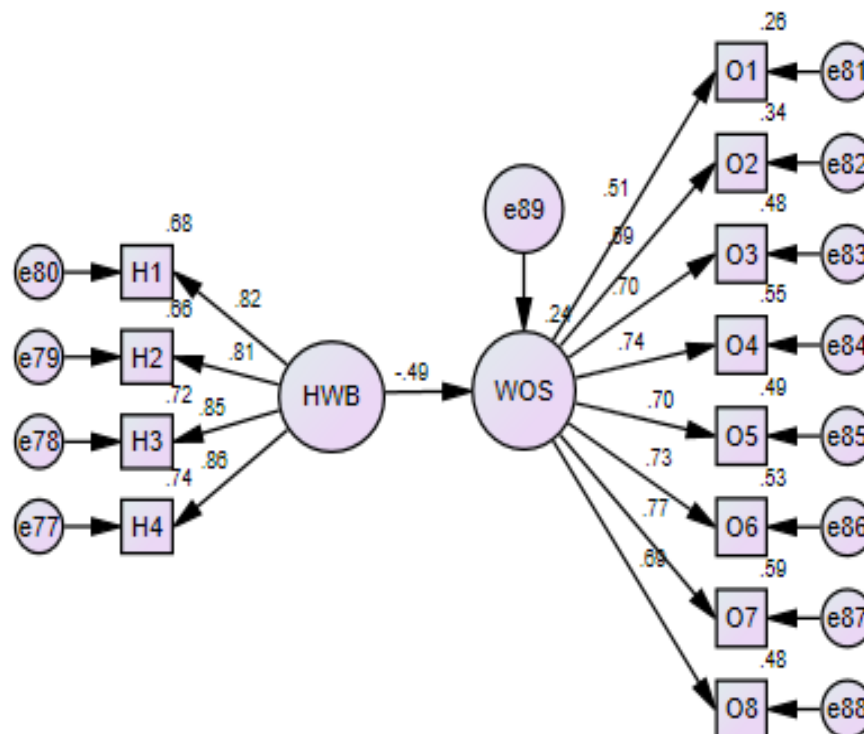
Fig. 5.14: Validated Structural Model of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS)

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Table 5.27: Model Fit Indices of Structural Model for Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS)

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ^2	df	p-value	χ^2/df
I	0.048	0.917	0.878	0.935	0.08	286.4	53	0.000	5.4

From the above discussions it can be established that Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) negatively affects Workplace Ostracism (WOS) which means higher the positive emotions lower the ostracism and lower the positive emotion higher the ostracism. Wu et al (2011) revealed that employees with lower wellbeing are at higher risk of being ostracized. Lower hedonic wellbeing means increased negative affect (unpleasant emotions) has been reported to have positive links with workplace ostracism (Zang and Shi, 2017). Thau et al (2007) states that negative affect is ones unpleasant mood which accompany workplace ostracism behaviors such as rudeness, argumentativeness etc.

H_03: There will be no significant relationship between Coping Strategies (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS)

5.2.3.5 Measurement Model (COPE ←→WOS)

First phase includes the measurement model of Coping Strategy (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS). The measurement model was built-in to examine the convergent and discriminant validity. The model was also fitted to confirm the strength of dimension so that inter constructs estimates are not confounded.

To examine the robustness of dimensions between the statements and other associated constructs measurement models were built. It is also recommended that in the model, items that exhibit poor reliability or cross loads can be dropped so as to re-estimate the model (Hair et al. 2011 and Farooq, 2016). By doing this strength of measurement is ensured. The below represented measurement model examines the relationships among measures of different construct like Coping Strategy (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS). The two headed arrow in the model represents the covariance between the variables.

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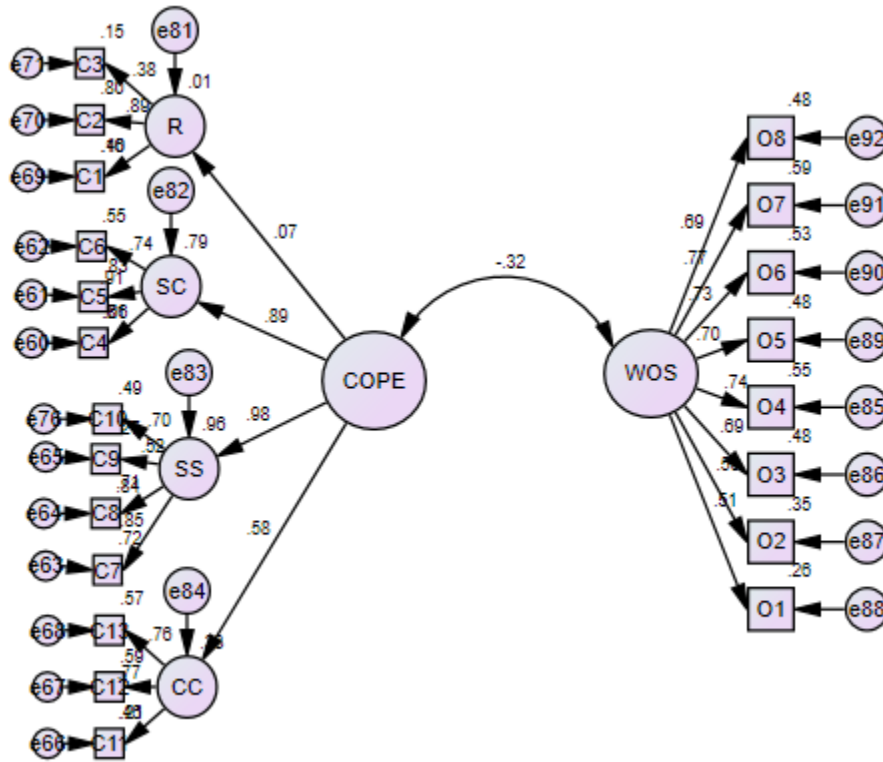
Fig. 5.15: Measurement Model of Coping Strategy (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS)

Table 5.28: Model Fit Indices of Measurement-Model for Coping Strategy (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS)

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ2	df	p-value	χ2/df
I	0.071	0.89	0.87	0.90	0.067	671.5	184	.000	3.650

Table 5.28 represents the model fit indices of Measurement Model of Coping Strategy (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS) which supports a good model fit. The values of RMR, GFI, CFI, RMSEA and Normed Chi-square were significant enough to reveal a good fit.

As suggested by Fornell and Larker (1981) the validity of Coping Strategy (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS) constructs was tested using Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Construct Reliability (CR), and Discriminant validity. The AVE for the Coping Strategy (COPE) construct was found to be 0.52, which is

above the threshold level, ensuring the convergent validity of the Coping Strategy (COPE) construct. The AVE of Workplace ostracism (WOS) construct was found to be 0.46, which is above the threshold level. The composite reliability (CR) of Coping Strategy (COPE) construct was found to be 0.93 which is above the threshold level. The composite reliability (CR) of Workplace ostracism (WOS) construct was found to be0.87. Thus, the results ensure the reliability and validity of Coping Strategy (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS) constructs. The discriminant validity was calculated by comparing AVE of Coping Strategy (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS) with the inter-construct correlation estimates. The AVE was higher than inter-construct correlation estimates, which ensured the discriminant validity of Coping Strategy (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS) constructs.

