Emotional Volatility Indicators in Teachers: Relationships of Anxiety, Depression and Stress with Demographic Variables

Öğretmenlerde Duygusal Volatilite Göstergeleri: Anksiyete, Depresyon ve Stresin Demografik Değişkenlerle İlişkileri

Leyla Şenol [1]

ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı, ilkokul, ortaokul ve lise düzeyinde görev yapan öğretmenlerde depresyon, anksiyete ve stres düzeylerinin, duygusal oynaklığın göstergeleri olarak, demografik özelliklere göre farklılık gösterip göstermediğini incelemektir. Çalışmanın kuramsal temeli, Weiss ve Cropanzano (1996) tarafından geliştirilen Affective Events Theory (AET) üzerine yapılandırılmıştır. Nicel bir araştırma deseni kullanılarak yürütülen çalışmada veriler, Kocaeli ilinde görev yapan 171 öğretmenden toplanmıştır. Veri toplama aracı olarak "Depresyon-Anksiyete-Stres Ölçeği" (DASS) kullanılmıştır. Analiz süreci iki aşamadan oluşmaktadır. Birinci aşamada faktör analizi ve güvenilirlik analizi uygulanarak ölçeğin geçerliliği ve güvenilirliği test edilmiştir. İkinci aşamada ise faktörlerin demografik değişkenlere göre farklılık gösterip göstermediği, One-Way ANOVA, Kruskal-Wallis ve Independent Samples t-testleri ile incelenmiştir. Bulgular, anksiyete, depresyon ve stres düzeylerinin cinsiyet ve yaş değişkenlerine göre anlamlı bir farklılık göstermediğini ortaya koymuştur. Bununla birlikte, gelir düzeyi anksiyete, depresyon ve stres değişkenlerinde; mesleki deneyim süresi depresyon ve stres değişkenlerinde; medeni durum depresyon değişkeninde, çalışma sektörü ise depresyon değişkeninde anlamlı farklılıklar göstermiştir.

Araştırma, öğretmenlerin mesleki stresle başa çıkabilmeleri ve duygusal dengelerini sürdürebilmeleri için psikolojik dayanıklılığın güçlendirilmesine ve duygusal farkındalık temelli müdahalelerin geliştirilmesine yönelik uygulamaların önemine dikkat çekmektedir. Genel olarak bu çalışma, öğretmenlerin depresyon, anksiyete ve stres düzeyleri ile demografik değişkenlerin duygusal oynaklık ve ruh sağlığı üzerindeki etkilerine ilişkin literatüre anlamlı ve özgün bir katkı sunmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Duygusal oynaklık, anksiyete, depresyon, stres, demografik değişkenler.

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to examine whether depression, anxiety, and stress levels, as indicators of emotional volatility, differ according to demographic characteristics among teachers working at the primary, secondary, and high school levels. The theoretical framework of the study is based on Affective Events Theory (AET) developed by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996). Using a quantitative research design, data were collected from 171 teachers working in Kocaeli. The Depression-Anxiety-Stress Scale (DASS) was employed as the primary data collection instrument. The analysis process was conducted in two stages. In the first stage, factor analysis and reliability analysis were performed to assess the validity and reliability of the scale. In the second stage, differences in the factors according to demographic variables were examined using One-Way ANOVA, Kruskal-Wallis, and Independent Samples t-tests. The findings indicated that anxiety, depression, and stress levels did not differ significantly according to gender and age. However, significant differences were observed in relation to income level (for anxiety, depression, and stress), professional experience (for depression and stress), marital status (for depression), and employment sector (for depression).

The study emphasizes the importance of enhancing psychological resilience and developing interventions based on emotional awareness to help teachers maintain emotional stability and effectively cope with occupational stress. Overall, this research provides a meaningful and original contribution to the literature on the effects of demographic variables on emotional volatility and mental health among teachers.

Keywords: Emotional volatility, anxiety, depression, stress, demographic variables.

