Job Stress, Presenteeism and Employee Performance among Academic Staff in Selected Universities in Edo State

Osamagumwende Blessing ADAGBONYIN
PG/MGS2015570

DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT
FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES
UNIVERSITY OF BENIN
BENIN CITY

NOVEFMBER, 2025

Job Stress, Presenteeism and Employee Performance among Academic Staff in Selected Universities in Edo State

Osamagumwende Blessing ADAGBONYIN
PG/MGS2015570

BEING A THESIS PRESENTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT AND SUBMITTED TO THE COLLEGE OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (PhD) IN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF BENIN, BENIN CITY, NIGERIA.

NOVEMBER, 2025

AUTHOR'S STATEMENT

I hereby grant the University of Benin, through the University of Benin Library, a non-exclusive, worldwide right to reproduce and distribute my thesis and abstract (hereinafter "the Work"), in whole or in part, through any media, in its present form or any translated version for preservation and accessibility, provided such translation does not alter its content. This grant is royalty-free, and I retain the right to publish the Work in its current or future versions elsewhere.

Warranties

I further affirm that:

1. I am the sole author of the Work and grant the University of Benin the right to make it available four (4) years after the award of my degree, in compliance with the University of Benin Senate regulations.
2. The Work does not contain confidential information requiring third-party consent for disclosure.
3. I have exercised due diligence to ensure that the Work is original and does not breach any Nigerian law or infringe upon any third party's copyright or other Intellectual Property Rights, to the best of my knowledge.
4. Where the Work includes copyrighted material not owned by me, I have obtained unrestricted permission from the copyright holder to grant this license to the University of Benin Library. Such third-party materials are clearly identified and acknowledged within the Work.
5. In the event of any copyright dispute concerning the Work, I agree to indemnify and hold harmless the University of Benin, its officers, employees, and agents from any liability arising from the material authorized under this agreement.
6. The University of Benin is under no obligation whatsoever to take legal action on my behalf as the Depositor in the event of an intellectual property rights infringement or any other related dispute in the material deposited.

Adagbonyin, O.B. Author`s Name	Signature/Date	Osama.adagbonyin@uniben.edu Email
Dr. Idubor, E.E. Supervisor's Name	Signature/Date	Enaruna.idubor@uniben.edu Email
Ven. Prof. I.O. Osamwonyi Supervisor's Name	Signature/Date	Ifuero.osamwonyi@uniben.edu Email

DECLARATION

I, **Osamagumwende Blessing ADAGBONYIN** hereby declare that this dissertation is entirely my own work and composition. The work embodied in this dissertation has not been submitted in candidature for any degree and is not concurrently being submitted for any other degree. All references made to the works of other persons have been duly acknowledged.

_____ _____

Osamagumwende Blessing ADAGBONYIN **Date**

(Student)

CERTIFICATION

We certify that this work titled: **Job Stress, Presenteeism and Employee Performance among Academic Staff in Selected Universities in Edo State** was carried out by **Osamagumwende Blessing ADAGBONYIN** in the Department of Human Resource Management, Faculty of Management Sciences, University of Benin, Benin City.

_____	_____
Dr. (Mrs) E.E. Idubor **(Research Project Chief Supervisor)**	**Date**
_____	_____
Ven. Prof. I.O. Osamwonyi **(Research Project Co- Supervisor)**	**Date**
_____	_____
Dr. (Mrs) E.E. Idubor **(Head of Department)**	**Date**

ATTESTATION OF CORRECTED THESIS

We the undersigned attest that **Osamagumwende Blessing ADAGBONYIN** has successfully carried out all the required corrections as recommended by the external and internal examiners in his thesis titled: **Job Stress, Presenteeism and Employee Performance among Academic Staff in Selected Universities in Edo State.**

Thank you.

Dr. (Mrs) E.E. Idubor **(Research Project Chief Supervisor)**	**Date**
Ven. Prof. I.O. Osamwonyi **(Research Project Co- Supervisor)**	**Date**
Dr. (Mrs) E.E. Idubor **(Head of Department)**	**Date**
Dr. S.A. Adekunle **(Internal Examiner)**	**Date**
Prof. Ibrahim Shaibu **(Postgraduate Representative)**	**Date**

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to God Almighty, the giver of life and my children: Ivie-Oghosa Prayer Adagbonyin and Osasere Blessing-Overflow Adagbonyin.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am thankful to God Almighty for the strength, knowledge, ability and opportunity to undertake this study and complete it satisfactorily.

I owe a deep sense of gratitude to my Chief Supervisor/Head of Department – Dr (Mrs) E.E. Idubor for her prompt inspirations, timely suggestions with kindness. I would like to thank Ven. Prof. I.O Osamwonyi who, initially, was my Chief Supervisor and later became Co-Supervisor on his retirement from the services of University of Benin

I also acknowledge the assistance and invaluable support received from the immediate past Head of Department, Dr. (Mrs) O.R. Dania. Thankfully, I acknowledge the inspiration and support received from my friend, Dr Pressly Osemwengie of the Department of Economics, in the University of Benin

I wish to thank all my Lecturers at the Department of Human Resource Management, University of Benin for their assistance and co-operation.

To my parents, Late Pa Joseph Igbinosa Adagbonyin (The Teacher) and Mrs. Rose Atiti Adagbonyin, I am eternally grateful for their support, guidance and prayers.

To my former boss/Vice Chancellor, University of Benin, Prof (Mrs.) Lilian Imuetiyan Salami, to whom I served as Personal Assistant (2019-2024), I am grateful for her motherly support and encouragement

It is my privilege to thank my wife, Mrs. Olushola Adagbonyin for her constant encouragement throughout my research period. To all PhD, HRM students of the class of 2025, thank you for the stimulating discussions and co-operation.

Finally, to all who, in one way or the other, contributed to the successful completion of this study but escaped mention, I am deeply indebted.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF APPENDICES

ABSTRACT

This study examined the effect of job stress on employee performance with the moderating role of presenteeism among academic staff in selected universities in Edo State. Specifically, the study investigated the effect of excessive workload, student-related challenges, career development, compensation and organisational support on employee performance.

A survey research design was adopted. The population of the study comprised all academic staff members in the four selected universities in Edo State. The sample size comprised 356 academic staff from selected universities; however, 313 valid responses (87.9%) were obtained from the survey instrumentand used for data analyses. Data were collected through a structured questionnaire and analyzed using descriptive statistics, correlation, regression analysis, and moderation tests with SPSS. Hypotheses were tested at 5% level of significance.

The study found that while excessive workload negatively but insignificantly affected employee performance, student-related challenges significantly reduced it. In contrast, career development and organisational support have positive and significant influence on employee performance. The results also showed that compensation has a positive but non-significant effect with employee performance. Presenteeism moderates the relationship between the job stress dimensions and employee performance. It is recommended that University management should adopt workload management frameworks to ensure fair distribution of teaching, administrative, and research responsibilities. Hiring additional academic staff and using technology for administrative tasks could help reduce the burden on current staff.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Higher educational institutions are globally recognised as engines of societal advancement charged with the responsibility of producing skilled graduates, driving research innovation, and fostering community development (World Bank, 2020). In Nigeria, universities play a pivotal role in actualizing national development goals, as articulated in the Federal Republic of Nigeria's National Policy on Education (2016), which emphasises that educational quality hinges on the competence and well-being of academic staff. However, Nigerian universities, particularly those in Edo State, face systemic challenges that underscore faculty performance (Aleru, 2023). Academic staff members are increasingly burdened by escalating workloads, infrastructural deficits, and institutional pressures, all of which contribute to heightened job stress and diminished productivity (Oderinde, Akintunde & Ajala, 2024).

Job stress, which is defined as the psychological and physiological strain resulting from an imbalance between job demands and an individual's capacity to meet them (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), has emerged as a critical concern in academia. Nigerian universities face unique challenges such as resource constraints, heavy workloads, administrative demands, and socio-economic pressures, which exacerbate stress levels among academic and non-academic staff (Ogbonnaya, Omonijo, & Adeoye, 2021). Universities in Edo State, such as the University of Benin and Ambrose Alli University, contend with serious understaffing, overcrowded classrooms, and insufficient research funding which compels lecturers to operate under sustained stress (Nwokeocha, 2023).

Compounding this issue is the phenomenon of presenteeism. It refers to the act of attending work while being physically or mentally unwell, often due to fear of job loss or institutional pressure (Uslukaya, Demirtaş & Alanoğlu, 2022). Presenteeism is particularly pervasive in the academia, where societal expectations and institutional cultures valorize overwork, even at the expense of health and performance. Presenteeism describes a condition in which employees remain physically present at work but perform below expectation due to physical, mental, or emotional strain. Although extensively studied globally (Miraglia & Johns, 2016; Lesener, Gusy, & Wolter, 2019), presenteeism remains understudied in Nigeria, particularly in higher education.