5.2.3.6 Structural Model (COPE➔WOS)

The hypothesis: *"There will be no significant relationship between Coping Strategy (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS)"* was studied using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). The shift from Measurement Model to Structural Model is basically the implementation of structural theory in term of relationships among constructs.

A two headed arrow indicates non-causal relationships between variables in Measurement Model whereas in Structural Model a single headed arrow indicates a dependence relationship. The structural model is based on structural theory which postulates the relationship between constructs as well as the nature of relationships they share (Hair et al., 2010).

The Table (5.29) represents the model fit indices for Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) which advocated good model-fit. While moving from measurement model to structural model there was no adjustment observed in the model-fit-indices, which demonstrates that basic model did not decrease the model-fit because of its predetermined relationship. The standardized estimates for path Coping Strategy (COPE) →Workplace Ostracism (WOS) was -0.32 significant at 1% level (Figure5.16).

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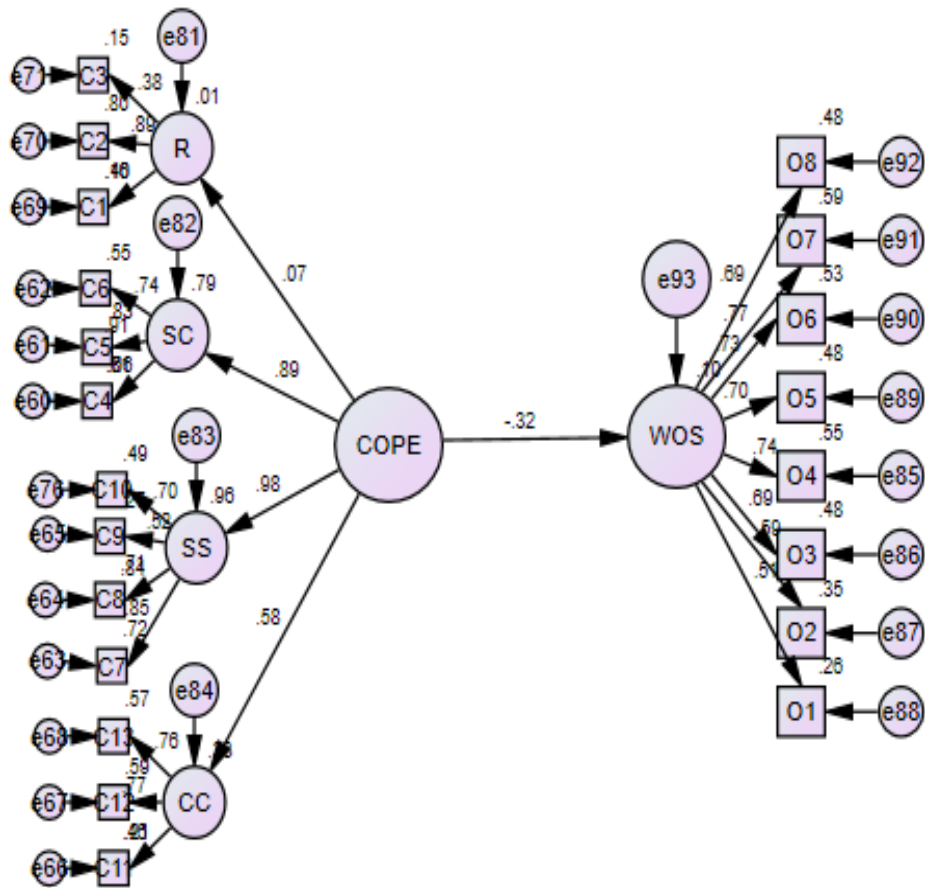
Fig. 5.16: Validated Structural Model of Coping Strategy (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS)

Table 5.29: Model Fit Indices of Structural Model for Coping Strategy (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS)

CFA Default Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	χ^2	df	p-value	χ^2/df
I	0.071	0.89	0.87	0.90	0.067	671.5	184	.000	3.650

From the above discussions it can be established that Coping Strategy (COPE) negatively affects Workplace Ostracism (WOS). It was Wu et al. (2012) who stated that coping with ostracism is also critical because effective coping strategies may mitigate the relationships between ostracism and its negative outcomes (Williams, 2007). A common behavioral strategy for coping with ostracism is that of ingratiation (Williams and Zadro, 2005).

5.2.4 Objective-4: To study the role of hedonic wellbeing, workplace ostracism and coping strategies on the relationship between stereotype threat and job performance.

To achieve the above objective following research questions were framed and tested which are as follow:

H_01 : Is the causal relationship between stereotype threat and job performance mediated by Hedonic Wellbeing?

H_02 : Is the causal relationship between stereotype threat and job performance mediated by Workplace Ostracism?

H_03 : Is the causal relationship between stereotype threat and job performance mediated by Coping Strategies (COPE)?

The present section discusses the mediating effect of Hedonic wellbeing (HWB), Coping Strategy (CP) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS). The first section discusses the mediating role Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB), the next section presents the mediating role of coping strategy (CP) and the last section describes the mediating role of workplace-ostracism (WOS).

A prominent research aims to understand the processes that underlie empirical phenomena, because to gain real impact, it is necessary to describe the relationship between independent variable and dependent variable as well as their relation in terms of mediating processes. Therefore mediation analysis is an important research tool (Baron and Kenny, 1986; Judd and Kenny,1981; Mackinnon et al., 2002).

According to Lockwood and Mackinnon (1998) when a third factor is believed to be in middle of the road in the connection between two factors, it is known as 'Mediator'. The term mediator is assigned to an intermediate variable which falls between an independent (IDV) and dependent variable (DV). It explains how and why independent variable influences an outcome variable (DV) and this effect is known as mediation effect. Preacher et al. (2007) indicated "many new mediation theories are proposed and tried and has been tested in previous researches. In light of appeal for suitable techniques, an extensive writing currently exists that

highlights detailed methodology through which mediations can be measured for models of ever increasing complexity.

To study mediation, some of the popular methods are Sobels test (1982), Baron and Kenny (1986) and Bootstrapping. Mediation through Baron and Kenny (1986) suggests certain assumptions to be fulfilled like independent variable (IDV) should be related to dependent variable (DV). The second assumption is mediator should be related to dependent variable (DV). Last and the most important assumption is that the relation between independent and dependent variable should significantly reduce when a mediator is added in between. Similarly 'Sobels-Test' also has an assumption of a normal sampling distribution with non-zero skewness and kurtosis (Hayes, 2009). Researchers have now shifted their approach from traditional methods of mediation to modern method which includes bootstrapping. Bootstrapping favors those studies in which sample are not normally distributed for specific characteristics. It allows the researcher to study mediation effect even without the assumption of normality and large sampling (Hayes, 2009).

To test the mediation in the present study a systematic procedure suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) was considered. Therefore, first the independent variable (Stereotype Threat) must be related to the mediator (Hedonic wellbeing, Coping Strategy and Workplace Ostracism). Secondly mediators should be related to dependent variable (Job Performance). Lastly, relationship between stereotype threat and job performance should significantly reduce when mediators i.e, Hedonic wellbeing, Coping strategy and workplace ostracism is added to their relationship.