INTRODUCTION

In economics literature, the concept of volatility is frequently used to describe uncertainty, fluctuations, and sudden changes observed in markets (Smith, 2020). In financial contexts, price volatility plays a critical role in decision-making and risk management (Smith, 2020). A similar phenomenon can be observed in the emotional world of employees. Within organizations, employees' emotional states may also be exposed to unpredictable and abrupt changes. In organizational behavior (OB) research, employees' emotional experiences are typically examined through constructs such as emotion variability, affect fluctuation, emotional instability, or emotional reactivity/inertia (Kuppens et al., 2010; Houben, Van Den Noortgate, & Kuppens, 2015). Although the term emotional volatility (EV) is not always used explicitly, it is conceptually aligned with or overlaps terms such as emotional variability (Shi Xu et al., 2016), emotion fluctuation (Zhang, Zhao, Liu et al., 2022), altered variability and inertia in emotions (Wang, Schneider et al., 2020), and predicting emotional volatility (MacKerron & Powdthavee, 2022). Increasingly, OB research has focused on employees' within-person temporal dynamics of affect, emphasizing day-to-day or week-to-

week variations in emotional states (Beal & Ghandour, 2011; Ilies, Aw, & Pluut, 2015). The concept of EV is often used interchangeably with emotional variability, affective lability, emotional instability, and emotional fluctuation; however, subtle yet meaningful distinctions exist among them. Emotional variability/fluctuation refers to the degree or range of emotional changes over time (quantity-focused); affective lability emphasizes the rapidity of transitions between emotional states (transition-focused); emotional instability is often considered a relatively stable personality trait (trait-focused); whereas emotional volatility reflects sudden, intense, and unpredictable emotional swings (speed/intensity-focused; state-based). In this regard, EV emerges as a crucial construct for understanding employees' emotion regulation processes and their impact on work performance. Employee Emotional Volatility (EEV) refers to sharp, sudden, and unpredictable emotional shifts that occur in workplace contexts due to various situational factors and has been introduced as a novel framework for understanding emotional processes in organizations (Şenol, 2022). This construct has been recognized as a significant variable influencing organizational communication and interpersonal dynamics. In professional settings, particularly among individuals involved in decision-making processes, high EV can produce outcomes that may either enhance or impair organizational effectiveness (Şenol, 2022). As introduced in the book titled "Organizational Behavior with Current Concepts" (Şenol, 2022), EEV offers an innovative conceptual contribution to the organizational behavior literature by identifying the key factors shaping this structure and guiding future researchers.

The Affective Events Theory (AET) developed by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) serves as one of the foundational frameworks explaining employees' emotional reactions in organizational behavior. AET posits that workplace events trigger emotional responses, which subsequently influence employees' attitudes and behaviors. Negative work events such as excessive demands, conflicts, or ambiguity generate short-term stress reactions. According to Selye's (1936) stress model, such stress represents an organism's response to external factors that threaten its physical or psychological equilibrium. From the AET perspective, stress results from immediate negative emotional responses (e.g., anger, frustration, anxiety) to such events (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). At this point, EEV plays a critical role in explaining the variability in employees' emotional responses. EEV captures not only the frequency of emotional fluctuations but also the intensity of reactions to stressors. While some employees display more stable emotional patterns, others experience stronger and more volatile affective responses (Kuppens et al., 2010; Houben et al., 2015). Repeated exposure to negative events or heightened perceptions of future threats (e.g., job insecurity, performance pressure) may elicit persistent anxiety among employees (Xu et al., 2016). Within the AET framework, this process is explained as the transformation of transient negative emotions (fear, worry, tension) into enduring emotional states. Individuals with higher EV levels tend to exhibit more reactive and fluctuating responses, making anxiety symptoms more salient (Hoorelbeke et al., 2016). Moreover, recurrent negative emotional experiences may contribute not only to anxiety but also to depression. Chronic exposure to work-related stressors can lead to emotional exhaustion, demotivation, and hopelessness key indicators of depressive tendencies (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015). From an AET standpoint, depression develops as the cumulative and enduring consequence of negative emotions triggered by workplace events (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Within this process, EEV may function as an accelerating factor of depression, as unstable and fluctuating emotional responses weaken an individual's capacity for effective emotion regulation (Yalçın & Yavuz, 2015).

