

Occupational Stress and Job Performance; Insights from Literature

Erick Nyakundi Onsongo and David obonyo mreri
Kisii University.

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 16 August 2016;

Received in revised form:

18 December 2016;

Accepted: 26 December 2016;

Keywords

Stress,
Role ambiguity,
Stressors,
Burnout.

ABSTRACT

Over the past few decades the stress had become a growing dilemma in organization and cause unfavorable effects on job performance. Stress is a universal element that affects employees worldwide. There are many barriers that affecting the employees in the workplace. Work stress often affects the employees in the workplace, where each employee will feel it at least once in their workplace. Work stress is a real life problem that not only affects the organization, but the employees mainly become victims of stress. stress become a familiar element in organization and nowadays the workplace become more complicated, which bring more negative impacts to the employees compared to positive impacts. Stress among workers is greater than before which also effect on the whole performance of the employees. Stress which occurred in workplace declared as harmful to physical and emotional responses that happen within a human being when the requirement of the job do not match the employees' capacity, resources and needs. In addition to higher levels of stress are connecting to lower performance, whereas higher job satisfaction point out higher performance.

© 2016 Elixir all rights reserved.

Introduction

Over the past few decades stress is emerging as an increasing problem in organizations. Stress is vigorous state in which a person is confronted with an opportunity, demand, or resource related to what the individual wishes and for which the outcome is perceived to be both vague and vital. (Miller, 1995) first introduced the idea of stress in to the life science. He defined stress as the force, pressure, or tension subjected upon an individual who resists these forces and attempt to uphold its true state. Stress is an undesirable response people have to tremendous pressures or other types of demands placed upon them. It arises when they worry they cannot deal with. Some stress can be good, and some can be bad. Pareek Udai (2006) distinguishes between stress and pressure. Pressure is seen as positive and something that actually helps improve our performance. We all need a certain amount of pressure to perform well - ask any athlete, actor or actress. However, the problems arise when the sources of pressure become too frequent without time to recover, or when just one source of pressure is too great for us to cope with (Quick and Quick, 1986)

Stress can be understood more comprehensively as, it is a condition which happens when one realizes the pressures on them, or the requirements of a situation, are wider than their recognition that they can handle. If these requirements are huge and continue for a longer period of time without any interval, mental, physical or behavioral problems may occur, (Health & Safety Executive UK, 2005). Stress has a positive effect on employees of any organization but up to a certain extent up to which an employee can cope with it, mostly it exceeds the bearable limits and has a negative result on employees.

Occupational stress has been of great concern to employees and other stakeholders of organizations. Occupational stress researchers agree that stress is a serious

problem in many organizations (Fischer, 1994). The cost of occupational stress is very high in many organizations in recent times. For instance, the International Labour Organization (ILO) reports that inefficiencies arising from occupational may cost up to 10 percent of a country's GNP (Dua, 1994).

According to Beehr (1987) Occupational stress is the perception of a discrepancy between environmental demands (stressors) and individual capacities to fill these demands (Golnaz 1997; Goodman, 1980; Gupta and Jenkins 1985) for example, argued that the causes of occupational stress include perceived loss of job, and security, sitting for long periods of time or heavy lifting, lack of safety, complexity of repetitiveness and lack of autonomy in the job. In addition, occupational stress is caused by lack of resources and equipment; work schedules (such as working late or overtime and organizational climate are considered as contributors to employees stress. Occupational stress often shows high dissatisfaction among the employees, job mobility, burnout, poor work performance and less effective interpersonal relations at work (Kavitha, 2012). Dearlove, (1997) similarly argued that interventions like identifying or determining the signs of stress, identifying the possible causes for the signs and developing possible proposed solutions for each signs are required.

Hui and Chan, (1996) reveals that lack of power and influence, and office politics, is among the main sources of managerial stress within organizations and institutions. Ritzer, (1998) conducted a study on sources of employees stress in Kano state, Nigeria and their findings showed that administrative routine, workload, conflicting demands and role between work and family were the highest sources of stress. Additionally, they reported that 77.5 percent of the employees reported their job was stressful. The extent and level of stress vary from person to person.

Seldin, (1987) supported this when they prescribed that Organizations employees might experience stress due to interpersonal clashes and conflicts, excessively taxing administrative responsibilities, time constraints and conflicting role expectation.