First direct effect has been checked between stereotype threat and job performance. After that Hedonic wellbeing, coping strategy and workplace ostracism which was taken as mediators in the present study were introduced to test the path significance between stereotype threat and job performance. The motive was to assess whether the earlier significant relationship of stereotype threat and job performance is or not reduced in-significant when mediators (Hedonic wellbeing, Coping Strategy and Workplace ostracism) are added one-by-one into the path.

In the subsequent section first mediating role of hedonic wellbeing (HWB) will be described, secondly mediating role of coping strategy will be presented and

then mediating role of workplace ostracism has been discussed. To statistically assess the mediating effect of hedonic wellbeing, coping strategy and workplace ostracism on the relationship between stereotype threat and job performance bootstrapping method has been considered (Preacher and Hayes. 2007).

The mediation approach suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986)

In a nutshell, mediation analysis (MA) is a statistical procedure to test whether the effect of an independent variable A on a dependent variable B (i.e., A→B) is at least partly explained by a chain of effects of the independent variable on an intervening mediator variable M and of the intervening variable on the dependent variable (i.e., A→M→B).

R1: Is the causal relationship between stereotype threat and job performance mediated by Hedonic Wellbeing?

5.2.4.1 Mediating Role of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB)

Mediating role of Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) on the relationship between stereotype threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP) is shown in Figure (5.17). The procedure suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) was taken into consideration to assess the mediating effect of Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) on Stereotype Threat and Job Performance relationship.

First direct effect between Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP) was studied controlling for Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) (β= -0.35 P<0.001). The direct effect between stereotype threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP) was significant which fulfilled the first condition of mediation analysis. Again, direct effect was calculated between stereotype threat (ST) and job performance (JP) (β= -.19 p<0.001) after adding hedonic wellbeing (HWB) as mediator, as shown in Table 5.30 below. However direct effect between stereotype threat (ST) and job performance (JP) was reduced and was also significant. The indirect effect from stereotype threat (ST) to hedonic wellbeing (HWB) and hedonic wellbeing (HWB) to job performance (JP) was significant (β= -.142 P<0.001). Therefore it can be concluded that hedonic wellbeing (HWB) partially mediates the relationship between stereotype threat (ST) and job performance (JP).

Table 5.30: Results of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) as a Mediator

Hypothesis	Direct without Mediator	Direct with Mediator	Indirect Effect	Mediation type Observed
ST→HWB→JP	-0.353*	-0.201*	-0.152*	Partial Mediation

*Sig. at 0.05 level
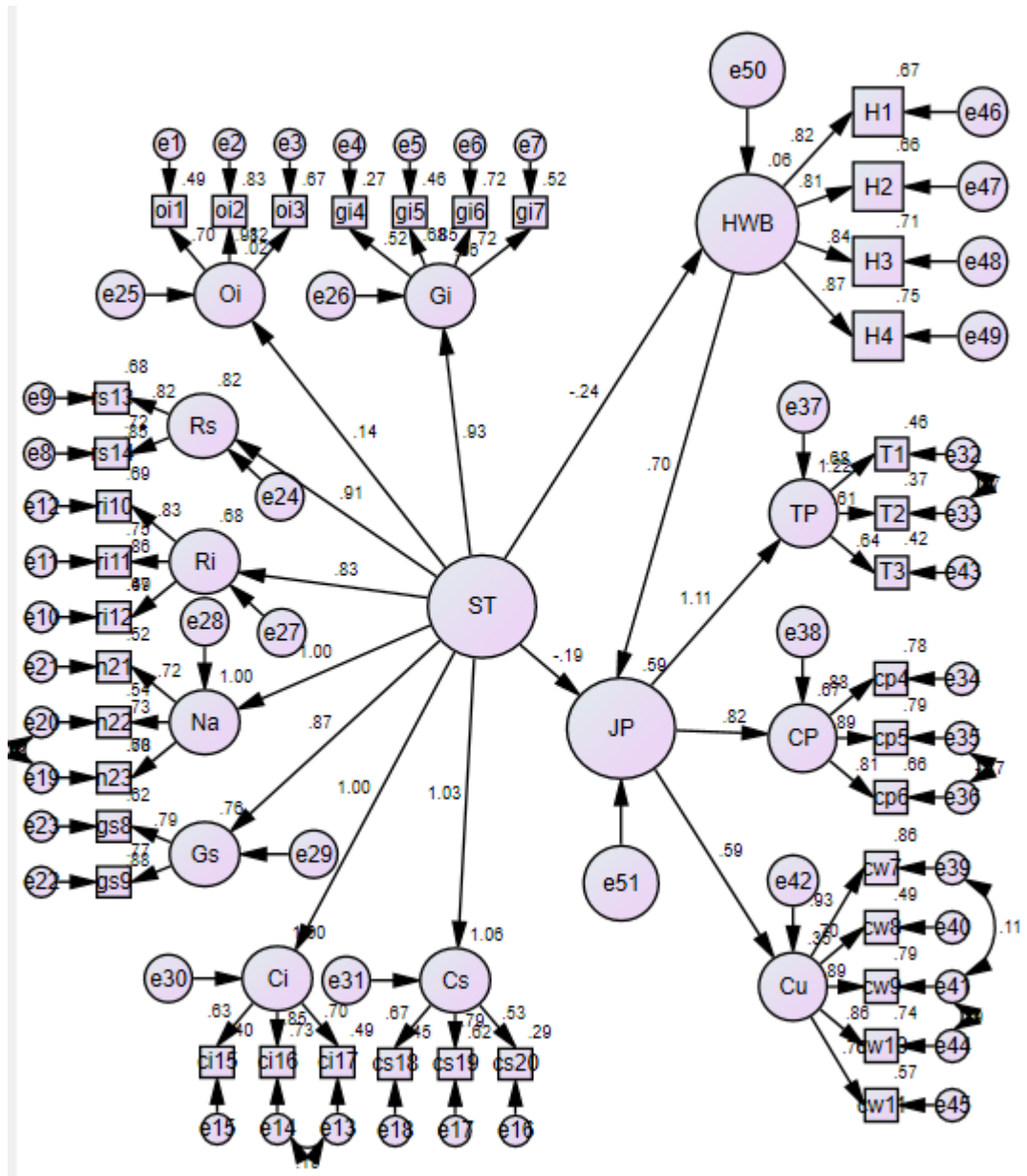
Fig. 5.17: Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB) as a Mediator

Therefore, hypothesis R1 of objective 4 is supported which mean that hedonic wellbeing partially mediates the relationship between stereotype threat and job performance. It has also been explored by the previous researchers that positive and negative emotions were entered as mediators of stereotype threat (ST) and its detrimental behavioural consequences (Schmander, 2008; Bedyńska and Zreda 2015) and decrease in an individual's job performance is one of the detrimental behavioural consequence of stereotype threat (Steele and Aronson, 1995).

R2: Is the causal relationship between stereotype threat and job performance mediated by Coping Strategies (COPE)?

5.2.4.2 Mediating Role of Coping Strategy (COPE)

The second research question deals with the role of coping strategy (COPE) as a mediator between the relationship shared by stereotype threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP), whch was tested using mediation analysis.