In summary, within the AET framework, EEV represents the variability in employees' affective reactions to workplace events, which may evolve into short-term stress, mid-term anxiety, and long-term depressive outcomes. Although AET does not explicitly reference the term "volatility," it offers a robust theoretical foundation for understanding how fluctuating emotions influence work-related behaviors (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Professionals in the service sector particularly teacher operate under conditions of intense human interaction, continuous communication, elevated expectations, and performance pressure (Hakanen et al., 2006). As teaching directly impacts individuals' cognitive and emotional development, the ability to manage emotional processes becomes even more crucial. Therefore, Teacher Emotional Volatility (TEV) not only affects individual mental health but also has implications for the quality of educational outcomes. However, research examining the relationship between TEV and teachers' psychological states (stress, anxiety, depression) remains limited. Hence, this study aims to explore how emotional reactions to workplace events evolve into stress, anxiety, and depression through TEV, offering a theoretical framework for understanding the psychological consequences of emotional volatility among teachers.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Anxiety

Anxiety is an emotional state characterized by intense worry, restlessness, tension, and fear experienced in response to a perceived threat. This state typically emerges as a heightened arousal toward potential dangers in the environment and manifests through both cognitive (e.g., negative expectations, exaggerated threat perception) and physiological

(e.g., palpitations, muscle tension) symptoms (Spielberger, 1983). According to Barlow (2000), anxiety represents a state of anticipation and preparedness in response to potential future threats; individuals experience high levels of arousal due to concern over events beyond their control. In this regard, anxiety differs from depression as it is primarily a future-oriented emotional process, whereas depression is associated with feelings of helplessness and worthlessness stemming from past negative experiences.

Research indicates that anxiety and depression often co-occur and represent mutually reinforcing emotional processes (Mineka, Watson, & Clark, 1998). Specifically, Brown, Chorpita, and Barlow (1998) found that anxiety is linked to weaknesses in emotion regulation processes and may set the stage for the emergence of depressive symptoms over time. Similarly, Wetherell, Gatz, and Pedersen (2001) demonstrated that anxiety serves as a significant predictor of depression, with individuals exhibiting high anxiety levels showing a markedly increased likelihood of developing depressive symptoms in later periods.

Depression

Depression is defined as a pervasive mood disorder that induces a prolonged state of low mood and hopelessness, adversely affecting cognitive processes, behavioral patterns, and physiological functioning. According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-IV-TR; APA, 2000), depression not only impacts an individual's internal emotional world but also negatively affects social relationships, work performance, and overall quality of life. Consequently, depression is a multidimensional issue with both personal and socio-economic implications. Core symptoms of depression include difficulties in thinking and decision-making, attention and concentration deficits, memory problems, persistent sadness or emptiness, irritability, intolerance to situations, feelings of guilt or worthlessness, changes in appetite, loss of interest in previously enjoyable activities, lack of motivation, and suicidal thoughts (APA, 2000; Johnson & Indvik, 1997; Adamek & Slater, 2009).

According to Beck's cognitive theory (Beck, Rush, Shaw, & Emery, 1979), depression arises from the development of negative belief patterns regarding the self, the world, and the future; these maladaptive cognitions lead to emotional and behavioral states of low mood. Physiologically, depression is associated with chronic activation of the stress response system (HPA axis) (Kendler, Gardner, & Prescott, 2002), which can result in cortisol imbalances, weakened immune function, and an increased risk of cardiovascular disease (Musselman, Evans, & Nemeroff, 1998). The World Health Organization (WHO, 2020) emphasizes that depression is among the leading global causes of workforce loss, early retirement, and reduced productivity. Depression not only affects individual psychological well-being but also directly impacts organizational productivity, motivation, and job satisfaction. Greenberg and Birnbaum (2005) found that depression increases absenteeism and reduces employee performance. From the perspective of Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) stress and coping model, depression represents emotional exhaustion resulting from the individual's inability to effectively cope with workplace stressors. Therefore, understanding depression is critical not only for psychological health but also for organizational well-being and productivity.

Stress

Stress, increasingly recognized at both individual and societal levels, can be simply defined as a persistent state of psychological tension. Lazarus (1966) describes stress as a process arising when an individual perceives that the demands or threats they face may exceed their well-being and that they may not achieve an adequate level of coping. Raymond (2000) defines stress as the anxious state experienced when individuals believe they cannot manage certain situations, while Selye (1936) characterizes stress as the organism's response to changes requiring physical, mental, and emotional adaptation. These definitions indicate that stress is not limited to an individual's cognitive perception but is also related to the effort to adapt to environmental conditions.