Schnake, (1982), indicates that technological change is a type of environmental factor that causes stress. This they say to be so because new innovations can make a high employee skills and experience become obsolete in a very short time. Moreover, they continue to point out, that those who are not computer literate and not conversant with robotics, automation and similar forms of technological innovations are a threat to many employees and cause them stress. Specific research has been conducted to identify the sources of employee stress and the impact that it has on personal lives, job satisfaction, and ability to perform effectively in the workplace (Seldin, 1987). Such research has shown that there are valid and significant outcomes when an employee experiences occupational stress. Consequences of employee stress include an increase in employee burnout (Locke and Teicher, 2007), negative impacts on employee student relationships (Kavitha, 2012) and substantial drop in attrition rates (Dua, 1994). While the topic of employee stress has been widely studied (Hui and Chan, 1996), far less research has been conducted on the methods for coping with employee stress. Cooper and Davidson (1987) explained the method by which stress occurs. Individuals encounter potential stressors or events with the ability to illicit a physical, mental, or emotional response. Each person processes that event through a variety of tactics to minimize the impact of the potential stressor. The tactics used to reduce the actual amount of stress experienced by a potential stressor are referred to as coping mechanisms. After an individual has utilized coping mechanisms to process a potential stressor, the remaining impact of that event is considered stress (Choudry, 2013)

According to Hind and Doyle, (1996), occupational stress also continues to jeopardize the health of organizations. Unhealthy organizational climates reduce employee involvement and negatively affect performance at the individual and corporate level. The experience of work and stress is certainly not new in Kenya. Kenyans continue to experience stress as a result of poor environmental conditions, political uncertainty, poor working conditions and extreme levels of poverty. Nayak and Jayashree, (2008) concurs and further points out that employee in Kenya have to contend with low salaries, lack of involvement in decision making, heavy workload, and few opportunities for promotion. Research conducted by Miller, (1995) reveals that employees are reporting increased levels of stress which has led to poor health and consequently performance. Globalization has left Kenyan suppliers facing stiff competition and aggressive cost cutting. Work place pressure is growing day by day, people face changing economic and business situations, changing customer expectations and changing expectations from their own role and position in the organization (Rees and Redfern, 2000).

Theoretical review

Many researchers argue that stress at workplace has an impact to performance in one way or another. Occupational stress inadvertently consequences low organizational performance (Ritzer, 1998), Job stress although has belittling impact on any organization and individual's performance but can shape dire consequences when related to health care. (Salas and Klein, 2001). The importance of stress is

highlighted nowadays by the employers to manage and reduce stress through practical guidelines in public sector but not in private organizations (Seldin, 1987).

Systemic Stress – Selye's Theory

The popularity of the stress concept in science and mass media stems largely from the work of the endocrinologist Hans Selye. In a series of animal studies he observes that variety of stimulus events (e.g., heat, cold, toxic agents) applied intensely and long enough are capable of producing common effects, meaning not specific to either stimulus events. According to Seyle, these nonspecifically caused changes constitute the stereotypical i.e. specific response pattern of systemic stress. Sharma, (2007) defines stress as a nonspecifically response of the body to any demand, whether it is caused by or results in, pleasant or unpleasant conditions. Selye identifies three stages of adaptation which a person goes through in his General Adaptation Syndrom. They are Alarm, Resistance, and Exhaustion. These stages are associated with particular biological markers such as changes in hormone patterns and the production of more "stress hormones" and the gradual depletion of the body's energy resources. In the Alarm stage the body recognizes a challenge or threat and goes into a "fight or flight" was actually first coined by Walter Cannon another important pioneer in modern stress theory. In resistant stage the body attempts to adapt to a challenging situation which is persisting (Rajajeswari, 2010) the coping or adaptation required physiological resources, which may eventually get depleted. If the Exhaustion stage occurs, the stressful challenge has persisted too long. The immune system is impaired, long term damage and illness result.

Psychological Stress – The Lazarus Theory

According to Lazarus stress is experienced when a person perceives that the "demands exceed the personal and social resources the individual is able to mobilize." This called the transactional model of stress and coping. Neither the environment event nor the person's response defines stress, rather the individuals perception of the psychological situation is the critical factor. According to Lazarus, the effects that stress has on a person are based more on that persons feeling of threat, vulnerability and ability to cope than on the stressful event itself. He defines psychological stress as a "particular relationship between the person and environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her wellbeing. According to his theory there are two things that a person thinks when they are faced with a situation. These are called the primary appraisal and the secondary appraisal.

Stress manifestation

Stress manifestations are typically grouped into three general categories. These include physiological, psychological and behavioral manifestation. Physiological manifestation include immune system problems, where there is lessened ability to fight off illness and infection, high blood pressure, heart disease and muscoskeletal system problems such as tension headaches and backaches. According to Albach, (1996), profound physiological and endocrine changes that accompany fatigue and stress contribute to a loss of sexual desire in both men and women. Stress also produces various psychological experiences including, lack of motivation, depression and lower organizational commitment. Job dissatisfaction in fact is the simplest most obvious effect of stress. Job burnout and trauma are also extreme products of stress (Beehr, 1987).