The mediating effect of coping strategy (COPE) on the relationship between stereotype threat (ST) and job performance (JP) was tested based on the procedure suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), as shown in figure 5.18. First direct effect between Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP) was studied controlling for Coping Strategy (COPE) (β= -.35, P<0.001). The direct effect between Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP) was significant which fulfilled the first condition of mediation analysis. Again, direct effect was calculated between stereotype threat (ST) and job performance (JP) (β=-.11 p<0.001) after adding Coping Strategy (COPE) as mediator, as shown in Table 5.31. However direct effect between Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP) was reduced and was also significant. The indirect effect from Stereotype Threat (ST) to Coping Strategy (COPE) and Coping Strategy (COPE) to job performance (JP) was also significant (β=-.216 P<0.001). Therefore it can be concluded that Coping Strategy (COPE) partially mediates the relationship between Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP).

Table 5.31: Results of Coping Strategy (COPE) as a Mediator

Hypothesis	Direct without Mediator	Direct with Mediator	Indirect Effect	Mediation type Observed
ST→COP→JP	-0.353*	-0.058*	-0.217*	Partial Mediation

*Sig. at 0.05 level
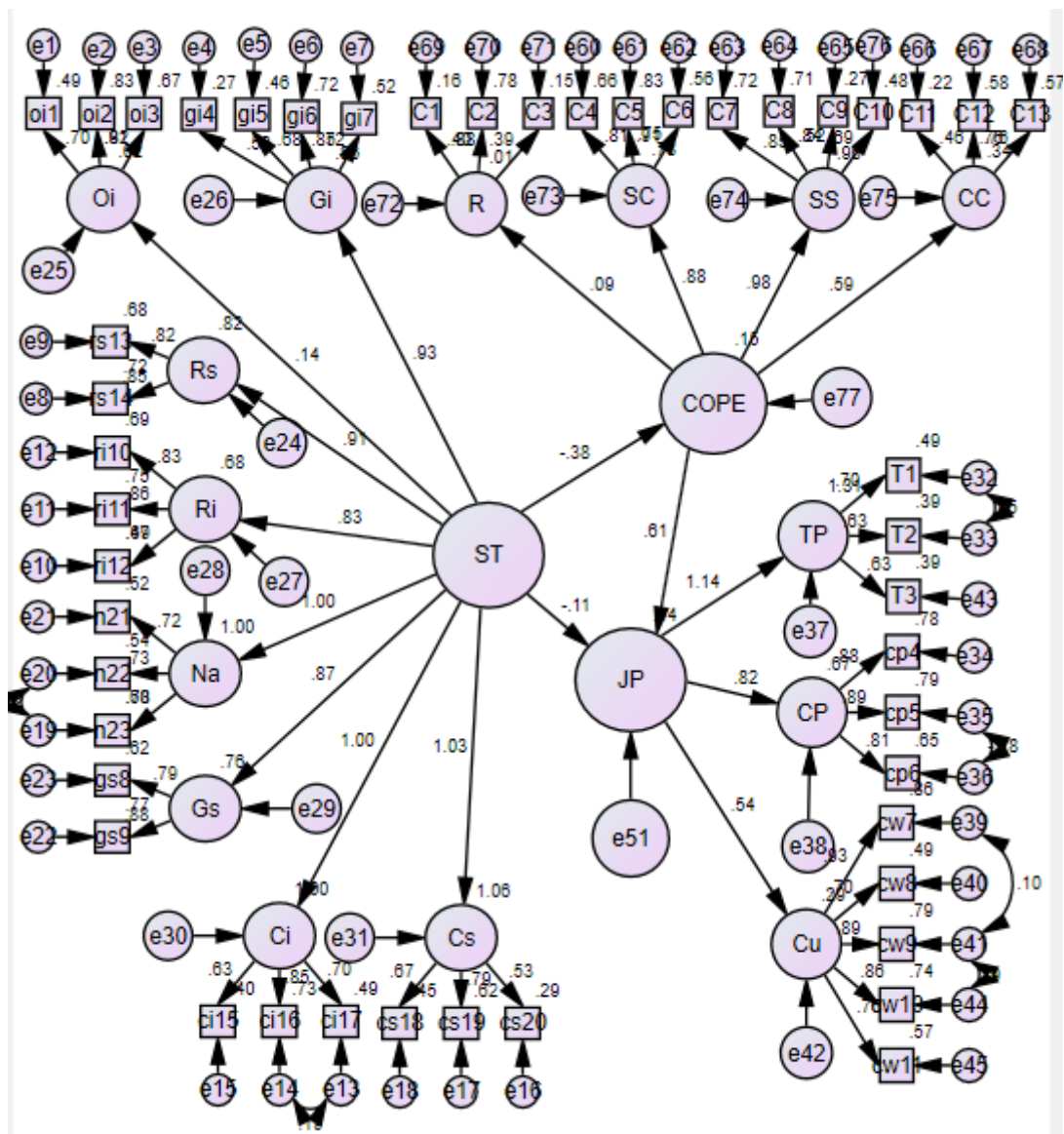
Fig. 5.18: Coping Strategy (COPE) as Mediator

The research hypothesis R2 of objective 4 is supported, which means that coping strategy occurred as a partial mediator between the relationship shared by independent variable (Stereotype threat) and dependent variable (Job Performance).

It is found that the experience of stereotype threat probably induces coping strategy in an individual (Hippel et al.2005). Major et al (2000) stated that to cope with the experience of stereotype threat different coping strategies can be adopted by the target of stereotype threat. Individuals high in coping strategy does not show deficit in performance after the experience of stereotype threat (Kuiper et al., 1993; Ford et al., 2004). Successful implementation of coping strategy enhance the job performances (Tang and Chiu, 2003; Srivastava and Tang, 2015). However, some previous researches also claim that coping strategy mediates the relationship between stereotype threat and job performance (Ford et al. 2004). It was Schmader et al. 2008 who also supported the same by claiming that a psychological process underlies the experience of stereotype threat and some situational cues and personal characteristics combine all together to trigger that experience.

Other researches also suggest that individual's engage in coping strategy (COPE) to offset the performance implication of negative stereotype (Lazarus, 1984, Bedynska and Dororta, 2015).

R3: Is the causal relationship between stereotype threat and job performance mediated by Workplace Ostracism?

5.2.4.3 Mediating Role of Workplace Ostracism (WOS)

The third part of the research question is about the role of "Workplace Ostracism" (WOS) as a mediator on the relationship between stereotype threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP) which was tested using mediation analysis.