Presenteeism manifests differently across occupations. Johns (2020) conceptualised it as a behavioural response to job insecurity and excessive work demands especially in under-resourced educational systems. Miraglia and Johns (2021) further identified "professional dedication" as a key driver of presenteeism in academia, where lecturers continue working despite illness for fear of falling behind or burdening colleagues. Increasingly, organisations recognise the hidden costs of presenteeism which amplify the well-documented productivity losses linked to absenteeism. Unlike absenteeism, however, presenteeism often goes unmeasured, concealing its economic and well-being impacts (Goetzel et al., 2004). Historically, organisational policies emphasised minimising absenteeism, often perceiving presenteeism as preferable since workers physically present could still contribute some productivity compared to absentees.

The interplay between job stress, presenteeism, and employee performance remains underexplored in the Nigerian academic context. While prior research has examined stress and productivity in Nigerian universities (Akinboye, Akinboye, & Adeyemo, 2020), few studies investigate the moderating role of presenteeism in this relationship. Academics that are stressed may engage in presenteeism to meet institutional demands such as teaching

overloads or mandatory publications yet compromised wellbeing. This often leads to suboptimal teaching quality, reduced research output, and weakened community engagement (Izuchi & Onukwufor, 2017). This shows that presenteeism, while superficially sustaining workforce participation, erodes long-term performance (Miraglia & Johns, 2021). In low-resource academic settings such as Nigeria, where institutional support is often lacking (Ojedokun & Idemudia, 2015), the cyclical relationship between stress, presenteeism, and declining productivity calls for empirical investigation. This shows the need to examine how presenteeism, as a coping mechanism, exacerbates or mitigates the effects of stress on performance. Accordingly, this study investigated the relationship between job stress, presenteeism, and employee performance among academic staff in selected universities across Edo State, Nigeria.

1.2 Statement of the Research Problem

The Nigerian higher education sector has long contended with structural and systemic challenges that undermine its effectiveness. Lingering underfunding, infrastructural decay, and growing demands on academic staff have created an environment where stress has become a defining feature of university work (Akinwale & George, 2020; Adeoye, Musa, & Oniye, 2024). These pressures erode employee well-being and compromise institutional productivity that raise concerns about the sustainability of universities in Nigeria.

Job stress, broadly defined as the harmful psychological and physiological responses that occur when job demands exceed an individual's capacity or available resources (NIOSH, 1999), has been widely examined globally. Yet, its manifestations in Nigerian universities remain underexplored. Research shows that university employees face a unique mix of chronic stressors, ranging from heavy teaching workloads and administrative bottlenecks to infrastructural deficits and irregular salary payments (Omoniyi & Oyeniyi, 2018; Ojedokun & Adeniyi, 2019). These localised factors, coupled with frequent strikes and

inconsistent government policies, compound stress levels in ways that distinguish Nigerian academic environment from those of better-resourced systems.

Evidence consistently highlights the prevalence of job stress among both teaching and non-teaching staff. For lecturers, the stress is exacerbated by overcrowded classrooms, unrealistic "publish or perish" expectations, and inadequate research funding (Okoro & Chukwuedo, 2021; Akinmayowa & Osunde, 2023). For administrative and technical staff, role ambiguity, bureaucratic inefficiencies, and limited career progression opportunities serve as persistent stressors (Adeyemi & Ademilua, 2019; Igbinedion & Omoregie, 2022). Studies also reveal that female academics, who often balance professional and caregiving responsibilities, experience higher levels of emotional exhaustion (Akinmayowa & Osunde, 2023; Igbinomwanhia & Ehioghae, 2021). Taken together, these findings show the systemic and multidimensional nature of workplace stress in Nigerian universities.

One important but underexplored outcome of job stress in academia is presenteeism. It is the practice of attending work while physically or mentally unwell, which reduces productivity and can erode long-term performance (Johns, 2010; Miraglia & Johns, 2021). Presenteeism is particularly salient in Nigerian universities where cultural stigmatisation of absenteeism and fear of job insecurity compel staff to remain at work despite illness (Ojedokun, Idemudia, & Kazeem, 2022). Recent evidence suggests that presenteeism is widespread in Nigerian academia, with Musa, Adeoye, and Ojedokun (2023) reporting that nearly 68% engage in it. The consequences are severe: diminished lecture quality, delays in research output, reduced student mentorship, and increased susceptibility to burnout and depression (Osibanjo et al., 2016).

Nowak, Wendsche and Wegge (2022) found that presenteeism is more closely linked to health complaints than absenteeism, and that organizational culture strongly shapes attendance behavior. In contexts where presenteeism is normalised, employees may appear

committed, but the hidden costs in terms of productivity loss and well-being are substantial (Kinman & Wray, 2013; Johns, 2020). For Nigerian universities, which face severe resource shortages, the erosion of staff effectiveness through presenteeism poses a critical threat to institutional performance.

The situation is particularly pressing in Edo State. Studies report high levels of stress among staff at the University of Benin and Ambrose Alli University driven by inadequate funding, high student–lecturer ratios (often exceeding 100:1), and stalled promotions (Akinmayowa & Osunde, 2023; Okoro & Chukwuedo, 2021). Administrative staff report heightened stress due to bureaucratic inefficiencies, while lecturers cite pressure to publish without adequate research support (Igbinedion & Omoregie, 2022).

These present critical research gaps. While studies have examined stress and burnout (Ezenwaji et al., 2020; Adeyemi, 2021), few studies explicitly address presenteeism as a moderating mechanism between stress and performance in universities. Understanding this interplay is crucial because chronic stress depletes cognitive and emotional resources, pushes employees toward presenteeism as a maladaptive coping strategy and reduces well-being and effectiveness (Pit & Hansen, 2016; Miraglia & Johns, 2021). This study therefore seeks to address the gap by investigating the nexus between job stress, presenteeism, and employee performance in selected universities in Edo State.

1.3 Research Questions

This study is guided by the following research questions:

i. To what extent does excessive workload influence employee performance among academic staff of selected universities in Edo State?
ii. To what extent do student-related challenges influence the performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State?

iii. To what extent does career development influence performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State?

iv. To what extent does compensation influence employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo state?

v. To what extent does organisational support influence employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo?

vi. To what extent does presenteeism moderate the relationship between job stress (excessive workload, student-related challenges, career development, compensation and organisational support) and employee performance among academic staff of selected universities in Edo State?

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The broad objective of the study is to investigate the interplay between job stress, presenteeism, and employee performance among academic staff in selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria. The specific objectives are to:

i. determine the effect of excessive workload on employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

ii. examine the effect of student related challenges on employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

iii. ascertain the effect of career development on employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

iv. investigate the effect of compensation on employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

v. evaluate the effect of organisational support on employee performance of

academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

vi. investigate the moderating effect of presenteeism on the relationship between job stress (excessive workload, student-related challenges, career development, compensation and organisational support) and employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

1.5 Research Hypotheses

Based on the research objectives above, the following null hypotheses were tested:

i. Excessive workload has no significant effect on employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

ii. Student related challenges have no significant effect on employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

iii. Career development has no significant effect on employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

iv. Compensation has no significant effect on employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

v. Organisational support has no significant effect on employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

vi. Presenteeism does not mderate the relationship between job stress (excessive workload, student-related challenges, career development, compensation and organisational support) and employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

1.6 Scope and Delimitation of the Study

This study focuses on examining the nexus between job stress, presenteeism, and employee performance among academic staff in selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria. The study specifically investigated how job stress proxied by excessive workload, student-related challenges, career development, compensation, and organisational support influence the prevalence of presenteeism and, consequently, employee performance. The study examined presenteeism as a moderating mechanism that shapes academic staff members' performance in terms of teaching quality, research productivity, and community engagement.

The geographical focus is limited to Edo State in Nigeria, with seven public and private universities. However, four universities namely: University of Benin (Benin City), Ambrose Alli University (Ekpoma), Igbinedion University (Okada), and Benson Idahosa University (Benin City). These institutions were selected to capture diversity across public and private universities, as well as to reflect the unique socio-economic and institutional dynamics that shape academic work in the region. The study adopted a cross-sectional survey to gather data within two months.

1.7 Significance of the Study

This study will be of benefit to the following:

Academic staff members: The findings of this study will directly benefit lecturers and other academic staff by highlighting the specific stressors such as excessive workload, student-related challenges, and limited organisational support that could undermine their wellbeing and productivity. Academic staff will gain awareness of the hidden costs of working while unwell by understanding how presenteeism moderates the stress–

performance relationship. This knowledge can encourage healthier coping strategies and advocacy for improved work conditions.

University management and administrators: The study provides critical evidence for university administrators will help them recognise the systemic factors that drive performance so as to guide in policy reforms in workload distribution, staff support services, and career development structures.

Policy makers and regulators: Findings will benefit policymakers such as the Federal Ministry of Education, National Universities Commission (NUC), and state education authorities by offering empirical evidence on how job stress and presenteeism affect employee performance. This will support the formulation of policies that prioritise staff welfare, promote work-life balance, and introduce comprehensive stress management interventions across Nigerian universities.