In this context, Teacher Emotional Volatility (TEV) manifests as sudden and rapid emotional fluctuations triggered by stressors such as uncertainty, workload, communication problems, or leadership styles encountered in organizational life. Therefore, the various sources and effects of stress can be considered fundamental triggers of emotional volatility within organizational settings. This concept is directly related to individual emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995). Individuals with high emotional intelligence can manage these fluctuations more effectively, whereas those with lower emotional intelligence may experience negative consequences on organizational productivity, job satisfaction, and interpersonal relationships (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004). Emotional volatility (EV) refers to the instability of an individual's emotional responses, which may change rapidly depending on different situations. While this characteristic can sometimes be linked to emotional adaptability and flexibility, it may also stem from external factors such as stress, uncertainty, heavy workload, and interpersonal conflicts (Scherer, 2009). In particular, the level of EV observed in leaders with decision-making responsibilities can directly shape the quality of internal communication and employees' perceptions of the organizational climate (Goleman, 1995).

In organizational behavior literature, the concept of emotional intelligence is considered in terms of individuals' abilities to perceive, understand, and effectively manage emotions (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004). Within this framework, EV can be viewed as inversely related to emotional intelligence. Indeed, individuals with high emotional intelligence have greater capacity to regulate and balance emotional fluctuations, whereas those with lower emotional intelligence may display more pronounced EV. This distinction can directly affect critical organizational outcomes, such as job satisfaction, performance, organizational commitment, and burnout (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003).

METHODOLOGY

This study adopted a quantitative research approach to examine potential relationships among variables. A causal-comparative (ex post facto) research design was employed. Measurement and structural model analyses were conducted using IBM SPSS 20. The normality of the data was assessed, and the significance level was set at 0.05.

Research Question and Hypotheses

The primary aim of this study is to examine whether teachers' levels of anxiety, depression, and stress differ significantly according to demographic variables such as gender, marital status, income, and age. Accordingly, the research question is: Do teachers' levels of anxiety, depression, and stress differ significantly based on demographic variables such as gender, marital status, income, and age?

H1a: Teachers' anxiety levels significantly differ according to their gender.

H1b: Teachers' depression levels significantly differ according to their gender.

H1c: Teachers' stress levels significantly differ according to their gender.

H2a: Teachers' anxiety levels significantly differ according to their marital status

H2b: Teachers' depression levels significantly differ according to their marital status

H2c: Teachers' stress levels significantly differ according to their marital status

H3a: Teachers' anxiety levels significantly differ according to their income level.

H3b: Teachers' depression levels significantly differ according to their income level.

H3c: Teachers' stress levels significantly differ according to their income level.

H4a: Teachers' anxiety levels significantly differ according to their age groups.

H4b: Teachers' depression levels significantly differ according to their age groups.

H4c: Teachers' stress levels significantly differ according to their age groups.

H5a: Teachers' anxiety levels significantly differ according to their years of teaching experience.

H5b: Teachers' depression levels significantly differ according to their years of teaching experience.

H5c: Teachers' stress levels significantly differ according to their years of teaching experience.

H6a: Teachers' anxiety levels differ significantly according to sector.

H6b: Teachers' depression levels differ significantly according to sector.

H6c: Teachers' stress levels differ significantly according to sector.

Data Collection Method and Participant Selection

The study was conducted among teachers working in public and private schools in Kocaeli to examine the relationship between emotional volatility and depression, anxiety, and stress. A survey method was used to systematically collect data from a sample representing the target population. Prior to data collection, ethical approval was obtained from the Social and Human Sciences Ethics Committee on 30.09.2025 (Approval No: E. 847124). Participants provided informed consent, and participation was voluntary. Teachers were informed about the purpose and scope of the study, and the surveys were administered face-to-face. The sample consisted of voluntary teachers employed in public and private schools. However, 44 questionnaires were excluded due to inappropriate responses to control questions. Therefore, the study was conducted with valid data from 171 participants. The adequacy of the sample size was based on the recommendation that the number of participants should not exceed ten times the total number of items in the scales (Hair et al., 2014).

Regarding the participant profile, 60.2% of the sample were female, and 61.4% of teachers were under 50 years old. Most participants had 11 or more years of professional experience. This demographic distribution indicates that the sample adequately represents the target population.