In behavioral manifestation, stress has been identified as the fastest growing reason for unscheduled work absence and employee turnover. Other behavioral aspects include changes in productivity, eating disorders, increased smoking or consumption of alcohol, violence, fidgeting and sleep disorders.

Stress management

Sharma, (2007) contend that much of the stress experienced by people in industrialized nations originates in organizations and stress that originates elsewhere affects our behavior and performance in the same organizations. Stress management involves developing programs that improve the overall wellbeing of employees in the long run; theses in turn have a positive impact on corporate performance. In an effort to improve financial and operational performance, organizations are now including stress management component as one of their strategic choices. This strategy will depend upon the size and resources of the organization. The organization may focus on primary prevention level which intends to reduce or eliminate the demand causing stress. It may also take the secondary prevention level which intends to modify the individuals or organizations' response to stress. The tertiary prevention level is intended to heal the individual or organizational symptoms of distress and strain (Sharma, 2007).

Rees and Redfern (2000) have identified a variety of approaches for preventing and managing stress. These include social support, individual and corporate approach. Social support can be defined as the comfort, assistance or information one receives through formal or informal contacts with individuals or groups. Seeking social support is referred to as "tend and befriend" response to stress rather than the alternative "fight or flight option".

According to Altbach, (1996) social support is a contributing factor to the development of an individual's wellbeing and lack of it can lead to psychological and physical illness. Social support operates by providing some kind of buffer between people and the stress caused by work and non-work stress. Both the quantity and the quality of social relationship that individuals have with others appear to have a potentially important effect on the amount of stress they experience as well as the likelihood that stress will have negative effects on employees' performance as a result of poor mental and physical health (Parek Udai, 2006). Social support sources include family members (immediate and extended). Families try to work at promoting positive relationships among members and attempts with varying degrees of success to arrange itself into a functional group so that it enables each member to meet their goals and objectives. More specifically families develop their own special styles or strategies for coping with stress imposed from outside or from within the family (Miller, 1995). People are faced with perpetual uncertainty about their world and the issues within them. Social support is consistently cited as an effective stress coping strategy and reduces the health complaints experienced during periods of high stress.

Schnacke, (1982) examined the possible buffering effects of work and family resources in a sample of 294 families in the San Francisco Bay Area. They found that work and family resources moderated the relationship between stressors and outcomes including depression, anxiety and physical symptoms. Other extra organizational support systems include the neighborhood we live in, the spiritual support groups we belong to, health professionals we consult and self-help

groups. Both teams and groups in organizations provide a structure for the work and interaction of their members. A team's work and performance is said to be synergistic or greater than the work and the performance of an individual but its effectiveness relies on the satisfaction and wellbeing of its members. It therefore must be able to maintain the commitment of its members particularly during stressful times (Salas and Klein, 2000). Supervisor support is the degree to which employees perceive that the supervisor offers employees support, encouragement and concern. Supportive supervisors will ensure that their staff has access to the resources they need at work. It is also important that supervisors allow time for employees to develop and nature their social support networks as they are effective at reducing work stress (Rajarajeswari, 2010). Individual approach to stress management includes escaping stress by requesting for transfers, finding alternative employment or even taking early retirement.

According to Quick and Quick (1986), noncompetitive physical exercise such as aerobics, walking, jogging, swimming and riding a bicycle have long been recommended by physicians as way of dealing with excessive stress levels. Employees can also adopt stress reduction techniques such as meditation, hypnosis, biofeedback and positive thinking. An understanding and utilization of basic time management principles can help individuals cope better with tension created by job demand such as constant rushing, missed deadlines, work overload and the sense of being overwhelmed, insufficient time to rest and indecision.

Khauri and Analovi (2010) have noted that these techniques only relieve the symptoms rather than eliminate the stressor. The recommendation is for employers to use broader approaches to manage stress. Corporate approach to managing stress is characterized by organizations provision of personal leave, flexible work time, telecommuting, child care support services and redesigning jobs to help employees experience a better balance between their work and personal life. Sabbatical leaves are programs created to encourage stress relief and personal education.

Kavitha, (2012) points out that sabbatical leave adds to corporate flexibility and raises employee competence and esteem. According to Iqbal, Adnan, Kokash and Husam, (2011), wellness programs also known as health promotion programs focus on the employees overall physical and mental health. They typically provide workshops for people to quit smoking, control alcohol consumption, improve nutrition and diet control. Simply offering wellness programs does not guarantee positive results for either employers or the sponsoring organizations. Successful programmes need top management and union support which involves philosophical and material support. Empirical research conducted Antoniou and Vlachakis (2006) contend the EAPs give the organization a caring nature and knowing these programs exist can actually reduce the stress experienced by employees and enhance organizational performance. The next section focuses on corporate performance.