The mediating effect of Workplace Ostracism (WOS) on the relationship between Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP) was tested based on the procedure suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), as shown in figure 5.19 below. First direct effect between Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP) was studied controlling for Workplace Ostracism (WOS) (β= -.35 P<0.001). The direct effect between Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP) was significant which fulfilled the first condition of mediation analysis. Again, direct effect was calculated between stereotype threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP) (β= -.25, p<0.001) after adding Workplace Ostracism (WOS) as mediator, as shown in Table

5.32 below. However direct effect between Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP) was reduced and was also significant. The indirect effect from Stereotype Threat (ST) to Workplace Ostracism (WOS) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS) to job performance (JP) was also significant (β= -.072 P<0.001). Therefore it can be concluded that Workplace Ostracism (WOS) partially mediates the relationship between Stereotype Threat (ST) and Job Performance (JP)

Table 5.32: Results of Workplace Ostracism (WOS) as a Mediator

Hypothesis	Direct without Mediator	Direct with Mediator	Indirect Effect	Mediation type Observed
ST→WOS→JP	-0.353*	-0.117*	-0.080*	Partial Mediation

*Sig. at 0.05 level
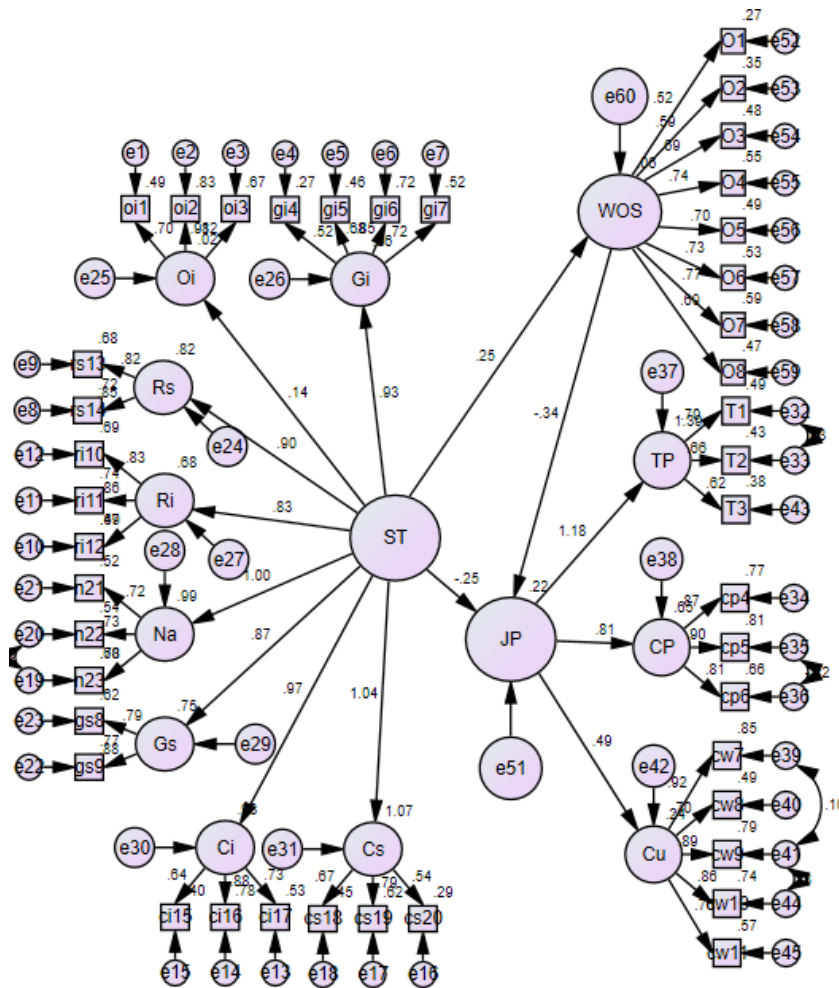
Fig. 5.19: Workplace Ostracism (WOS) as a Mediator

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The research hypothesis R3 of objective 4 is supported, which means that workplace ostracism occurred as a partial mediator between the relationship shared by independent variable (Stereotype threat) and dependent variable (Job Performance).

Stereotype threat (ST) is the result of negative stereotyping and negative stereotypes regularly causes negative reaction or response's (Singletary, 2009). Buckley et al. (2004) stated that a negative reaction from others affects an individual's quality of their interpersonal relationships. The above stated lines further can be interpreted as, when the target receive negative reaction feeling of stereotype threat is awaken to as response of this interpersonal relationships is affect and target might feel excluded from the rest (Ostracism). Ostracism at workplace refers to the extent to which an individual perceive that they are ignored or excluded by other employees in the workplace (Ferris *et al.*, 2008). A strong negative relationship between workplace ostracism and job performance has been observed (Haq, 2014).

CHAPTER – VI

FINDINGS, CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The present chapter deals with the findings, conclusion, implication and suggestions. The section 6.1 deals with the key findings of the study based on the quantitative analysis of the data, section 6.2 discusses the conclusion based on the research findings, section 6.3 deliberates the implication of the study for researchers and practitioners and section 6.4 highlights the suggestions for the researches to be held in future.

6.1   FINDING AND DISCUSSION

1)   The present study revealed task performance, contextual performance and counterproductive work behavior as an integral dimensions of job performance. Thus supporting the literatures which favors that job performance is a multi-dimensional construct. Therefore study supports that among teachers also job performance is considered as a multidimensional construct and is composed of task performance, contextual performance and counterproductive work behavior.

2)   The present study also established the dimensions for the stereotype threat construct consisting of occupational identification, gender identification, gender stigma consciousness, religion identification, religion stigma consciousness, caste category identification, caste category stigma consciousness and negative affect as its integral dimensions. In teaching job profiles stereotype threat has a role to play and different dimensions of stereotype threat are found similar as in other profession like banking, nursing etc.

3)   The study also revealed that gender, caste category and religion are the triggering factors for the occurrence of phenomenon of stereotype threat among teachers in government schools. The study describes stereotype threat (ST) as an unpleasant psychological experience of confronting negative

stereotypes about one's race, gender, gender, sexual orientation or social status.

4) The findings of the present study suggest that caste category, religion, gender and tokenism are the factors which trigger the phenomenon of stereotype threat (ST). According to Schamder et. al. (2008) social identity of individuals (ethnicity, gender, religious affiliation etc.) enhances the experience of stereotype threat.

5) The study revealed tokenism as a strong predictor of stereotype threat. Tokenism has been found to contribute in the experience of stereotype threat. It is a practice to recruit persons belonging to minority groups. Token teachers often feel their performance will be scrutinized and are polarized due to which interaction is discouraged which promote negative stereotyping (Stroshine et.al 2011). The process in turn leads an individual towards the experience of stereotype threat (Nieman, 1999). Tokenism might be considered as one of the triggers of stereotype threat in organizations. The finding is in line with Sekaquaptewa and Thompson (2003). Thereby tokenism is considered as one of the situational factors which trigger's threat and decrease ones performance.

6) The analysis of the study revealed that stereotype threat is negatively related to job performance of teachers of government schools. Previous researchers also stated negative relationship of stereotype threat with performance in various jobs (Davies et.al., 2002; Herrera et.al.2005; Roberson and Kulik, 2007; Schmader et.al.,2008; Block et.al,2011) Therefore, the presents study concludes that prevalence of negative stereotypes in schools supports the phenomenon of stereotype threat (ST) with poor performance of teachers when compared with schools of good or conducive environment.

7) The analysis was further conducted individually on dimensions of job performance which revealed that stereotype threat is also negatively related to task performance and contextual performance and counterproductive work behavior, which means that their teaching task of teachers and such activities

which contribute to the wellbeing of the school gets negatively affected by the experience of stereotype threat.