Students and future researchers: Since student learning outcomes are directly linked to the performance and well-being of academic staff, this study indirectly benefits students. Universities can ensure better teaching delivery, improved academic mentorship, and enhanced student engagement by addressing stress and presenteeism among lecturers. This will ultimately improve the quality of education in Edo State. The study will also guide future researchers that would investigate similar subject matter.

Society and the economy: Strong and effective universities are vital for national development. This study supports societal advancement through the production of high-quality graduates, impactful research, and community service by improving the wellbeing and performance of academic staff. In turn, healthier and more productive universities contribute to human capital development and economic growth.

1.8 Definition of Key Terms

Job stress: In this study, job stress is defined as the psychological and physiological strain experienced by academic staff due to an imbalance between perceived job demands (e.g., workload, role ambiguity, institutional pressures) and their capacity to meet these demands, as measured by validated psychometric instruments and self-reported indicators.

Presenteeism: In this study, presenteeism is defined as the behavior of academic staff attending work despite physical, emotional, or cognitive impairments that significantly reduce their functional capacity, as measured by self-reported frequency, productivity loss, and contextual factors such as institutional pressures or fear of repercussions.

Employee Performance: In this study, employee performance is operationally defined as the measurable effectiveness of academic staff in fulfilling their core responsibilities of teaching, research, and community service, assessed through objective institutional metrics and self-reported evaluations of output quality, efficiency, and impact.

Job Overload: In this study, job overload is defined as the perceived or objective excessiveness of job demands placed on academic staff, quantified through measurable indicators such as workload volume, time pressure, and role multiplicity, which exceed their capacity to perform tasks effectively within standard working hours

Job insecurity: In this study, job insecurity is defined as the perceived threat to employment stability among academic staff, characterized by fears of job loss, contractual instability, or adverse changes in employment conditions, measured through self-reported perceptions and institutional indicators of tenure status, funding uncertainties, and policy-driven risks.

Stressor: In this study, a stressor is defined as any job-related condition, event, or demand within the academic environment that is perceived by staff as threatening, challenging, or exceeding their adaptive resources, thereby eliciting psychological or physiological stress

responses. Stressors are measured through objective institutional indicators and self-reported assessments of their frequency, intensity, and perceived impact.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Preamble

This chapter explains the concept of job stress, presenteeism and employee performance. It also offers a detailed explanation of various theories of the three concepts and empirical works by researchers over time on these area of study

2.2. Conceptual Review

2.2.1. Employee Performance

Performance refers to the measurable outcomes and achievements an individual attains in their professional role and encompasses both the quality and quantity of work produced by an employee in the course of discharging their assigned responsibilities (Al Mehrzi & Singh, 2016). Performance can be understood as the overall level of success an individual achieves over a defined period, measured against established benchmarks such as job standards, predetermined targets, or mutually agreed criteria (Al Mehrzi & Singh, 2016). Yang et al. (2016) further clarify that performance essentially represents what employees accomplish—or fail to accomplish—in their roles, making it a tangible reflection of their contributions.

Employee performance constitutes a fundamental concept in organisational behaviour and human resource management, encapsulating the measurable outcomes of an individual's work within an institutional context. At its core, performance manifests as the tangible results achieved through the application of skills, knowledge, experience, and time management capabilities (Hasibuan, 2001). This construct serves as a critical indicator of organisational health, providing managers with essential data for workforce evaluation, developmental initiatives, and strategic decision-making (Mathis & Jackson, 2002).

Employee performance is a comprehensive measure of work outcomes and professional behaviours demonstrated in fulfilling assigned responsibilities over a specified period (Kasmir, 2019), and applies universally across organisational contexts. Bintoro and Daryanto (2017) emphasise that performance constitutes the measurable results achieved by both profit-oriented and non-profit entities within defined timeframes. The temporal dimension of performance evaluation remains crucial, as it enables organisations to assess productivity trends, identify areas for improvement, and make data-driven decisions regarding workforce development. Furtasan (2017) reinforces this view by highlighting performance as the cumulative output generated through organisational operations, irrespective of profit motives. This conceptualisation underscores performance as a universal metric of organisational effectiveness that transcends sectoral boundaries.

Hery (2012), however, introduces a relational dimension to performance, framing it as an ongoing communicative process between employees and supervisors. This dynamic perspective stresses the importance of clear expectation-setting, mutual understanding of role requirements, and continuous dialogue in shaping and evaluating work outcomes. Collectively, these complementary definitions portray performance as both an output metric and a process. As an output, it reflects quantifiable achievements against predetermined standards (Kasmir, 2019; Bintoro & Daryanto, 2017). As a process, it involves the interpersonal and communicative aspects of work execution and evaluation (Hery, 2012). This dual nature makes performance a central concern for organisational leaders seeking to optimise human capital potential while maintaining productive supervisor–employee relationships. The integration of these perspectives provides a holistic framework for understanding how individual contributions translate into organisational success across diverse contexts.

Academic literature specifically identifies three primary conceptualisations of employee performance. First, the task-fulfilment perspective, articulated by Simamora (in Dina, 2008), defines performance as the degree to which employees successfully meet established job requirements and role expectations. This operational definition emphasises competency-based assessment, where performance is measured against predetermined standards of proficiency. Second, Robbins (2006) advances a behavioural-output perspective, characterising performance as the optimal realisation of expected work results, incorporating both quantitative outputs and qualitative behavioural manifestations. Kasmir (2016) expands this view by including observable work behaviours evident during task execution, recognising that how work is performed often matters as much as the final product. Third, the strategic alignment perspective, proposed by Sidianti (2015), situates individual performance within the broader organisational context. This conceptualisation positions employee outputs as critical components that collectively advance institutional programmes and strategic objectives. Here, performance becomes a measurable indicator of progress towards achieving the organisation's vision and mission, creating a direct link between individual contributions and corporate success.

Contemporary scholarship identifies three interrelated dimensions that together constitute comprehensive performance assessment. The quantitative dimension captures measurable deliverables produced within specified timeframes (Ratnasari, 2019), providing objective metrics for evaluation. The qualitative dimension encompasses adherence to quality standards and behavioural expectations (Kasmir, 2016), acknowledging that the manner in which work is performed significantly impacts organisational outcomes. The strategic dimension evaluates role efficacy in advancing higher-order organisational objectives (Sidianti, 2015), ensuring alignment between individual efforts and institutional priorities.

The determinants of employee performance operate at multiple levels. Individual capabilities, including cognitive abilities and skill-based competencies (Hasibuan, 2001), form the foundation of performance potential. Contextual factors, such as organisational systems and resource availability (Mathis & Jackson, 2002), create the environmental conditions that either facilitate or constrain performance realisation. Motivational drivers, encompassing both intrinsic and extrinsic reward mechanisms (Robbins, 2006), serve as critical energisers that transform potential into actual performance.

Recent empirical investigations, including those by Mahaputra and Saputra (2021), continue to refine understanding of performance determinants, particularly in service-oriented organisational contexts. These studies reinforce the multidimensional nature of performance while exploring emerging factors such as digital competence, adaptability to remote work, and emotional intelligence as contemporary predictors.

The academic consensus positions employee performance as serving dual functions within organisations. As an individual productivity metric, it provides actionable data for talent management decisions. As a collective effectiveness indicator, it offers insights into organisational capabilities and competitive positioning. This dual nature makes performance management a strategic imperative for modern enterprises striving for sustainable success in dynamic business environments. In the context of this study, employee performance can be described as how effectively academic staff members carry out their assigned roles to support the institution's teaching, research, and administrative goals.

2.2.2 Components of Employee Performance in Universities

Employee performance in Nigerian universities is a multidimensional construct that extends beyond traditional efficiency measures to encompass academic, social, and innovative contributions. These are supplemented by evolving dimensions such as

employee engagement, teamwork, and innovation. These six interrelated domains together provide a comprehensive framework for evaluating the performance of academic staff and their contributions to institutional development and national progress (Adebayo & Ogunsina, 2020; Okolie et al., 2021).

Teaching Quality

This forms the most visible dimension of employee performance in universities, as it directly impacts student learning outcomes and graduate quality. In the Nigerian context, teaching quality is not only about knowledge transfer but also about inculcating critical thinking, civic responsibility, and entrepreneurial orientation in students (Omede & Omokhodion, 2018). Despite resource constraints, lecturers are expected to adopt learner-centred pedagogies, use ICT tools, and integrate local knowledge systems to enhance teaching effectiveness. Empirical studies in Nigerian higher education indicate that teaching quality strongly correlates with student satisfaction, retention, and institutional reputation to positioning it as a critical performance benchmark (Olatunji et al., 2020).