Occupational Stress and Job Performance

Occupational stress has been found to be related to job performance (Gupta and Jenkins, 1985). Boyd and Wylie (194), in a research of job stress and job performance among employees in public sector found a negative relationship between job stress and job performance. In a similar research in Choundhry, (2013) revealed that there is a negative relationship between sources of stress and self-related job

performance. Beehr, (1987), in a study found that, events identified as a cause of stress lead to depression, which in turn, cause decrements in interpersonal and cognitive/motivation aspect of job performance. Cooper and Davidson (1987) found that ongoing and episodic stressors were significantly and positively associated with anxiety and depression. Steer, (1981), argued that, as ongoing stressors increases in teachers working environment so as anxiety which affect their performance. Job stressors affect the general physical health of employees, their job satisfaction and performance as well as their commitment negatively (Srivastar, 2007).

Antoniou and Vlachakis, (2006), in a similar study, found that job stress and job performance were negatively correlated. Barkhuisen and Rothman (2008), found lack of financial rewards, inflexibility in work hours, personal issues, low control over the work environment and bureaucratic management system to be negatively correlated with employees' productivity. In a similar study, Cahn, Lai and Boey (2000) found that, occupational stressors influence positively the coercive and authoritative leadership and influence negatively the affiliative, democratic, pace-setting and coaching. A research work by Parek Udai (2006) on occupational stress among teachers, found that teachers who reported greater stress were less satisfied with teaching, report greater frequency of absence and a greater number of total days absent, were more likely to leave teaching (career intentions) and less likely to take up a teaching career again (career commitment). Alexandros, stramatios, matily and Cary, (2003), in a study of techno-stress among university workers, found that, techno-stress has negative consequences on the individual worker's performance. In a similar research among state university department Albatch, (1996), found that, the relationship between job stress and job performance is at a quite negative but moderate level.

According Miller, (1995), employees' commitment positively impact on the growth and succession of small and medium scale enterprises but high level of stress significantly impact on commitment and affect productivity (Khoury and Analovi, 2010). Comparative studies of 26 occupations conducted by Golnaz, (1997) conclude that teaching is one of the most stressful occupations (Hui and Chan, 1996). In Australian universities, a national survey on occupational stress revealed that "academic staff were generally worse off than general staff, and staff in newer universities were worse off than those in older universities" (Endress, Fred, wearden, Stanley, 1996). Recent studies have demonstrated that university professors experience levels of stress that are unparalleled in any other employed group of individuals (Iqbal and Kokash, 2011). Research shows that teachers' stress becomes problematic and potentially harmful when the challenges teachers face outpace their perceived ability to cope, or when they perceive that their important needs are not being met (Beehr, 1987). The overall stress level of professors is now second only to the recently unemployed when compared to other professions (Gupta and Jenkins, 1985). In a study on stress in seven New Zealand universities, Boyd, and Wylie (1994) reported that half of the academics in their sample of academics "often or almost always" found their work to be stressful, and 80% believed that their workload had increased and become more stressful in recent years. In addition, 46% expected further increases in workload in the future (Gillespie et al, 2001).

Blix et al. (1994) in their research on "occupational stress among university teachers" found out that two third of the

university faculty reported that they perceived job stress at least half of the scheduled time. Faculty also expressed burnout, health problems caused by job stress, decreased work output, low capacity to manage the work stress and basis of job change. According to Blix et al. (1994), over workload is one of the most frequently quoted reasons for considering job change.

The United Kingdom Association of University Teachers study (AUT, 1990) found that 49% of university employees reported that their jobs were stressful and 77% reported an increase in occupational stress over recent years. Shirley Fisher (1994), author of *Stress in Academic Life*, stated in relation to British universities: "The demands on academics have risen rapidly over the last ten years ... there has been a steady erosion of job control. All the signs are that this will continue" (Fisher, 1994).

Ahsan et al (2009) conducted a study in Malaysia and found that the number of universities in Malaysia has increased tremendously in the past few years due to which the university academic staffs face more problems in their job. Almost all the universities are now setting new goals to compete with other universities as well as the academic staff are involving with the ultimate goal. This may cause the university academic staff to face plenty of stress and therefore affect their satisfaction and even their physical or mental health (Ahsan et al, 2009).

In India, the situation is not very different from those mentioned above. It has been found that in India as well, the academics are suffering from stress due to most of the factors mentioned in researches in some other countries. Because of the entry of private institutions and foreign universities especially at higher education level, the faculty members are expected to play many roles other than as teachers. This makes the faculty members to do more clerical work apart from teaching. It affects their performance and also leads to a stressful life (Kavitha, 2012).