Measurement Instruments

Anxiety Scale: The 7-item anxiety scale demonstrated high reliability (α = .853). One item example is: "I felt close to panic" (Yılmaz et al., 2017).

Depression Scale: The 7-item depression scale showed high reliability (α = .897). One item example is: "I realized that I could not feel any positive emotions" (Yılmaz et al., 2017).

Stress Scale: The 7-item stress scale had high reliability (α = .867). One item example is: "I tend to overreact to events" (Yılmaz et al., 2017).

Control Variables: To examine the relationships among the main variables more accurately and reliably, certain demographic factors were included as control variables (McClendon, 2002; En Sung, 2007). Accordingly, participants' gender, age, income, and professional experience were included in the model as control variables.

Analysis of Data

Factor Analysis

Data were analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics 20. The analyses included exploratory factor analysis, reliability analysis, independent-samples t-tests, and ANOVA. The significance level for all statistical tests was set at.05. This study employed a quantitative research approach to examine potential relationships among the variables. A causal-comparative (ex post facto) research design was utilized. Prior to conducting the analyses, the normality of the data was assessed. All statistical analyses were performed at the .05 significance level. The analyses began with an exploratory factor analysis (EFA). For the anxiety scale, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was .827 with a significance level of $p <.001$; for the depression scale, the KMO value was .837 ($p <.001$); and for the stress scale, the KMO value was .852 ($p <.001$). These results indicate that the sample size was adequate for conducting factor analysis. The total variance explained by the scales was 54.13% for the anxiety scale, 63.29% for the depression scale, and 56.02% for the stress scale. According to Büyüköztürk (2002), an explained variance exceeding 40% is considered acceptable. For a stable factor structure, each factor should include at least three items (Karaman et al., 2017). The factor loadings for the anxiety scale ranged from .632 to .823, for the depression scale from .620 to .849, and for the stress scale from .648 to .817. Furthermore, normality tests indicated that the data were normally distributed.

FINDINGS

The following section presents the data collected in the study, the analyses performed to test the hypotheses, and the resulting findings.

Table 1: Gender Differences in Anxiety, Depression, and Stress

Factor	Gender	N	SD	Mean	t	P
Anxiety	Female	103	0,89	2,16	0,4	0,475
	Male	68	0,81	2,1	0,4	
Depression	Female	103	0,9	1,94	-0,24	0,433
	Male	68	0,73	1,97	-0,25	
Stress	Female	103	0,87	2,57	-1,39	0,522
	Male	68	0,9	2,76	-1,38	

The effect of gender on anxiety, depression, and stress was examined using an independent samples t-test. The results revealed that gender did not have a statistically significant effect on anxiety (p = .475), depression (p = .433), or stress (p = .522) at the .05 significance level.

Table 2: Marital Status Differences in Anxiety, Depression, and Stress

Factor	Marital status	N	SD	Mean	t	P
Anxiety	Married	111	0,83	2,04	-1,99	0,299
	Single	60	0,91	2,31	-1,93	
Depression	Married	111	0,74	1,89	-1,36	0,022
	Single	60	0,98	2,07	-1,26	
Stress	Married	111	0,86	2,6	-0,91	0,306
	Single	60	0,93	2,73	-0,89	

The effect of marital status on anxiety, depression, and stress was examined using an independent samples t-test. The results indicated that marital status did not lead to statistically significant differences in levels of anxiety (p = 0.299)

and stress (p = 0.306) at the 0.05 significance level. However, a significant difference was observed in depression levels (p = 0.022).

Table 3: Differentiation of Anxiety, Depression, and Stress with Experience

Factor	Experience	N	SD	Mean	F	P
Anxiety	1–4 years	47	1,029	2,29	1,216	0,305
	5–10 years	50	0,827	1,98		
	11 years and above	74	0,798	2,135		
Depression	1–4 years	47	0,972	2,285	2,842	0,04
	5–10 years	50	0,74	1,811		
	11 years and above	74	0,768	1,811		
Stress	1–4 years	47	0,972	3,104	5,818	0,001
	5–10 years	50	0,843	2,451		
	11 years and above	74	0,793	2,623		

The sample was analyzed to determine whether there were significant differences in mean anxiety, depression, and stress scores according to the number of years worked at the current workplace. At the .05 significance level, no significant difference was found in mean anxiety scores across years of service (p = .305); however, significant differences were observed in mean depression (1–4 years vs. 5–10 years, p = .04) and stress (5–10 years vs. 11 years and above, p = .001) scores.