Research Productivity

This represents another central performance indicator, reflecting an academic's intellectual contribution to knowledge creation and innovation. In Nigeria, research productivity is commonly measured by peer-reviewed publications, conference papers, and externally funded projects. However, recent scholarship underscores the need to evaluate the impact of research in addressing national challenges such as poverty alleviation, food security, and technological advancement (Okafor & Ugochukwu, 2019). The Federal Government's push for global university rankings and the National Universities Commission (NUC) accreditation standards have further heightened the importance of research productivity as a key determinant of academic performance and institutional competitiveness.

Community Service Activities

These highlight the university's social responsibility role and contribution to societal transformation. In Nigeria, this dimension involves academic staff participating in outreach programmes, consultancy services, policy advisory roles, and collaboration with industries and communities. Such engagement demonstrates the application of academic knowledge to real-world problems, thereby enhancing the university's relevance to national development (Iruonagbe et al., 2017). For instance, Nigerian academics who partner with local governments or non-governmental organisations on literacy programmes, public health campaigns, or agricultural extension services embody high performance in this dimension.

Employee Engagement

Beyond the tripartite mandate, employee engagement has emerged as a crucial performance dimension. Engagement refers to the psychological and emotional commitment of lecturers to their professional roles and institutional goals. In Nigerian universities, engagement is often challenged by poor compensation, high workload, inadequate infrastructure, and unstable academic calendars caused by frequent strikes (Omonijo et al., 2021). Nonetheless, engaged academics demonstrate resilience, passion for teaching and research, and willingness to go beyond contractual obligations. Studies indicate that engagement is positively associated with innovation in pedagogy and improved student outcomes, making it indispensable for sustained performance (Obiageli & Ugwu, 2022).

Employee Teamwork

This also plays a pivotal role in shaping employee performance in universities. Academic work is increasingly collaborative, requiring multidisciplinary partnerships in teaching, joint research publications, and community-based projects. In Nigeria, teamwork is particularly crucial in addressing complex societal challenges, such as climate change or public health crises, which demand collective expertise. Effective teamwork not only enhances research output but also strengthens mentoring relationships between senior and junior staff, thereby fostering capacity building and succession planning (Onah & Anikwe, 2019). A culture of collaboration also reduces unhealthy competition and promotes a more cohesive academic community.

Employee Innovation

This represents the transformative dimension of performance, enabling Nigerian universities to adapt to changing global and local realities. Innovation in this context includes the adoption of e-learning platforms, development of context-specific research solutions, and creation of entrepreneurial ventures that contribute to national economic development. The COVID-19 pandemic demonstrated how innovation became a performance necessity, as academics rapidly shifted to virtual teaching and digital research collaborations (Olayemi & Okoro, 2021). Universities that provide enabling environments for experimentation and reward creative practices tend to cultivate higher levels of staff innovation, thereby enhancing institutional resilience and global competitiveness.

2.2.3 Job Stress

Stress is the emotional and psychological state that is internally represented as part of a stressful work problem (Malhi, Bharti, & Sidhu, 2016). Stress can be further defined as a persistent sense of pressure and reluctance to report to work. Therefore, physical and

emotional reactions that arise from a mismatch between job requirements, capabilities, and resources are referred to as work stress.

A key component of an organization's success is the performance of its employees. High levels of stress in the workplace might cause employees' performance to lag dramatically. Stress is a global phenomenon that affects people from all walks of life. Employees in various businesses have to cope with stress. According to Robbins (2001), "stress is characterized as a dynamic state in which a person encounters a situation, limitation, or requirement that is connected to their desires and for which the result is thought to be both crucial and unclear" (p. 89). A mismatch between an individual's knowledge and talents and the demands and pressures they face can lead to stress. It makes it harder for them to handle tasks. According to Malek (2010: 45), "job stress is an uncomfortable emotional state that a person experiences when the demands of their job do not align with their capacity to handle the circumstances". It is a well-known phenomenon that manifests variably in different work environments and has varied effects on employees. Stress manifests itself in different ways in every workplace nowadays, as it has become a global concern. Employees in the modern workplace typically put in longer hours since their increased obligations demand them to work even harder to achieve the ever-increasing standards for output (Mark & Smith, 2012).

The idea of stress is dynamic and multifaceted. An excessive amount of stress has an impact on the organization's overall performance. As a result, the company or manager needs to appropriately regulate the amount of stress in order to complete the work. It is imperative to accurately identify and quantify all the components that impact stress in order to accomplish this organizational goal (Kamalakumati & Ambika, 2013).

Due to its crippling effects on both an individual's and an organization's performance, job stress is extremely important and has emerged as a major concern for companies. Stress at

work has varying effects on people and organizations over time. Stress reactions might grow more slowly over time (long-term reactions) or they can happen instantly (short-term reactions). The heart system is impacted by stress in terms of physiological reactions. Schwartz, Pickering, and Landsbergis (1996) assert that those in so-called high-strain employment—that is, positions with high demands and little job control—have greater blood pressure than people with other kinds of jobs.

Regardless of all the variables and circumstances, an employee's performance at work is a concern for all firms. As a result, workers are viewed as extremely valuable assets by their companies (Qureshi & Ramay, 2006). According to Armstrong and Baron (1998), an organization's success and effectiveness are directly correlated with the performance of its employees, which in turn drives high organizational performance. Stress is an inevitable byproduct of contemporary life. This state of stress directly affects a person's emotions, mental processes, and physical health (Jayashree, 2010). In the context of this study, stress among can be described as the emotional, mental, and physical pressure lecturers, researchers, and administrative academics experience as a result of their work demands, environment, and expectations.

2.2.4 Dimensions of Job Stress

Job stress among academic staff in universities has emerged as a critical concern for both institutional governance and national development. Stress occurs when job demands exceed an individual's adaptive resources, leading to psychological, physiological, and behavioural strain (Leka & Cox, 2020). For academics, stress undermines personal well-being and negatively affects core institutional responsibilities of teaching, research, and community service. In Nigerian universities, stressors such as excessive workload, student-related challenges, limited career development opportunities, inadequate compensation, and weak organisational support have been consistently identified as major

impediments to optimal performance (Akinmayowa & Kadiri, 2022). These factors create a complex stress environment that undermines institutional effectiveness.

Excessive Workload

Excessive workload is one of the most widely reported stressors among academic staff globally, and it is particularly pronounced in Nigeria. Universities are traditionally labour-intensive institutions, and academic staff often perform multiple roles as teachers, researchers, administrators, and community service providers. In many Nigerian universities, however, chronic underfunding and staff shortages have led to unmanageable student-to-staff ratios, sometimes exceeding 100:1 in public institutions (Okolie et al., 2021). Such imbalances intensify workload pressures, as lecturers are compelled to handle large class sizes, grade voluminous scripts, and supervise an increasing number of undergraduate and postgraduate projects.

Excessive workload has profound consequences for staff health and institutional output. Studies demonstrate that it contributes to burnout, fatigue, reduced research productivity, and high turnover intentions (Khan et al., 2022). In the Nigerian context, the situation is exacerbated by unstable yearly academic calendars caused by industrial disputes, which force lecturers to compress academic activities into shorter periods, further heightening stress (Omonijo et al., 2021). Consequently, excessive workload is not merely an operational issue but a structural stressor that diminishes job satisfaction and undermines academic quality. Excessive workload, therefore, refers to a situation where lecturers and researchers are assigned duties that go beyond reasonable, manageable, or officially prescribed limits, making it difficult for them to perform effectively.

Student-Related Challenges

Student-related challenges constitute another critical dimension of stress for academic staff. These challenges range from poor student preparedness and indiscipline to rising

demands for academic support. Nigerian universities admit high volume of students, many of whom come from diverse educational and socio-economic backgrounds. Academics often struggle to address wide learning gaps, poor study habits, and students' limited critical thinking skills (Adebayo & Ogunsina, 2020).

Furthermore, behavioural issues such as absenteeism, examination malpractice, and disrespect for authority increase stress for lecturers tasked with maintaining discipline. Student evaluation systems, while designed to enhance accountability, sometimes expose lecturers to undue pressure, as negative feedback may not reflect teaching quality but rather strict grading or enforcement of academic standards (Akanni & Ayodele, 2022). In addition, rising cases of student unrest and protests, often triggered by poor learning conditions or socio-political grievances, create unsafe and unstable work environments for academic staff.

The growing culture of entitlement among students also exacerbates stress. Increasingly, students demand higher grades, continuous feedback, and extended consultation hours. This trend, coupled with limited institutional support services such as counselling and academic advising, transfers the burden of student management disproportionately to academic staff (Adedeji & Ojo, 2021). Thus, student-related challenges not only consume valuable academic time but also erode staff morale and contribute significantly to occupational stress. Student-related challenges refer to the difficulties that lecturers and academic staff face as a result of students' behaviours, attitudes, academic preparedness, or engagement levels.