A survey of recent studies of teacher stress shows that many identified stressors appear consistently and may be subsumed under the general domains of environmental and personality based stressors (Bertoch et al 1988). Environmental stressors include student discipline and attitude problems, teacher competence, and teacher-administrator relations. Additional stressors include accountability laws, large classes, low salaries, intense pupil dependence, and declining community support. Sources of personality-induced stressors relate to one's self-perception. Negative self-perception, negative life experiences, low morale, and a struggle to maintain personal values and standards in the classroom all take their toll (Goodman, 1980; Schnacke, 1982; Schwanke, 1981; Bertoch et al 1988).

Research conducted in the UK, USA, New Zealand, and Australia has identified several key factors commonly associated with stress among academic and general staff (Gillespie et al, 2001). These include, work overload, time constraint, lack of promotion opportunities, inadequate recognition, inadequate salary, changing job role, inadequate management or participation in management, inadequate resources and funding and student interaction (Gillespie et al, 2001, Armour et al., 1987; Blix, et al, 1994; Boyd, and Wylie, 1994; Gmelch et al, 1986; Hind, and Doyle, 1996; Melendez, and de Guzman, 1983; 1996; Seldin, 1987).

Antoniou and Vlachakis, (2006) brought forward the sources of stress which are being faced by university teachers such as students' interaction issues, low level of interest and

problematic attitude of graduates. Other sources of stress, such as work-related technology (Totten and Schuldt, 2009), family life and work balance (Korotkov et al, 2008), years of experience (Totten and Schuldt, 2008), job-type category (Dua, 1994), control over the work environment (Golnaz, 1997) and person- environment fit (Korotkov et al, 2008), have been highlighted in few studies. The most stressful aspects of the job perceived by teachers include workload, time pressures and no guidance pertaining to various teacher roles (Hui & Chan, 1996). Quoting about academic careers in UK, Harley et al 2004 pointed out that universities are engaging in human resource strategies designed to enhance institutional rankings rather than provide the opportunities that all academics need to increase the knowledge and skills, and hence reputation, upon which their careers are based. In a study of New Zealand universities, Boyd, and Wylie (1994) reported that increasing workloads and work- related stress resulted in less academic time spent on research, publishing and professional development, decreasing teaching and research standards, and increasing interpersonal conduct in academic staff relationships (Gillespie et al, 2001).

Abbas et al (2012) in their study in Pakistan found that role ambiguity (when roles are not clearly defined or have been changed with time (Dua, 1994) has a significant impact on both dimensions of stress and on one dimension of burnout i.e. lack of personal accomplishment. The study on Organizational Role Stress in India by Kavitha (2012) reveal that the faculties in the colleges are doing more on multiple roles apart from teaching work at the colleges that leads to higher job stress. Hence, there is a higher sole-role distance among the faculties. It also affects the quality of education (Kavitha, 2012). According to her, the significantly influencing organizational role stresses on the overall job stress among the faculties are self role distance, role conflict, role overload, and lack of group cohesiveness and supervisors support. Dua (1994) reported six groupings of stressors produced by factor analysis: job significance, workload, and work politics, interpersonal dealings at work, work conditions, and university reorganization. He also found that younger staffers reported more stress than older faculty, and that there was some indication that staff employed at higher job levels had less stress than those employed at lower job levels. In the first phase of their longitudinal investigation of occupational stress, conducted in 15 Australian universities, (Fischer, 1994) identified the following sources of stress: Lack of funding resources and support services i.e. lack of research funding and merit-based distribution of funds to attend conferences and travel for research purposes results in academics feeling demoralized and disillusioned about conducting research. Another potential source of stress identified under this head was decline in staff numbers, due to which there was no longer adequate staff to perform the work required.

Goolnaz (1997) conducted a study on the depression of work among hotel employees in Central Florida. They have confirmed the incidence of depression among workers in the hospitality industry by evaluating the relationship between the occupational stress and work characteristics.

Ben- Bakar, Jefri, Alshammari (1995) investigated the relationship between “occupational stress, ill health and organizational commitment. The results were that organizational stressors contributed significantly to ill health and low organizational commitment. Stress about job security contributed to both physical and psychological ill health. Low individual commitment to the organization was predicted by

five stressors, namely work-life balance, overload, control, job aspects and pay. Schmidt, Denise Rodrigues Costa; Dantas, Rosana Aparecida Spadoti; Marziale, Maria Helena Palucci and Laus, Ana Maria In their work title on “Occupational stress among nursing staff in surgical settings” This study aimed at evaluating the presence of occupational stress among nursing professionals working in surgical settings and investigating the relations between occupational stress and work characteristics. Li-fang Zhang conducted a study titled “Occupational stress and teaching approaches among Chinese academics” (2009) He suggested that controlling the self-rating abilities of the participants, the conducive conceptual change in teaching approach and their role insufficiency predicated that the conceptual change in teaching strategy is negative.