Table 4: Income Level Differences in Anxiety, Depression, and Stress

Faktör	Income	N	SD	Mean	F	P
Anxiety	₺15,000–₺35,000	18	0,679	2,464	4,947	0,003
	₺35,001–₺40,000	22	0,851	2,688		
	₺40,001 and above	131	0,858	2,01		
Depression	₺15,000–₺35,000	18	0,924	1,982	4,985	0,002
	₺35,001–₺40,000	22	0,791	2,539		
	₺40,001 and above	131	0,8	1,847		
Stress	₺15,000–₺35,000	18	1,039	2,571	3,352	0,02
	₺35,001–₺40,000	22	0,797	3,181		
	₺40,001 and above	131	0,853	2,56		

The sample was analyzed to determine whether there were significant differences in mean anxiety, depression, and stress scores across income groups. At the .05 significance level, significant differences were found in mean anxiety (₺35,000–₺40,000 vs. ₺40,000 and above, p = .003), depression (₺35,000–₺40,000 vs. ₺40,000 and above, p = .002), and stress (₺35,000–₺40,000 vs. ₺40,000 and above, p = .02) scores.

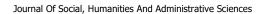**Table 5:** Age Group Differences in Anxiety, Depression, and Stress

Factor	Age	N	SD	Mean	F	P
Anxiety	20-33	48	0,955	2,226	0,271	0,846
	34-50	105	0,857	2,117		
	50 and over	131	0,792	2,039		
Depression	20-33	18	1,009	1,996	1,144	0,333
	34-50	22	0,731	1,932		
	50 and over	131	0,945	2,111		
Stress	20-33	18	0,947	2,518	0,755	0,521
	34-50	22	0,853	2,717		
	50 and over	131	0,972	2,919		

The sample was analyzed to determine whether there were significant differences in mean anxiety, depression, and stress scores across age groups. At the .05 significance level, no significant differences were found in mean anxiety (p = .846), depression (p = .333), or stress (p = .521) scores across age groups.

Table 6: Sector Differences in Anxiety, Depression, and Stress

Factor	Sector	N	SD	MEAN	t	P
Anxiety	Public	147	0,856	2,062	-2,971	0,514
	Private	24	0,814	2,619	-3,083	
Depression	Public	147	0,702	1,857	-4,047	0,001
	Private	24	1,26	2,571	-2,709	
Stress	Public	147	0,866	2,558	-3,292	0,922
	Private	24	0,845	3,184	-3,351	

He sample was analyzed to determine whether the sector in which participants were employed led to differences in anxiety, depression, and stress scores using an independent samples t-test. No significant differences were found in mean anxiety (p = .514) or stress (p = .922) scores. However, the sector variable was found to have a statistically significant effect on depression at the .05 significance level (p = .001).

Limitations of the Study

This study should be evaluated within certain methodological and sampling limitations. First, as the research was conducted with only 171 teachers working in Kocaeli, the findings cannot be generalized to all teachers across Turkey. Therefore, similar studies involving teachers from different regions or educational levels would enhance the generalizability of the results. Additionally, the study considered only specific demographic variables (gender, age, income level, professional experience, sector, and marital status). However, variables that may also influence emotional volatility, such as personality traits, organizational climate, leadership style, or levels of social support, were beyond the scope of this research. Considering these variables in future studies would provide a more comprehensive understanding of teachers' psychological well-being.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The findings of this study indicate that there were no significant differences in anxiety, depression, and stress levels based on gender and age; however, statistically significant differences were observed with respect to income level, length of professional experience, and sector. These results are consistent with the literature suggesting that emotional volatility is directly related to an individual's emotional regulation capacity (Kuppens et al., 2010; Houben et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2016). Individuals with higher levels of emotional volatility tend to exhibit stronger emotional reactions to stressful situations, which over time may increase their susceptibility to depressive and anxious tendencies. The results also highlight that, due to the emotionally demanding nature of the teaching profession, managing emotional volatility is crucial for teachers' professional well-being. In this context, training and supervision programs aimed at enhancing emotional awareness, self-regulation, and stress-coping skills can serve as important support mechanisms for teachers. Furthermore, the expansion of school-based psychological counseling services and organizational support practices may help teachers maintain emotional balance and reduce the risk of burnout.