Career Development

Career development opportunities are central to academic motivation and retention, yet limited access to these opportunities often generates stress. In Nigerian universities, career advancement is primarily tied to research productivity, publications in high-impact

journals, and external grants. However, systemic barriers such as inadequate research funding, poor access to international journals, and weak mentoring structures make it difficult for many lecturers to meet promotion requirements (Okafor & Ugochukwu, 2019). This situation creates significant pressure, particularly for early-career academics who are expected to balance teaching, supervision, and administrative tasks with research commitments. The "publish or perish" culture has intensified stress levels, as lecturers face unrealistic expectations amidst scarce resources (Obiageli & Ugwu, 2022). Furthermore, lack of structured professional development programmes, limited opportunities for conference participation, and barriers to international collaborations hinders career progression, leaving many academics frustrated and demotivated. The implications are far-reaching. Limited career growth opportunities heighten stress and contribute to brain drain, as many talented academics migrate to better-resourced institutions abroad. In the long run, poor career development prospects weaken institutional capacity for innovation and research excellence, perpetuating a cycle of stress and underperformance. Career development in the context of this study refers to the continuous, systematic process through which lecturers, researchers, and other academic personnel acquire new knowledge, improve their skills, advance in rank, and enhance their overall professional capacity.

Compensation

Compensation is a key determinant of job satisfaction and stress. In Nigeria, poor remuneration of academic staff has been a longstanding issue, often triggering industrial actions by labour unions such as the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU). Despite the high demands of academic work, salary structures remain uncompetitive compared to global standards and even relative to other sectors within the Nigerian economy (Eze & Okafor, 2020). Inadequate compensation creates multiple stress

pathways. First, financial strain undermines lecturers' ability to meet personal and family needs, leading to emotional distress. Second, low salaries diminish motivation and increase the tendency for academics to seek alternative income sources, such as consulting or part-time teaching, which in turn intensifies workload and stress (Chiekezie & Nwagwu, 2021). Third, disparities in compensation between public and private universities fuel perceptions of inequity and dissatisfaction among staff.

Compensation issues are not limited to salary but also include irregular payment of allowances, lack of research grants, and poor retirement benefits. Such conditions not only increase job stress but also weaken organisational loyalty, contributing to attrition and declining institutional performance (Oladipo & Oyeniran, 2022). Compensation refers to the total package of financial and non-financial rewards that lecturers, researchers, and other academic personnel receive in exchange for their work.

Organisational Support

Organisational support represents a crucial buffer against job stress, yet its absence often aggravates stress among academic staff. Perceived organisational support refers to the degree to which employees believe their institution values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 2020). In Nigerian universities, however, limited institutional support mechanisms have been widely reported.

Poor infrastructure, such as inadequate lecture halls, obsolete laboratories, and unreliable internet facilities, frustrates effective teaching and research. Administrative inefficiencies, including bureaucratic delays in promotions and funding disbursements, further compound stress. Moreover, weak leadership practices, characterised by authoritarianism and lack of participatory governance, erode trust between management and academic staff (Onah & Anikwe, 2019). The absence of psychosocial support systems such as counselling services, wellness programmes, and conflict resolution mechanisms further heightens vulnerability

to stress. Conversely, institutions that provide mentoring schemes, research support, and transparent communication channels have been shown to mitigate stress and enhance staff commitment (Khan et al., 2022). Thus, organisational support is a critical determinant of whether academic staff experience stress as debilitating or manageable. In the context of this study, organisational support refers to the degree to which academic staff perceive that the institution values their contributions, cares about their welfare, and provides the necessary resources to help them succeed in their roles.

Sources of Job Stress

Studies have indicated the following as the most common sources of job stress that could be expected to have a measure of impact on organizational activity and employees' sense of wellbeing and engagement in the workplace (Cartwright & Cooper 2002; Coetzer & Rothmann 2007; De Bruin & Taylor 2006; Labuschagne et al. 2005; Martin 2005; Rollinson 2005):

- Role ambiguity: This aspect relates to the amount of stress experienced by an individual due to vague specifications or constant change regarding the performance expectations, duties, responsibility and constraints that define the individual's job.
- Work relationships: Poor or unsupportive relationships with colleagues and/or line managers, isolation (a perceived lack of adequate relationships) and unfair treatment can all be a potential source of stress.
- Tools and equipment: To perform their job effectively, individuals need to feel they have the appropriate training, resources and equipment.
- Career advancement: This aspect refers to the stress experienced by individuals as a result of a perceived lack of opportunity to further their career prospects within the organization for which they work.

- Job security: Job insecurity is an overall concern of losing one's job or the discontinuation of one's job. Job insecurity also implies uncertainty about the future.

- Lack of job autonomy: The experience of stress is strongly linked to perceptions of decision-making authority and control. This may be due to either job constraints or workplace constraints. When there is great interdependence between the person's tasks and the tasks of others, the person is likely to experience stress.

- Work–home interface: The demands of work have the potential to spill over and interfere with individuals' personal and home lives. This can put a strain on relationships outside work and impact upon the level of stress, especially when the individual experiences a perceived lack of social support at home or from friends.

- Work overload: This aspect refers to the amount of stress experienced by individuals due to the perception that they are unable to cope or be productive with the amount of work allocated to them. When people are expected to do more than the time and resources available permit them to do, they are likely to experience strain.

- Compensation and benefits: The financial rewards that work brings are obviously important because they determine the type of lifestyle that an individual can lead. In addition, they often influence individuals' feelings of self-worth and perceptions of their value to the organization.

- Lack of leader/manager support: A supportive work setting is necessary to alleviate the effects of stress in the workplace. Employees need both tangible and emotional support, including trust and confidence, guidance, recognition, feedback and active interest from the immediate manager.

- Aspects of the job: The fundamental nature of the job could cause stress. This includes

factors such as physical working conditions, lack of challenging and meaningful assignments, type of tasks, and amount of satisfaction derived from the job itself.

Nelson (2003) reports a survey which indicates that 41% of people cite workload issues as the biggest source of stress, with another 31% reporting people or relationship issues and 28% juggling work and personal life. Research has also indicated that experiencing high levels of stress may lead to feelings of anger, anxiety, depression, nervousness, irritability, tension, hypersensitivity to criticism and mental blocks (Cartwright & Cooper 2002; Martin 2005). This may lead to lower job performance, resentment of supervision, boredom, low self-esteem, inability to concentrate and make decisions, apathy, short attention span, burnout and job dissatisfaction. Research has also indicated a relationship between stress and absenteeism and between stress and labour turnover (Coetzer & Rothmann 2007; Mostert, Rothmann, Mostert & Nell 2008).

Consequences of Job Stress

Stress at work is a prevalent issue that can seriously affect workers' mental, emotional, and physical well-being. Moreover, it may result in lower turnover, absenteeism, and job performance.

Physical Consequences of Job Stress

Job stress has been empirically linked to a spectrum of adverse physical health outcomes, ranging from transient somatic complaints to chronic, life-threatening conditions. Musculoskeletal manifestations, including tension headaches, cervical pain, and myofascial discomfort are prevalent among individuals experiencing occupational stress, often arising from prolonged ergonomic strain and sustained psychological arousal (Bongers et al., 2002). Gastrointestinal disturbances, such as irritable bowel syndrome (IBS) and dyspepsia, are similarly associated with chronic stressors, mediated by

dysregulation of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis and gut-brain interactions (Tache & Brunnhuber, 2008).

Cardiovascular pathologies represent one of the most severe consequences of prolonged job stress. Meta-analytic evidence indicates that chronic occupational stressors elevate the risk of hypertension, coronary artery disease, and myocardial infarction by up to 40%, attributable to sustained sympathetic nervous system activation and inflammatory cascades (Kivimäki et al., 2012). Furthermore, stress-induced immunosuppression, characterized by reduced lymphocyte proliferation and antibody production, heightens susceptibility to infections and delays recovery (Segerstrom & Miller, 2004). This immunocompromised state is compounded by behavioral coping mechanisms, such as poor dietary habits and physical inactivity, which are prevalent among stressed populations (Ng & Jeffery, 2003). Sleep dysregulation, another hallmark of job stress, exacerbates these physiological detriments. Insomnia and fragmented sleep architecture, often precipitated by hyperarousal and ruminative thinking, impair cellular repair processes and metabolic homeostasis (Åkerstedt et al., 2002). Chronic sleep deprivation further diminishes cognitive performance, manifesting as reduced attention span, impaired decision-making, and memory deficits (Walker, 2017). Cumulatively, these physical health decrements not only degrade individual well-being but also incur substantial economic costs, with stress-related absenteeism and presenteeism costing global economies an estimated $300 billion annually (Goh et al., 2015)

Emotional Consequences of Job Stress

Chronic occupational stressors are robustly associated with adverse mental health outcomes, including clinically significant anxiety and depressive disorders. Prolonged job stress disrupts emotional regulation, often manifesting as irritability, anger, and mood lability, which impair interpersonal functioning in both professional and personal domains

(Goh et al., 2015). In the United States, workforce surveys indicate that 38% of employees report cognitive fatigue, while 35% experience emotional exhaustion attributable to unmanaged workplace stressors. Burnout, a syndrome conceptualized by Maslach and Leiter (2016) as comprising emotional exhaustion**,** cynicism**,** and reduced personal accomplishment, represents a severe psychological consequence of chronic job stress. This condition is linked to diminished self-efficacy, impaired concentration, and heightened vulnerability to comorbid mental health disorders, including generalized anxiety and major depressive disorder (Bianchi et al., 2015). Longitudinal studies further associate burnout with a 2.5-fold increased risk of developing cardiovascular diseases, mediated by dysregulated cortisol secretion and systemic inflammation (Toker et al., 2012).