Critique of the existing literature relevant to the study

Hui and Chan, (1996), in a study found that, events identified as a cause of stress lead to depression, which in turn, cause decrements in interpersonal and cognitive/motivation aspect of job performance.

Hind and Doyle (1996) found that ongoing and episodic stressors were significantly and positively associated with anxiety and depression. Boyd and Wylie (1994), argued that, as ongoing stressors increases in teachers working environment so as anxiety which affect their performance. Job stressors affect the general physical health of employees, their job satisfaction and performance as well as their commitment negatively (Dearlove, 1997). Kavitha, (2012), in a similar study, found that job stress and job performance were negatively correlated.

Cahn, Lai and Boey (2000), found lack of financial rewards, inflexibility in work hours, personal issues, low control over the work environment and bureaucratic management system to be negatively correlated with employees’ productivity. Choundhry, (2013) found that, occupational stressors influence positively the coercive and authoritative leadership and influence negatively the affiliative, democratic, pace-setting and coaching. A research work by Cooper and Davidson, (1987) on occupational stress among teachers, found that teachers who reported greater stress were less satisfied with teaching, report greater frequency of absence and a greater number of total days absent, were more likely to leave teaching (career intensions) and less likely to take up a teaching career again (career commitment).

Dua, (1994), in a study of techno-stress among university workers, found that, techno-stress has negative consequences on the individual worker’s performance. In a similar research among state university department, cooper and Davidson (1987), found that, the relationship between job stress and job performance is at a quite negative but moderate level. According Beehr, (1987), employees’ commitment positively impact on the growth and succession of small and medium scale enterprises but high level of stress significantly impact on commitment and affect productivity.

A research done by Pareek Udai, (2006) conducted a study and revealed that there is lack of power and influence, and office politics, are among the main sources of managerial stress within organizations and institutions. Miller, (1995) conducted a study on sources of employees stress in Kano state, Nigeria and their findings showed that administrative routine, workload, conflicting demands and role between work and family were the highest sources of stress.

Additionally, they reported that 77.5 percent of the employees reported their job was stressful. The extent and level of stress vary from person to person.

Dearlove, (1997) conducted a study that supported this when they prescribed that Organizations employees might experience stress due to interpersonal clashes and conflicts, excessively taxing administrative responsibilities, time constraints and conflicting role expectation. Golnaz, (1997) conducted a study and observed that technological change is a type of environmental factor that causes stress. This they say to be so because new innovations can make a high employee skills and experience become obsolete in a very short time. Moreover, they continue to point out, that those who are not computer literate and not conversant with robotics, automation and similar forms of technological innovations are a threat to many employees and cause them stress.

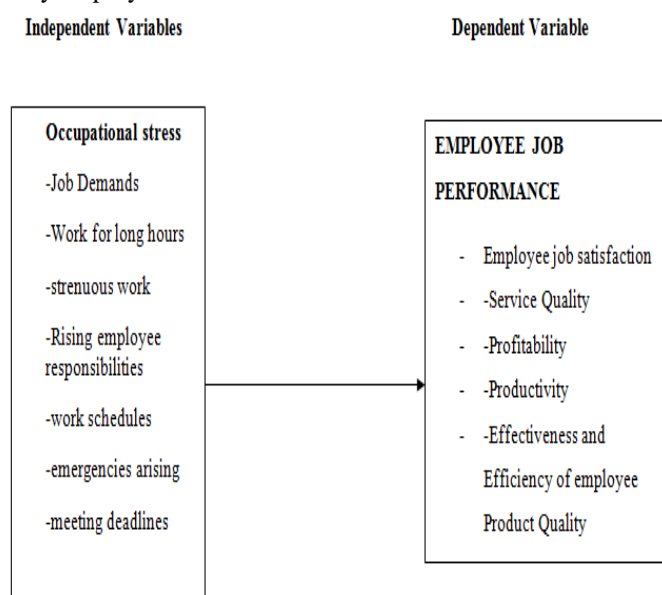


Fig 2.1. showing the relationship between occupational stress and job performance

Discussion

Basing on the studies or literature reviewed the following findings were obtained. Employee is a valuable resource (asset) of the organization (Kavitha, 2012) the success or failure of the organization depends on employee performance. Therefore, organizations are investing huge amount of money on employees due to occupational stress. The key variables identified related to occupational stress and Employee performance. The literature reviewed the effect of occupational stress on the employee developmental activities. Previous studies have examined the effect workplace stress in other organization and not the health institutions in Kenya (Fisher and Gittleston, 1983). Most studies have focused on the effect of occupational stress on employees in developed countries with little in developing countries. The further discussion develops a proposed model which explains the relationship between occupational stress (and employee performance variable). The employee performance will affect on organizational effectiveness (Barkhuizen and Rothman, 2008)

Conclusion

The literature reviewed observed that Individual behavior and its effects on the system can be seen as being a range, with absence due to sickness and task performance at one end, and labour turnover, low group-morale, output and poor labour-relations, at the other. The latter are less affected by a single individual's behavior (Kavitha, 2012).