Future research is recommended to explore the relationship between emotional volatility and variables such as emotional intelligence, psychological resilience, and organizational support across different professional groups. Such studies would contribute to a deeper understanding of strategies for maintaining employees' emotional balance and inform the restructuring of organizational policies to promote emotional well-being.

REFERENCES

Adamek, M. E., & Slater, G. Y. (2009). Depression and anxiety. In S. M. Cummings & N. P. Kropf (Eds.), Handbook of psychosocial interventions with older adults: Evidence-based approaches (pp. 146–181). Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group

American Psychiatric Association, & American Psychiatric Association Task Force on DSM-IV. (2000). Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders: DSM-IV-TR (4th ed., text revision). American Psychiatric Association.

Barlow, D. H. (2000). "Unraveling the Mysteries of Anxiety and Its Disorders from the Perspective of Emotion Theory". American Psychologist, 55: 1247-1263. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.55.11.1247

Beal, D. J., & Ghandour, L. (2011). "Stability, Change, and The Stability of Change İn Daily Workplace Affect". Journal of Organizational Behavior, 32(4): 526–546. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.713

Beck, A. T., Rush, A. J., Shaw, B. F., Emery, G., DeRubeis, R. J., & Hollon, S. D. (2024). Cognitive Therapy of depression (2nd ed.). The Guilford Press.

Brotheridge, C.M. & Lee, R.T. (2003). "Development and Validation of the Emotional Labour Scale". Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 76: 365-379.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1348/096317903769647229

Brown, T. A., Chorpita, B. F., & Barlow, D. H. (1998). "Structural relationships among Dimensions of the DSM-IV Anxiety and Mood Disorders and Dimensions of Negative Affect, Positive Affect, and Autonomic Arousal". Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 107(2): 179–192.

En Sung, H. (2007). The Blackwell Encyclopedia of Sociology. In G. Ritzer, (ed)., (pp.5179-5180). Publisher: Blackwell

Goleman, D. P. (1995). Emotional Intelligence: Why İt Can Matter More Than IQ For Character, Health and Lifelong Achievement. New York: Bantam Books.

Greenberg, P. E., & Birnbaum, H. G. (2005). "The Economic Burden of Depression in the US: societal and patient perspectives". Expert Opinion on Pharmacotherapy, 6(3): 369–376.

https://doi.org/10.1517/14656566.6.3.369

Hakanen, J. J., Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2006). "Burnout and Work Engagement Among Teachers". Journal of School Psychology, 43(6): 495–513. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsp.2005.11.001

Hair, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2014). A Primer on Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling *(PLS-SEM).* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hoorelbeke, K., Koster, E. H., Demeyer, I., Loeys, T., & Vanderhasselt, M. A. (2016). "Effects of Cognitive Control Training on The Dynamics of (Mal)Adaptive Emotion Regulation in Daily Life. Frontiers in Psychology, 7: 1471. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.01471

Houben, M., Van Den Noortgate, W., & Kuppens, P. (2015). The Relation Between Short-Term Emotion Dynamics and Psychological Well-Being: A meta-analysis. Psychological Bulletin, 141(4): 901–930. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038822

Ilies, R., Aw, S. S. Y., & Pluut, H. (2015). "Intraindividual Models of Employee Well-Being: What Have We Learned and Where Do We Go from Here?" European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, *24*(6): 827–838. https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2015.1071422

Johnson, P. R., & Indvik, J. (1997). The Boomer Blues: Depression in The Workplace. Public Personnel Management, *26*(3): 359–365. https://doi.org/10.1177/009102609702600305

Kendler KS, Gardner CO, & Prescott CA. (2002). Toward a Comprehensive Developmental Model for Major Depression in Women. Am J Psychiatry, 159(7):1133-45. doi: 10.1176/appi.ajp.159.7.1133. PMID: 12091191

Kuppens, P., Oravecz, Z., & Tuerlinckx, F. (2010). Feelings Change: Accounting for Individual Differences in the Temporal Dynamics of Affect. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 99: 1042-1060. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0020962

Lazarus, R., & Folkman, S. (1984). Stress, Appraisal, and Coping. New York: Springer.