8) The study found that Stereotype threat causes decrements in teacher's job performance and claims that the link is mediated by some psychological and physiological mechanisms. Therefore the study explored hedonic wellbeing (HBW), Coping Strategy (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS) as the psychological variables which mediate stereotype threat (ST) and Job Performance link.

9) The study explored positive relationship between hedonic wellbeing and coping strategy among teachers which means that teachers who use coping strategy experience more positive emotions and vice versa.

10) The analysis further revealed that there is a negative relationship between hedonic wellbeing and workplace ostracism which means that with decrease in hedonic wellbeing of teacher the experience of ostracism is more occurred and vice versa.

11) The analysis also revealed negative relationship between Coping Strategy and Workplace ostracism in teaching fraternity which means that one who lack in effective use of coping strategy might feel more ostracized in a diverse group, because it has been observed that use of coping strategy moderate the relationship between workplace ostracism and its negative outcomes.

12) The mediating effect of constructs like hedonic wellbeing, coping strategy and workplace ostracism on stereotype threat and job performance was studied. The results suggested that hedonic wellbeing, coping strategy and workplace ostracism mediate the relationship between stereotype threat and job performance. The findings of the present study are in line with the findings of Schmader et.al, (2008) Schmader and Johns (2003) Spencer *et al.,* (1999).

13) Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) mediates the relationship between stereotype threat (ST) and job performance (JP). The results of the present study suggest

that there exist a negative relationship between Stereotype threat (ST) and Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) and a positive relationship between Hedonic wellbeing and Job Performance (JP). Previous studies on stereotype threat proves that Stereotype Threat (ST) deteriorates the performance of individuals by inducing negative emotions or thoughts about being stigmatized (Aronson, 2013).Thereby, concluding that hedonic wellbeing might enhance job performance (JP) of teachers if targets can cope efficiently with the unpleasant feelings emerged due to stereotype threat. Stereotype threat impairs the performance of teachers by arousing negative emotions or negative thoughts of being judged as inferior (Schmader et al., 2008; Aronson et.al., 2013).

14) Coping strategy (COPE) mediates the relationship between stereotype threat (ST) and job performance (JP). The link between stereotype threat and job performance suggest that employees better in coping strategy are less effected by the negative effects of stereotype threat and are more productive in terms of their performance (Schmader et.al.2008). Another mediator considered in the model was Coping Strategy (COPE). The results of the present study suggest that there exist a negative relationship between Stereotype threat (ST) and Coping Strategy (COPE) and a positive relation shared between Coping Strategy (COPE) and Job Performance (JP). Individuals who experience the unpleasant feeling of being negatively stereotyped needs effective coping strategies so as to shield themselves from threatening environment of stereotype threat (Major and Schmader, 1998; Schmader et.al, 2008; Aronson et.al.2013). Previous studies recommend that use of coping strategy contributes in better performance of employees (Tummers, 2017; Li et.al.2017). Thereby, concluding that Coping Strategy (COPE) can enhance job performance (JP) of Individuals if individuals use effective defense strategy against stereotype threat.

15) Workplace ostracism (WOS) mediates the relation shared between stereotype threat (ST) and job performance (JP). Lastly Workplace ostracism (WOS) was also considered as one of the mediator in the proposed model. The results of the present study suggest that t a positive relation is shared between

Stereotype threat (ST) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS) and a negative relationship between Workplace Ostracism (WOS) and Job Performance (JP). Due to stereotype threat high stress environment is created which further support ostracism at workplace (Robinson et.al.,2012) and ostracism at work also deteriorates an employee's job performance (Ferris et.al,2008). Thereby, concluding that Workplace ostracism (WOS) can enhance job performance (JP) of employees at workplace if effective strategies or technique is approached.

6.2   CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY

Stereotype threat (ST) is a phenomenon which received a lot of consideration from past psychologist. The effect of stereotype threat on performance of individuals has received a lot of attention in previous researches. However the previous researches lacked such studies which holistically investigate the effect of stereotype threat on all the three dimensions of job performance individually from the educational organizational perspective. The present study is the first to empirically validate different Stereotype threat dimensions viz. Occupational Identification (Oi), Gender Identification (Gi), Gender Stigma Consciousness (Gs), Religion Identification (Ri), Religion Stigma Consciousness (Rs), Caste category Identification (Ci), Caste category Stigma Consciousness (Cs) and Negative Affect (Na). It also measured and explored the indirect effects of Hedonic Wellbeing (HWB), Coping Strategy (COPE) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS). The study presented job performance as a higher order construct with task performance (TP), Contextual Performance (CP) and Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB) as its dimensions.

Hedonic wellbeing (HWB) construct was operationalized in Indian context. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was applied to re-establish the scale. Similarly, Coping Strategy (COPE), Tokenism (TOK) and workplace ostracism scale was also validated. Coping strategy scale resulted into four factors including Recreation (R), Self-Care (SC), Social-Support (SS) and Cognitive Coping (Cc) thereby validating coping strategy scale developed by Osipow and Spokane (1998) in Indian Context. Tokenism scale was also validated resulted into two factors Visibility and

polarization thereby validating tokenism scale developed by Stroshine and Brandl (2011). The ostracism scale was also validated developed by Ferris et.al (2008) as a Uni-dimensional construct in Indian Context.

The awareness about the negative effect of stereotype threat on Job Performance enables the academicians to develop the strategies to overcome its negative effects. The academic setting of educational institutions in India is quite diverse which include individuals from various backgrounds (Caste category, Religion and Gender). The educational institution should develop strong organizational culture which respects the diversity so as to avoid the negative effects of stereotype threat on individual's performances. Coping strategy can be another best technique to manage stress (Wu and Chan, 2013) which emerged due to the occurrence of stereotype threat and ostracism at workplace. The experience of increased pleasure and decreased pain measures hedonic wellbeing of individual thereby indicating emotional stability of an employee. Emotional Stability of a person also plays a major role in handling the phenomenon of stereotype threat.

It can be concluded that exploring the factors which triggers the experience of stereotype threat in organization is not enough rather effective strategies should be explored to tackle and manage the experience of stereotype threat and its aftereffects. The top managements, policy makers and educational institutions head should emphasize on awareness and use of effective coping strategy (COPE) and Hedonic wellbeing (HWB). The study provides awareness about the triggers of stereotype threat so as to better understand its negative effects on the performance of teachers in educational institutions. More precisely, the mediators like hedonic wellbeing, coping strategy and workplace ostracism plays a vital role in Stereotype threat and Job Performance link.