Job satisfaction and organizational performance can be damagingly affected by stressful circumstances, although it should be noted that certain occupations are considered to be inherently more stressful than others (Fischer, 1994). Low self confidence amongst employees and managers is normally an organizational strain that requires an organization wide process to offset. If an appropriate action is not taken it can result in reduced productivity and high turnover, results in profits an ad dent in the bottom line of the organizations.

References

- Abbas, Syed Gohar, Roger, Alain, Asadullah, Muhammad Ali (2012). Impact of Organizational Role Stressors on Faculty Stress & Burnout (An exploratory analysis of a public sector university of Pakistan), 4ème colloque international (ISEOR – AOM)
- Ahsan, Nilufar, Abdullah, Zaini, Gun Fie, David Yong, Alam, Syed Shah (2009). A Study of Job Stress on Job Satisfaction among University Staffin Malaysia: Empirical Study, European Journal of Social Sciences, 8 (1).
- Alexandros-Stamatios G. A., Matilyn J.D., & Cary L.C. (2003). Occupational Stress, Job satisfaction, and health state in male and female junior hospital doctors in Greece, Journal of Managerial Psychology, 18(6), 592-621.
- Altbach, P.G. (Ed.). (1996). The International Academic Profession. Princeton, N.J.: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.
- Antoniou, F.A.S., & Vlachakis, P.A.N. (2006). Gender and age differences in occupational stress and professional burnout between primary and high-school teachers in Greece. Journal of Managerial Psychology, 21(7).
- Association of University Teachers {AUT}(1990). Goodwill under Stress: Morale in UK Universities. London: AUT.
- Bakshi, Poonam and Kochhar, Veeran (2012). A Study and Evaluation of Stress Role on Faculty: An Analysis of Professional Institutions in Haryana. International Journal of Research in IT & Management, 2 (6), 71-79.
- Barkhuizen, N. & Rothmann, S. (2008). Occupational stress of academic staff in South African higher education institutions, SA Journal of Psychology, 28: 321-336
- Beehr, T. (1987). The themes of social- psychological stress in work organizations: From roles to goals. In: A. Riley & S. Zaccaro (Eds), Occupational Stress and Organizational Effectiveness (pp. 71–102). New York: Praeger.
- Ben-Bakr, K, Jefri, OA, & Al-Shammari, IS. (1995). Occupational Stress in Different Organizations: A Saudi Arabian Survey, Journal of Managerial Psychology, 10(5): 24-28.
- Bertoch, R., Nielsen, Elwin C., Curley, Jeffrey R., Borg, Walter, R. (1988). Reducing Teacher Stress, The Journal of Experimental Education 57(1), 117-128.
- Blix, A.G., Cruse, R.J., Mitchell, B.M.M.B., & Blix, G.G. (1994). Occupational stress among university teachers. Educational Research, 36, 157-170.
- Boyd, S., & Wylie, C. (1994). Workload and Stress in New Zealand Universities. Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research and the Association of University StaV of New Zealand.
- Cahn, K.B., Lai, G., Ko, Y.C., & Boey, K.W. (2000). Work stress among six professional groups: the Singapore experience, Social Science Medicine, 50(10), 1415-1432.
- Chaudhry, A.Q. (2013): Analysis of Occupational Stress of University Faculty to Improve the Quality of their Work. Journal of Quality and Technology Management IX (I), 12-29.