The emotional sequelae of job stress extend beyond clinical diagnoses to pervasive quality-of-life impairments. Employees exposed to sustained stressors frequently report frustration, low self-esteem, and anhedonia, which correlate with decreased job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Hakanen et al., 2006). These outcomes underscore the necessity of systemic interventions to mitigate workplace stressors and promote psychological resilience among employees.

Psychological Consequences of Job Stress

Occupational stressors significantly impair cognitive functioning, manifesting as diminished concentration, decision-making capacity, and problem-solving efficiency (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). These deficits correlate with increased error rates and productivity declines, as cognitive overload disrupts working memory and attentional control (Kahneman, 1973). Chronic stress further erodes job engagement and satisfaction, with employees reporting reduced intrinsic motivation and perceived task meaningfulness, consistent with the Job Demands-Resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Psychological sequelae include impaired focus, memory lapses, and suboptimal decision-making, which exacerbate disengagement and social withdrawal (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Prolonged exposure to stressors also elevates turnover intentions and early retirement considerations, as employees perceive diminished organizational support and psychological safety (Griffeth et al., 2000). Such outcomes underscore the necessity of mitigating stressors to sustain cognitive performance and workforce retention

Stressors Associated with teaching in Nigerian Universities

Rapid changes in work environments and fierce competition among firms, including universities, have led to an increase in workplace stress. As they struggle with these changes, management and faculty have faced significant obstacles, which has led to a generalized feeling of stress at work (Kavita & Hassan, 2018). Academic staff frequently struggle with high job expectations, heavy workloads, and the need to deliver research outputs, especially in Pakistani institutions where research is essential for career advancement (Faisal, Noor, & Khair, 2019). All of these elements work together to make educators' difficult situation worse. Stress at work may have a wide range of effects on workers, including bodily symptoms like headaches and palpitations, as well as psychological symptoms like anxiety, sadness, hostility, irritability, and decreased motivation (Masuku & Muchemwa, 2015). Long-term stress can have more serious effects, affecting the heart and neuroendocrine systems, impairing immunity, and causing a variety of medical and mental illnesses (Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua, & Stough, 2001).

The incidence of stress-related problems is also influenced by the psychosocial dynamics that exist in the workplace, such as tension, anxiety, depression, and disturbances in personal life (Chaudhry, 2012). Furthermore, personnel in loud workplaces are more prone to stress than those in calmer settings, and the existence of noisy circumstances in the workplace is strongly associated with elevated stress levels (Banerjee & Mehta, 2016). All

things considered, workplace stress seriously compromises people's health, thus in order to promote a better work environment, proactive measures must be taken to address its underlying causes and put in place efficient stress management techniques. University instructors encounter difficult competitiveness and survival issues as a result of the "publish or perish" mentality that permeates the modern research-focused workplace (Ahmad, Gul, & Kashif, 2022)

Nonetheless, this strategy has backfired and adversely affected teachers' professional roles, which has lowered their morale. More students are now being attended to by university professors in a variety of roles, including teaching, coaching, counseling, and research supervision. Over time, these extra obligations have grown increasingly taxing (Tahseen, 2015). Nigerian universities lecturers must adjust to changing curriculum requirements, adhere to quality assurance protocols, keep current on research findings, pick up new skills, and integrate technology advancements into their administrative responsibilities (Sabherwal, Ahuja, George, & Handa, 2015). Nigerian universities lecturers encounter difficult rivalry and survival issues as a result of the culture that permeates the modern study on the workplace. Insufficient funding and systemic flaws in the teaching profession have affected university faculty members' perspectives and contributed to stress (Khan, Yusoff, & Azam, 2014). One of the biggest obstacles to attaining efficiency and maintaining quality standards is the lack of material and human resources necessary to support educators' work. Teachers may become dissatisfied as a result of this lack of autonomy and support (Haseeb & Sattar, 2018).

Furthermore, universities lecturers experience workplace stress due to job instability, limited opportunities for timely career advancement, poor interpersonal relationships (including a lack of support from peers and higher-ranking colleagues), and a sense of undervaluation (Areekkuzhiyil, 2014). Their work satisfaction and morale may suffer as a

result of these problems. Another source of stress is an imbalance between one's personal and professional lives. Increased work hours, particularly weekends and nights, can have a detrimental effect on teachers' personal lives and make it more difficult for them to strike a work-life balance (Sabherwal et al., 2015).

An inadequate workspace has been linked to psychological issues including anxiety and sadness, which can impact academic staff members' dedication and output (Shrivastava, 2020). Extended workdays, more duties, and sleep and leisure interruptions can all have a detrimental effect on one's ability to function professionally (Mensah, Fosu, & Oteng-Abayie, 2017). According to Usman, Ahmed, Ahmed, and Akbar (2011), educators who have little control over their work schedules and little assistance from their superiors may experience a higher level of work-life imbalance, which can lower psychological well-being, job satisfaction, and the likelihood that they will consider quitting their jobs. Overall, university instructors' well-being and job happiness are impacted by workplace stress brought on by the numerous expectations and difficulties they encounter.

There are now policy obligations to address gender balance concerns in appointments, among other adjustments to the circumstances of university positions. Discrimination based on gender in recruiting, work distribution, and career progression may cause female university employees to feel more stressed, which might lead to a greater turnover rate (Rahoo, Raza, Arain, & Memon, 2017). The difference between work and home obligations is a concern to female academic staff. Research has shown that there are differences between genders in the severity and consequences of stresses that affect both personal and professional facets (Ojeka, Dickson, & Edeoga, 2019).

Several studies have highlighted institutional factors as major sources of stress among university instructors, including workplace culture, university structure, inadequate

managerial techniques, little participation in decision-making, and a lack of autonomy and control over job duties (Yeshaw & Mossie, 2017).

A particular concern is the power relationships and leadership structure. Increased stress levels among educators might result from beliefs of superiority and inferiority fueled by differences in authority, task autonomy, work responsibilities, employment stability, and job rank (Gunbayi, 2014). While some studies do not find significant differences based on job rank, people in junior positions may frequently experience higher levels of stress than those in senior positions due to variations in income, job security, and job standing (Zhi, Malek, & Bahari, 2017). The need to make important choices and deal with emergencies is often associated with stresses in the higher education sector, according to comparisons between university staff and their colleagues in other industries (Adewale, Ghavifekr, & Abdulsalam, 2017).

2.2.5 Presenteeism

Historical Antecedents of Presenteeism

The term 'presenteeism' appears to have first been used in the mid-1950s, when Uris (1955) talked about developing presenteeism and Canfield and Soash (1955) addressed working toward presenteeism rather than away from absenteeism. These applications of the new word imply a positive trait, as presenteeism is 'about showing up' (in modern vernacular) rather than the negative behavior of being absent. Any discussion of presenteeism must begin with an acknowledgement of absenteeism orientation as a "flexible definition." They associated excellent performance with higher presenteeism, and low productivity or poor-quality work with decreased presenteeism. Early research on absenteeism was conducted by the Harvard Business Review; Canfield and Soash in Los Angeles and Uris in New York benefited from the work of Covner (1950), who built on the earlier work of Fox and Scott (1943) and Mayo and Lombard (1944). According to Covner (1950), absenteeism

was a plausible and feasible topic for study because it was likely to occur with "consistency of pattern." Positively speaking, Covner added that his study's findings showed tendencies in the direction of appropriate attendance practices.

The 1950s saw the start of research on "emotional conditions," or feelings, between employees and between supervisory or management levels, as defined by Uris (1955). All of these scholars concurred that physical ailments and similar conditions were not the exclusive reasons for absenteeism. Uris (1955) further asserted that these factors are the psychological contributors that lead to absenteeism by recommending treating it as a "ailment" in and of itself, with causes rooted in circumstances that would frequently be within management's control, drawing on a recommendation from the 1950 Covner article.