Lazarus, R. S. (1966). Psychological Stress and the Coping Process. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2004). Emotional Intelligence: Theory, Findings, and Implications. Psychological Inquiry, 60: 197-215. https://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s15327965pli1503_02

MacKerron, G., & Powdthavee, N. (2022). Predicting Emotional Volatility Using 41,000 Participants in The United Kingdom [Preprint]. arXiv. https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.2205.07742

McClendon, & M. J. (2002). Multiple Regression and Causal Analysis. Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland Press.

Mineka, S., Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. (1998). Comorbidity of Anxiety and Unipolar Mood Disorders. Annual Review of Psychology, 49(1): 377–412. DOI: 10.1146/annurev.psych.49.1.377

Musselman, D. L., Evans, D. L., & Nemeroff, C. B. (1998). The Relationship of Depression to Cardiovascular Disease: Epidemiology, Biology, and Treatment. Archives of General Psychiatry, 55(7): 580–592.

Raymond, J. E. (2000). Stress and Coping Strategies in Modern Life. London: Routledge.

Selye, H. (1936). A Syndrome Produced by Diverse Nocuous Agents. Nature, 138 (3479): 32. https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2009.0141

Shi, X., Lin, W., Wang, L., & Wang, J. (2016). "Fluctuating Emotions: Relating Emotion Variability and Workplace Outcomes". Journal of Organizational Behavior, 37(8): 1093–1111. https://doi.org/10.1111/jasp.12390

Smith, A. (2020). "Volatility in Financial Markets: Causes and Consequences". Journal of Economic Perspectives, 34(2): 125–143. https://www.jstor.org/stable/e26940886

Sonnentag, S., & Fritz, C. (2015). "Recovery from Job Stress: The Stressor-Detachment Model As An Integrative Framework". Journal of Organizational Behavior, 36(S1): S72–S103. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1924

Spielberger, C. D. (1983). Manual for the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Şenol, L. (2022). Örgüt ve Duygusal Zekâ, Üzüm, B. (Editör), Güncel Kavramlarla Örgütsel Davranış, (s. 91-106), Eğitim Yayınevi, Konya.

Şenol, L. (2023). Etik Liderlik, Üzüm, B. & Osman Seray Özkan, O.S. (Editör), Leadershıp Approaches: Antecedents, Consequences, And Measurements, (s. 65-78), Eğitim Yayınevi, Konya.

Wang D, Schneider S, Schwartz JE, & Stone AA. (2020). "Heightened Stress in Employed Individuals Is Linked to Altered Variability and Inertia in Emotions". Front Psychol., (16): 11:1152. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2020.01152. PMID: 32612555; PMCID: PMC7309515.

Weiss, H. M., & Cropanzano, R. (1996). Affective Events Theory: A Theoretical Discussion of The Structure, Causes and Consequences of Affective Experiences At Work. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), Research in Organizational Behavior, 18 (1–74), Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Wetherell, J. L., Gatz, M., & Pedersen, N. L. (2001). "A Longitudinal Analysis of Anxiety and Depressive Symptoms". Psychology and Aging, 16(2): 187–195.

World Health Organization. (2020). Depression and Other Common Mental Disorders: Global Health Estimates. Geneva: WHO.

Xu, S., Wang, Y., & Yu, L. (2016). "Fluctuating Emotions: Relating Emotional Variability and Job Satisfaction". Journal of Organizational Behavior, 37(8): 1093-1111. https://doi.org/10.1111/jasp.12390

Yalçın, O., & Yavuz, K. F. (2015). "Duygulanım Değişkenliği Ölçeği'nin Türkçe Formunun Geçerlik ve Güvenirlik Çalışması". Nöropsikiyatri Arşivi, 52(4): 356–362. https://doi.org/10.5080/u27329

Yılmaz, Ö., Boz, H. & Aytuğ A., A. (2017). "Depresyon Anksiyete Stres Ölçeğinin (Dass 21) Türkçe Kısa Formunun Geçerlilik-Güvenilirlik Çalışması". Finans Ekonomi ve Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi, 2(2): 78-91.

Zhang B, Zhao L, Liu X, Bu Y, & Ren Y. (2022). "The Influence of Employee Emotion Fluctuation on Service Performance: An Experience Sampling Data Analysis". Front Psychol. 21: 13:648142. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2022.648142. PMID: 35264992; PMCID: PMC8898957.