- Cooper, C. & Davidson, M. (1987). Sources of stress at work and their relations to stressors in non-working environments. In Kalimo, R., El- Batawi, M. and Cooper, C. (Eds.). Psychosocial factors at their relations to health (pp. 99-111). Geneva: World Health Organization,
- Dearlove, J. (1997). The academic labour process: From collegiality and professionalism to managerialism and proletarianisation? *Higher Education Review*, 30, 56–75.
- Dua, J K. (1994). Job stressors and their effects on physical health, emotional health, and job satisfaction in a university, *Journal of Educational Administration*, 32(1): 59-79.
- Endres, Fred F. and Wearden, Stanley T. (1996). Job-Related Stress among Mass Communication Faculty, *Journalism & Mass Communication Education*, Autumn '96, 32-44.
- Fischer, S. (1994). Stress in academic life: The mental assembly line, Buckingham, UK: Open University Press
- Fisher, C.D., & Gittleson, R. (1983), a meta- analysis of correlates of role conflict and ambiguity, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68, 320-33.
- Gillespie, N. A., Walsh, M., Winefields, A. H., Dua, J. and Stough C. (2001)., Occupational stress in universities: staff perceptions of the causes, consequences and moderators of stress, *Work & stress*, 15 (1), 53-72.
- Golnaz, S. (1997). An examination of academic and occupational stress in the USA, *International Journal of Educational Management*, 11(1), 32– 43.
- Goodman, V. B. (1980). Urban teacher stress: A critical literature review. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 221 611.
- Gupta, N. & Jenkins, G.D. (1985). Dual-career Couples: Stress, Stressors, Strains and Strategies, in T.A.
- Halsey, A. (1992). The decline of Donnish dominion. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Armour, R. A., Caffarella, R. S., Fuhrmann, B. S., & Wergin, J. F. (1987). Academic burnout: Health & Safety Executive. (2005). Tackling work-related Stress: The Management Standards Approach, Sudbury: HSE.
- Hind, P., & Doyle, C. (1996). A cross-cultural comparison of perceived occupational stress in academics in higher education. Paper presented at the XXVI International Congress of Psychology, Montreal, Canada.
- Hui, E. K. & Chan, D.W. (1996). Teacher stress and guidance work in Hong Kong secondary school teachers, *British Journal of Guidance & Counseling*, 24: 199-211
- Iqbal, Adnan, Kokash, Husam (2011). Faculty Perception of Stress and Coping Strategies in a Saudi Private University: An Exploratory Study *International Education Studies Canadian Center of Science and Education* 4(3), 137-149.
- Kahn, R. L., Wolfe, D. M., Quinn, R. P., Snoek, J. D., & Rosenthal, R. A. (1964). *Organizational stress: Studies in role conflict and ambiguity*, New York: John Wiley.
- Kavitha, P. (2012). Organisational role stress among college faculties: An empirical study, *Sona Global Management Review*, 6(4), 36-50.
- Khoury, G., & Analoui, F. (2010). How Palestinian managers cope with stress, *Journal of Management Development*, 29(3), 282-291.
- Locke, W. & Teichler, U. (2007). Introduction, *The Changing Conditions for Academic Work and Career in Select Countries*, Werkstattberichte, 66: 7-14
- Miller, H. (1995). The management of change in universities. Buckingham: Open University Press
- Nayak, Jayashree (2008). Factors Influencing Stress and Coping Strategies among the Degree College Teachers of Dharwad City, Karnataka, Thesis submitted to the University of Agricultural Sciences, Dharwad July, 2008.
- Pareek, Udai (2006) *Understanding Organisational Behaviour*, Oxford University Press, New Delhi., pp 252.
- Phillips, B. N., & Matthew, L. (1980). The changing role of the American teacher: Current and future sources of stress. In C. L. Cooper & J. Marshal (Eds.), *White collar and professional stress*, 93-111. New York: Wiley.
- Quick, J. C. & Quick, J. D. (1984). *Organizational stress and preventive management*. New York: McGraw-Hill Publishing.
- Rajarajeswari, S. (2010). Role stress among the aided and self financing college teachers: A discriminant analysis, *Global Management Review*, 2010, 4 (4): 73-86
- Rees, C. J. & Redfern, D. (2000). Recognizing the Perceived Causes of Stress . A Training and Development Perspective, *Journal of Industrial and Commercial Training*, 32(4): 120-127
- Ritzer, G. (1998). *The McDonaldization thesis*. London: Sage.
- [63] Ritzer, G. (2000). *The McDonaldization of society*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Pine Forge Press.
- Salas, E., & Klein, G. (2001). *Linking expertise and naturalistic decision making*. Manwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Schnacke, S. B. (1982). Burnout: Coping with predictable professional life crises. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Houston, TX. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 257 836)
- Schwanke, D. C. (1981). Teacher stress: Selected ERIC resources. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 204– 258)
- Seldin, P. (1987). Research Findings on causes of academic stress. In P. Seldin (Ed.), *Coping with Faculty Stress* (pp. 13-24). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Sharma, R. R. (2007). Indian Model of Executive Burnout, *Vikalpa (Journal of Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad)* 32(2), April-June: 23-38.
- Smyth, J. (Ed.). (1995). *Academic work: The changing labour process in higher education*. Buckingham: SRHE/Open University Press.
- Srivastav, A. K. (2007). Stress in organizational roles - individual and organizational implications, *Icfaian Journal of Management Research*, 6(12): 64-74
- Steers, R. M. (1981). *Introduction to organizational behavior*. Glenview: Scott- Foresman Publishing.