As early as 1970, attempts were being made to clarify or qualify what is now known as "presenteeism." In the Archives of Environmental Health, Dr. David Smith's "semantic somersault" produced an antonym for absenteeism. Smith (1970) clarified that there was no such word in the dictionary but that by then it could be heard in print and seen in conversation. He identified three parts to the concept: it is the opposite of absence, it defines the state of being present, and it fluctuates inversely with it, meaning that as one increases, the other lowers. Dr. Smith assured the reader that his information was derived from a May 1969 interview with Uris, acknowledging Uris as the person who may have originated the word. Smith (1970) continued by making a distinction between illness-absenteeism and nonoccupational illness-absence, noting that approximately half of all absences were caused by illness or injury, with the majority of these cases (i.e., at least 90%) falling into the nonoccupational category. Three key specific situations were brought up in the discussion: alcoholism, smoking, and (in a more positive view) employed disabled. Smith concurs with other scholars (Fox & Scott, 1943; Mayo, 1945) that management bears responsibility for absenteeism.

As part of a formal policy, he recommended "interviews and counseling with emphasis on presenteeism" (Smith, 1970). Corporate downsizing and mergers in the 1980s and 1990s produced a white-collar workforce eager to impress senior management by working past regular hours, resulting in a application of the concept of presenteeism. A new meaning for the term emerged from the occurrence of physical presence combined with decreased productivity by such "hangers-around." Aronsson, Gustafsson, and Dallner (2000), for instance, identified slimmed-down organizations as a significant factor; they cited an earlier Aronsson report (1999) that found many formal sector workers working longer hours than those for which they had agreed to be paid. They also discovered that changes made to the sick pay system in the 1990s, including lower benefit levels, were among the factors contributing to sick leave absenteeism.

Concept of Presenteeism

Cooper (1996) describes presenteeism as persisting at work despite illness or overworking to the point of diminished productivity. Surveys indicate 75% of UK academics work while unwell, often due to fear of workload buildup or stigma (Times Higher Education, 2019), while 80% report stress-related productivity losses (UCU, 2020). Presenteeism leads to reduced performance (Lui & Johnston, 2019)—is prevalent in academia due to structural pressures such as job insecurity, high teaching loads, and the "publish or perish" culture (Kinman & Wray, 2013). Such norms frame sick leave as career-limiting, perpetuating cycles of self-sacrifice (Johns, 2010). Chronic presenteeism correlates with burnout, mental health decline, and reduced research and teaching quality (Kinman, 2014; Schuster & Rhodes, 2020). Productivity losses from presenteeism in knowledge sectors surpass those from absenteeism, harming institutional outcomes (Dewa et al., 2014). Paradoxically, academia’s glorification of overwork undermines its pursuit of excellence. Addressing this issue requires systemic reforms, including workload limits, mental health

resources, and destigmatizing rest (Kinman & Wray, 2018). Without such measures, academia risks worsening attrition and eroding educational standards.

Two methods emerged: one describing presenteeism as a result of illness, and another emphasizing the impact of various illnesses on productivity loss (Johns, 2010; Karanika Murray & Cooper, 2018). The concept of presenteeism as working through illness is universally accepted. The second approach has been criticized for confusing cause and effect (Karnika-Murray & Cooper, 2018). However, if the significance of labor and its purpose are excluded from this concept, a purely health-related focus in the workplace would only provide a partial understanding of presenteeism.

However, if the significance of labor and its purpose are excluded from this concept, a purely health-related focus in the workplace would only provide a partial understanding of presenteeism. Thus, researchers suggest a presenteeism model that incorporates both productivity and wellness needs. It contends that presenteeism is an adaptive behavior that helps to balance health limitations and performance expectations, particularly when it comes to non-contagious medical conditions (such as ncommon health problems), which include musculoskeletal disorders and mental health issues, the latter of which consist of stress, depression, and anxiety disorders. Presenteeism occurs when workers who should be recuperating at home due to a physical or mental health issue rather appear at workplace (Halbesleben et al., 2014). It is important to note that up to a third to half of employees continue to report to work despite being ill, despite the fact that such presenteeism costs the company more than absenteeism (Haque et al., 2019; Taifor et al., 2011; Wee et al., 2019). It occurs when employees continue to work in unhealthy conditions, causing them to be unable to perform their jobs (Collins & Cartwright, 2012; Ferreira, Martinez, Cooper & Gui, 2015).

Types of Presenteeism

Sickness Presenteeism

The concept of sickness presenteeism refers to the phenomenon that people, despite complaints and ill-health that should prompt them to rest and take sick leave, go to work in any case. ickness presenteeism may be expected to be related to increased risk of ill health, primarily because it restricts opportunities for recuperation. This presumption, however, rests more on general knowledge of the importance of recuperation than on any wide-ranging empirical investigations of the consequences of sickness presenteeism. Recent stress research, however, has provided evidence that inadequate recuperation after acts of straining as a mediating mechanism in the relationship between stress and ill-health.1 Furthermore, in experimental studies, significant associations have been found between mental exhaustion and susceptibility to the common cold (Cohan et al, 2022).

Nonwork Presenteeism

Nonwork-related presenteeism was initially defined as "attending work, but not performing effectively on the job due to a lack of concentration" (Johns, 2010, 2011; Van Vegchel et al., 2001). However, D'Abate & Eddy (2007) subsequently concluded that this lack of concentration resulted in employees attending work but engaging in personal activities. Typical examples include employees who surf the Web, reserve vacations while at the office, or chat online. This minimalist behavior can be a form of presenteeism where workers show up so as not to be accused of shirking. Few studies exist on nonwork-related presenteeism, even though it is thought to have a much greater financial impact (productivity loss) than absenteeism or the analogous phenomenon of sickness presenteeism. Non-work-related presenteeism' means that employees are mentally absent while they are healthy and present at work.

Job-Stress related Presenteeism

Job-stress related presenteeism occurs when employees fail to focus their mental concentration on work due to job stress (Gilbreath and Karimi, 2012) and non-work-related presenteeism arises when employees involve in their personal events instead of working activities at job (Wan, Downey and Stough, 2014).

Affective-motivational Absence Presenteeism

Presenteeism characterized with a physical presence coupled with psychological absence. This suggests that presenteeism is associated with affective-motivational states such as engagement, addiction, and job satisfaction. When workers show up at work with depleted physical resources due to illness, their affective and motivational states are affected; this can lead to a decrease in satisfaction due to the inability of workers to achieve expected outcomes. Psychological presence is jeopardized by illness, and workers disengage from work psychologically but feel obliged for various reasons to be present physically (Karanika-Murray et al., 2015).

Action-based Presenteeism

This includes visible actions that impact productivity in addition to the emotional reaction. When addressing presenteeism, a performance-centric strategy should take into account both its behavioral and emotional components (Lohaus & Habermann, 2019; Ruhle et al., 2020). For both the public and private sectors, presenteeism is a problem (Borges et al., 2023). Employee awareness is the root cause of action-based presenteeism, however not all actions that are not connected to work during working hours are inefficient. According to McGregor et al., (2016), action-based presenteeism should only be categorized as behaviors that reduce job productivity. Breaks are crucial.

Underlying Causes of Presenteeism not Related to Medical Conditions

Fear of Job Loss

Due to their fear of losing their jobs and receiving criticism for taking too much time off, employees are more prone to handle personal business while on the job. An average of seven days of presenteeism per employee was reported in a May 2008 study for Cigna. This means that although employees were present, they were more preoccupied with personal matters than work-related duties (Gurchiek, 2009). For instance, according to Immen (2009), 71% of American workers were more inclined to report to work even during the peak of the swine flu pandemic because they were afraid of losing their jobs or being late for a work deadline. Therefore, presenteeism can impact healthy workers who are more preoccupied with personal matters, such scheduling doctor's appointments for themselves or family members, ensuring high-quality care for an aged parent, or discussing a child's academic achievement with instructors. An employee may miss 2.4 hours of work every week due to these unrelated illness conditions (Gurchiek, 2009).

Passion for Strong Duty

To avoid disappointing their teammates, many employees show up for work. While just one in four employees went to work because they needed the money, two-fifths of employees cited their work ethic, devotion, or belief that their firm or coworkers required them for coming to work despite feeling unwell or having other challenges (Gurchiek, 2009). Regarding workplace standards and expectations, managers need to be aware of the subliminal signals that are conveyed to staff members. When workers see their supervisors working while ill, they are less inclined to seek sick leave themselves, according to Britton of the Office Team. When workers are ill, managers might try to foster a healthy work environment by encouraging them to take time off and stay at home. Setting an example and making it clear that they want workers to stay at home when ill in order to promote a

speedier recovery and reduce the risk of transmitting infectious diseases like the flu and colds are two ways to achieve this (Gurchiek. 2009)

Economic Pressure

Managers are compelled to put tremendous pressure on their employees to perform due to economic challenges and growing workloads. As a result, finding a good work-life balance has become a difficulty that all employees face. According to a 2009 Corporate Executive Board study of over 50,000 employees worldwide, work-life balance is currently ranked as one of the most significant workplace characteristics in the present economic climate, second only to pay. Additionally, those who believe they have a better work-life balance often put in 21% more effort than those who don't. Unfortunately, in an effort to stay competitive, many firms steer clear of meeting this requirement. Furthermore, according to the Corporate Executive Board (2009), 53% of workers believed they had a good work-life balance in 2006; by the first quarter of 2009, that percentage had dropped to 30%. Many employers are unwilling to wait 18 months to see the benefits of wellness programs, even though positive reports from health care experts show that companies that have implemented these programs are beginning to see the first real return on their investments — primarily in the form of lower healthcare costs (Bilski, 2008)

Consequences of Presenteeism

Research has demonstrated that presenteeism lowers workforce productivity (Collins et al., 2005), which means there are several additional hidden costs involved as well (Goetzel et al., 2004; Hemp, 2004). This is because decreased productivity affects production costs. Presenteeism has mostly been found to be prevalent among workers with minor illnesses, such as migraine, gastrointestinal issues, asthma, etc. Although workers with these diseases typically do not take sick days, their productivity is typically lower than usual

(Ceniceros, 2001; Goetzel et al, 2004). This has a negative effect on both output and overall organizational productivity. According to the World Health Organization (2021), the majority of organizational efforts to reduce health hazards for workers have focused on physical threats, with little attention paid to psychological effects. Sickness Presenteeism Syndrome is the outcome of this gradual effect on workers that most companies and even workers ignore.