It is a great challenge to tackle or manage the experience of stereotype threat in organization. To manage the experience of stereotype threat in organization first step is to capture the phenomenon of stereotype threat. Therefor the present study empirically validated Stereotype threat framework which can help the policy makers and educational heads in exploring the negative effects of stereotype threat on the performances of the educators. Targeting the phenomenon of stereotype threat in

educational institutions is very important because the eradication of its negative effects will help the institutions to achieve sustainable development of our education system in this competitive era. Therefore the higher educational bodies and policy makers should encourage and motivate teaching staffs to use various techniques to overcome the experience of stereotype threat in educational institutions. The educational heads should boost up the idea of respecting diversity in their organizations. Teaching staffs should be encouraged to maintain good organizational climate by respecting each other's irrespective of their caste, gender or religion. The employees should be rewarded for maintaining good organizational culture in the institution. It is incumbent upon educational institutions to make high level of awareness about negative effects of stereotype threat so as to enhance organization performance. Organizations should not hesitate in encouraging strategies to overcome stereotype threat. Some of the proven strategies like reducing prejudice (Logel et al.,2009), removing physical cues which may seem like school setting is defined by a particular group (Cheryan et al.,2009), Should avoid reporting negative stereotypes based on one's group identity (Danaher and Crandall, 2008), Should practice multicultural ideology by openly valuing diversity (Purdie-Vaughns et al.2008)

6.3   IMPLICATION OF THE STUDY

There are numerous implications of the present study for policy makers, academicians and organization heads. The present study does not only presents useful and productive insights about the relationship between stereotype threat and job performance but also delivers very much required empirical as well as theoretical exactitude in the stereotype threat literature by developing an empirical framework in teaching context.

The present study contributes to the existing literature on stereotype threat and job performance relationship by operationalizing the constructs and validating scales for stereotype threat (ST), Job performance (JP), Coping Strategy (COPE), Tokenism (TOK) and Hedonic wellbeing (HWB). The results of the present study revealed that the developed scales exhibits admirable validity and reliability which can be used by researchers for further investigation into the stereotype threat and

performance link. The present study fills the void gap by providing validated measures for assessing the phenomenon of stereotype threat and its effect on performance. The study also explored mediators which effect the stereotype threat and performance link.

The study developed and validated supervisory rating scale to measure job performance of teachers. The job performance (JP) measure consisted of three dimensions viz. task performance (TP), Contextual Performance (CP) and Counterproductive work behavior (CWB). In situation where policy makers, institutional heads and researchers find tough in accessing actual job performance of teachers because of the reluctance of the teachers to share their opinion or data about their performance in schools, they may count on this scale to measure their performance.

The study also validated the Hedonic wellbeing, Coping Strategy, workplace Ostracism and Tokenism scales in Indian context. The present study contributes by checking dimensionality of Tokenism in Indian Context. The results suggest that tokenism is two dimensional construct viz visibility and Polarization. The dimensions of Coping Strategy have been confirmed in Indian context in the present study. Therefore policy makers, academicians and researchers have a lot to take from the present investigation. The scales utilized in the present investigation are accessible for academician and other researchers to gauge the effects of stereotype threat on performance of teachers in different types of educational institutions. The study implies that educational heads should provide conducive environment to the teachers of their organizations. They can provide necessary help and encouragement to the teachers who experience stereotype threat. A stimulating institutional environment should be generated where discussion and openness related to the negative stereotypes about social identity should be encouraged so as to remove misconceptions.

The present study also shed some light on the mechanism of stereotype threat influence on job performance. Specifically the results revealed that Hedonic wellbeing, Workplace ostracism and Coping Strategy partially mediate the relationship between stereotype threat and performance among teachers, suggesting

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vital role which these variables play in the educational setting. The findings in the present study provide an insight to the organizational heads so as to attempt some techniques to attenuate the deleterious effect of stereotype threat on job performances of teachers.

6.4 LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Despite the overall contribution of the present study still like any other research this study too have some limitations. Therefore, the limitation of the present study is discussed with some suggestions for future research.

The present study focuses only on the relationship between stereotype threat (ST) and Job performance (JP) and on psychological mechanism which mediate the relationship. The future research may also be conducted to explore the moderating effect of the variables like Hedonic wellbeing (HWB), Coping Strategy (COPE), Tokenism (TOK) and Workplace Ostracism (WOS). Future researchers can also include other psychological as well as physiological variables to study their mediating and moderating effect on stereotype threat and job performance link.

The present study considered only government schools at state level and ignored private schools considering descriptive research design. Therefore, findings of the present investigation may further be re-validated by using other research designs like experimental research design. A comparative study can also be conducted between teachers of private and public schools of India. Similarly a comparison of university teachers and school teachers may also be conducted to gain additional insight about stereotype threat and job performance link in academic settings. Stereotype threat and job performance model can be re-validated or re-established by considering different samples from different states of India, since the outcomes of the present study might be subjected to social contrasts between northern part of India and different areas; which will give an increasingly powerful testing of the model.

There is a great need to examine how to lessen the negative effects caused by the phenomenon of stereotype threat because present study examined only the issue and its underlying mechanism.

The future researchers can also check cross-cultural validity of Stereotype Threat (ST) by comparing its dimensionality in different context. The revalidation of the validated scales on Stereotype threat, Job performance, Hedonic wellbeing, Coping Strategy and Workplace Ostracism can be done in different context. Future research might also include interviews of the victims of stereotype threat and its effect on their lives, it can also include interviews of head of the organization to know their opinion about the prevalence of stereotype threat so as to gain new insight about the phenomenon of stereotype threat (ST) in educational institutions.

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QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PRINCIPAL

Respected Sir/Madam

I am Almaas Sultana pursuing Ph.D (Education) from Lovely Professional University. I am conducting a research on "Hedonic wellbeing, Coping Strategies and Workplace Ostracism among teacher: Influence on Job performance and Stereotype Threat" as my Ph.D work.

In connection with this, I am in the phase of data collection from government school teachers regarding their hedonic wellbeing, coping strategies and experience of ostracism. Also I would like to know your opinion on the job performance of the teachers. I request you to please permit me to collect data from teachers of your school. I will be highly obliged to your good self if you will rate the performance of the respective teachers in the attached performance questionnaire.

Your detail will be kept confidential as this is purely for research purpose. I will be highly obliged for giving your valuable time and suggestions.

Yours Sincerely

Almaas Sultana
Research Scholar
Lovely Professional University
Phagwara, Punjab
Mob: 9056141533
Email: almaassultana85@gmail.com.

Details of the Supervisor (Principal)

Name: _____

Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female

Caste: ☐ SC ☐ ST ☐ OBC ☐ General

Religion: ☐ Hindu ☐ Muslim ☐ Christian ☐ Sikh

Experience: ☐ 0-5 Yrs. ☐ 6-10 Yrs.

☐ 11 to 20 Yrs. ☐ 21 to 25 Yrs.

☐ More than 25 Yrs.

Association with school: …………………………(Yrs.)

Type of School: ☐ Rural ☐ Urban

School Name: _____

Email: _____ **Contact. No:** _____

Details of Supervisee (Teacher)

Name: _____

Experience: _____

Association with school: _____

Please read the following statements and tick the option which most appropriately explains your teacher.

Sr. No	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
T1	Enough proficient in his/her teaching skills while delivering a lecture.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
T2	Uses effective teaching methodology for the facilitation of student's experience	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
T3	Communicates intelligibly with others during school hours.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
C1	Praises and congratulates colleagues when they are awarded honors	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
C2	Discusses and communicate with colleagues about teaching and classroom management.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
C3	Devote extra time for the overall development of students.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
CW1	Purposely waste schools materials/supplies.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
CW2	Comes to school late without permission	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
CW3	Tries to look busy while doing nothing	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
CW4	Blame other employees for his/her error at work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
CW5	Takes schools supplies and tools home without permission.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

Respected Sir/Maam,

I am Almaas Sultana pursuing Ph.D (Education) from Lovely Professional University. I am conducting a research on "Hedonic wellbeing, Coping Strategies and Workplace Ostracism among teacher: Influence on Job performance and Stereotype Threat" as my Ph.D work.

In connection with this, I am in the phase of data collection from government school teachers regarding experience of stereotype threat, hedonic wellbeing, coping strategies and experience of ostracism. I request you to please fill the attached questionnaire.

Your detail will be kept confidential as this is purely for research purpose. I will be highly obliged for giving your valuable time and suggestions.

Yours Sincerely

Almaas Sultana
Research Scholar
Lovely Professional University
Phagwara, Punjab
Mob: 9056141533
Email: almaassultana85@gmail.com.

Instructions:

Please read the following statements and respond by ticking on any one of the option against each statement to indicate how you generally feel. There is no right or wrong answer. Attempt it without consulting others. Your responses will be kept confidential and will be used only for research purpose. Please do not leave any statement unanswered.

Please fill in the following information:	
Name:	………………………………………………………………………
Age:	………………………………………………………………………
Gender:	Male / Female
Caste:	………………………………………………………………………
Religion:	………………………………………………………………………
Job-Title:	………………………………………………………………………
Experience:	………………………………………………………………………
School Name:	………………………………………………………………………
Location of School:	Rural/Urban

STEREOTYPE THREAT SCALE

Following statements are about your perception towards teaching in government schools. Tick the option which exactly describes your feeling.

Sr. No.		Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Oi1		When someone criticizes teaching profession in government schools, it feels like a personal insult.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Oi2		I am very (quite) much interested in what others think about teaching in government school.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Oi3		My occupation's success is my success.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Gi1		When opposite gender teachers criticizes job performance of teachers of my gender, it feels like a personal insult	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Gi2		I am very much (Quite) interested in what others think about taking teaching as a profession by people of my gender.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Gi3		When someone praises job performance of teachers of my gender, it feels like a personal compliment.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Gi4		If a story in the newspaper or on television criticized teachers of my gender, I would feel embarrassed.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Gs1		Most teachers of opposite gender have a lot more negative thoughts about the performance of other teachers of my gender than they actually express.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Gs2		Most of the teachers judge job performance on the basis of gender.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ri1		When someone criticizes job performance of a teacher of my religion, it feels like a personal insult	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Sr. No.	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Ri2	I am very much interested in what others think about taking teaching as a profession by people of my religion.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ri3	When someone praises job performance of teachers of my religion, it feels like a personal compliment.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Rs1	Most teachers of other religion have a lot more negative thoughts about the performance of teachers of my religion than they actually express.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Rs2	Most of the teachers judge job performance on the basis of religion.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ci1	When someone criticizes job performance of teacher of my caste, it feels like a personal insult	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ci2	I am very much (quite)interested in what others think about taking teaching as a profession by people of my caste.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ci3	When someone praises job performance of teachers of my caste, it feels like a personal compliment.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Cs1	Most teachers of other caste have a lot more negative thoughts about the performance of teachers of my caste than they actually express.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Cs2	Most of the teachers judge job performance on the basis of caste.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Cs3	Most of the teachers have problems viewing performance of our caste teachers as equal to theirs.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Na1	I experience feeling of dejection at school	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Na2	I feel like I am letting myself down in teaching profession.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Na4	I feel like giving up teaching profession.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

TOKENISM SCALE

Please fill the following statements about your experience or feeling during working hours in schools.

Sr. No	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
TOK1	Coworkers often commend me when I do good work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
TOK2	Supervisors often commend me when I do good work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
TOK3	My coworkers have ridiculed me when I have asked questions about how to do my job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
TOK4	My supervisors have ridiculed me when I have asked questions about how to do my job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
TOK5	My supervisors joke about gender to the point that it bothers me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
TOK6	My coworkers joke or make offensive remarks about my race or ethnic background	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
TOK7	My supervisor's joke or make offensive remarks about my race or ethnic background.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
TOK8	Co-workers tend to forget I'm here; for example, they do not invite me to things, they do not introduce me, or they leave my name off lists.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

COPING STRATEGY SCALE

Please read the following statements and tick the option which is most appropriate for you.

Sr. No.	Statements	Rarely	Occasionally	Often	Usually	Mostly
R3	On weekends I spend time doing the things I enjoy most	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
R8	When I'm relaxing, I frequently think about work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
R9	I spend enough time in recreational activities to satisfy my needs.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sc11	I am careful about my diet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sc12	I get regular physical checkups	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sc14	I exercise regularly	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ss22	I have help with tasks around the house	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ss25	There is at least one sympathetic person with whom I can discuss my work problems	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ss26	I feel I have at least one good friend I can count on	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ss30	If I need help at work, I know who to approach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Cc31	I am able to put my job out of my mind when I go home	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Cc33	I periodically re-examine or recognize my work style and schedule.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Cc37	I can identify important elements of problems I encounter	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

WORKPLACE OSTRACISM SCALE

Please fill the following statements about your experience or feeling during working hours in schools.

Sr. No.	Statements	Never	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Often	Constantly	Always
W1	Others ignored you at work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
W2	Others left the area when you entered	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
W3	Your greetings have gone unanswered at work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
W4	Others avoided you at work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
W5	You noticed others would not look at you at work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
W6	Others at work shut you out of the conversation.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
W7	Others refused to talk to you at work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
W8	Others at work treated you as if you weren't there.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

HEDONIC WELLBEING SCALE

For each of the following statements and/or questions, please circle the point on the scale that you feel is most appropriate in describing you.

1. In general, I consider myself:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not a very happy Person						**A very Happy Person**

2. Compared with most of my peers, I consider myself:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Less Happy						**More Happy**

3. Some people are generally very happy. They enjoy life regardless of what is going on, getting the most out of everything. To what extent does this characterization describe you?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all						**A great deal**

4. Some people are generally not very happy. Although they are not depressed, they never seem as happy as they might be. To what extent does this characterization describe you?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all						**A great deal**

ANNEXURE-II

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

S. No.	Description	Abbreviation
1	Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index	AGFI
2	Adaptive Performance	AP
3	Average Variance Extracted	AVE
4	Coping Strategy	COPE
5	Cognitive Coping	CC
6	Caste Identification	Ci
7	Caste Stigma Consciousness	Cs
8	Comparative Fit Index	CFI
9	Composite Reliability	CR
10	Confirmatory Factor Analysis	CFA
11	Contextual Performance	CP
12	Counterproductive Work Behavior	CWB
13	Exploratory Factor Analysis	EFA
14	Hedonic Wellbeing	HWB
15	Gender Identification	Gi
16	Gender Stigma Consciousness	Gs
17	Goodness of Fit	GFI
18	Goodness of Fit Index	GFI
19	Occupational Identification	Oi
20	Recreation	R

S. No.	Description	Abbreviation
21	Religion Identification	Ri
22	Religion Stigma Consciousness	Rs
23	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	RMSEA
24	Root Mean Square Residual	RMR
25	Self-Care	SC
26	Social Support	SS
27	Stereotype Threat	ST
28	Task Performance	TP
29	Tokenism	TOK
30	Structure Equation Modelling	SEM
31	Workplace Ostracism	WOS