Workers who fail to report for work on time have been a problem in organizations for a number of years. Much effort has been made to lower absenteeism levels, mainly due to the impact it has on ongoing costs that are reflected on company balance sheets (Harrison & Martochio, 1998; Johns, 1997, 2008, 2009). Organizations are placing more pressure on workers to report for work even when they are feeling ill, or when their illness does not need hospitalization or bed rest, as a result of the focus on consistently lowering absenteeism. Moreover, it is frequently seen that workers choose to report to work whenever they are ill, fostering a greater feeling of accountability for their employment. This demonstrates the high degree of involvement and dedication that staff members have for the company. Because of thinner organizational structures and increased job responsibilities brought about by staff reductions to boost efficiency, employees' availability at work is now unavoidable. Employers are making an attempt to assist staff in adjusting to internal changes and the adverse economic results, but loyalty, engagement, and trust are still declining. According to Watson Wyatt Worldwide (2017), most employers have not created policies that will alleviate the stress of required long hours, a lack of work-life balance, and the fear of losing their jobs, even though productivity and health management programs have been able to reduce absenteeism and health care costs. Because these conditions have a detrimental impact on productivity, management's failure

to recognize employees' fear of losing their jobs may result in issues with continuous presenteeism.

2.2.6 Interplay between Job Stress, Presenteeism and Employee Performance

The complex relationship between job stress, presenteeism, and employee performance forms a critical nexus in organisational psychology, with each element dynamically influencing the others in ways that significantly affect workplace productivity and employee well-being. This tripartite relationship operates through interconnected psychological and behavioural pathways that create either virtuous or vicious cycles depending on organisational conditions and individual coping resources (Nixon et al., 2022).

Job stress serves as the primary catalyst in this relationship emerging when employees perceive an imbalance between work demands and their capacity to meet them. Chronic stress activates two counterproductive behavioural patterns that undermine performance. First, it triggers presenteeism—the phenomenon of employees attending work while physically or psychologically unwell. Paradoxically, stressed workers often increase their work attendance despite diminished capacity, driven by job insecurity, perfectionist tendencies, or organisational cultures that stigmatise absenteeism (Shimura et al., 2021). This presenteeism then manifests in reduced performance quality through impaired concentration, slower cognitive processing, and increased error rates. Research indicates that presenteeism-related productivity losses frequently exceed those from absenteeism, as impaired workers remain at work for extended periods without adequate recovery (Skagen & Collins, 2021).

Acute stress may temporarily enhance performance through heightened alertness, whereas chronic stress invariably degrades it. Presenteeism acts as the transmission mechanism in this process: stressed employees who persistently attend work experience gradual resource

depletion, as explained by the Conservation of Resources theory, leading to exhaustion cycles that further erode performance capabilities (Bakker & de Vries, 2021). This creates a self-perpetuating loop: declining performance generates additional stress as employees struggle to meet expectations, which in turn exacerbates presenteeism behaviours.

Organisational factors significantly influence this dynamic. Work environments with high job demands but low autonomy, as posited by Karasek's Job Demand-Control Model, create great conditions for this negative triad to flourish (Sakuraya et al., 2020). Conversely, workplaces that provide adequate job resources—including social support, skill discretion, and recovery opportunities—can break this cycle by mitigating stress effects and reducing the performance impacts of presenteeism. The Job Demands-Resources model helps explain why some employees maintain performance despite stress: sufficient resources buffer demand effects and enable functional coping strategies (Schaufeli, 2021). The temporal dimension of these relationships reveals an important pattern. Initially, presenteeism may appear to sustain performance by maintaining workforce presence, but over time it becomes a performance liability as cumulative stress effects surface. This explains why organisations with high presenteeism often experience gradual performance declines rather than sudden collapses—the deterioration occurs incrementally as stressed, present employees become less effective (Lohaus & Habermann, 2021). Individual differences also play a moderating role. Employees with strong recovery skills and stress resilience experience weaker negative relationships between these factors, while those with perfectionist tendencies or financial pressures show stronger associations between stress and counterproductive presenteeism (Mao et al., 2022). Personality traits such as conscientiousness may initially drive presenteeism but eventually contribute to performance declines when stress exceeds coping capacities (Karanika-Murray & Biron, 2020).

Practical implications for organisations emerge from understanding these relationships. Interventions should simultaneously address stress sources through job redesign, presenteeism drivers via culture change, and performance supports with adequate resource provision. Monitoring these three factors together provides early warning of organisational health issues, as changes in one element inevitably affect the others. By recognising their interdependence, organisations can develop more holistic approaches to maintaining both employee well-being and sustainable performance (Garrow et al., 2023).

2.2.7 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for conducting this study is demonstrated in Figure 2.1.

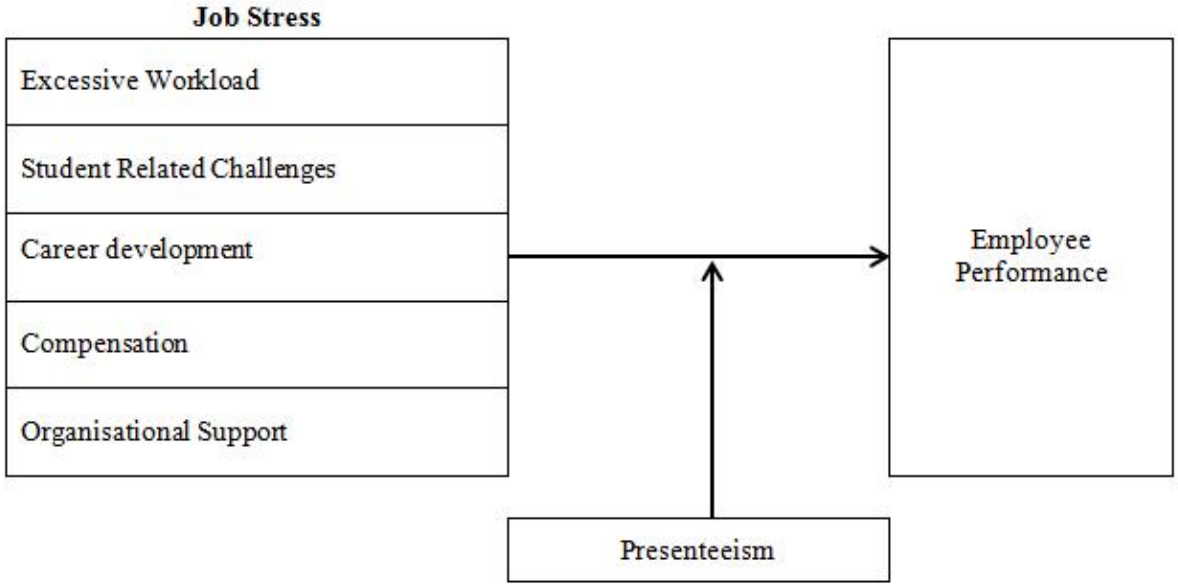

Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework for the study
Source: Researcher's Conceptualization (2025)

This conceptual framework elucidates the complex interplay between workplace stressors, presenteeism behaviors, and employee performance outcomes. Drawing from the theoretical foundations especially the Job Demands-Resources model and Conservation of Resources theory, the model presents a dynamic system where organizational factors, individual responses, and performance consequences interact through multiple pathways.

The framework originates with three key antecedent conditions that create psychological strain in work environments. Excessive job demands - encompassing quantitative workload, emotional labour requirements, and cognitive load - establish the primary pressure point. These demands become particularly detrimental when coupled with low job control, characterized by limited autonomy in decision-making and task execution. The third critical antecedent emerges from insufficient social support systems, where employees lack adequate backing from both supervisory and peer networks. These three factors collectively form a potent stress triad that initiates the model's cascade effects.

Job stress emerges as the central mediating mechanism, representing the psychological and physiological toll of sustained exposure to demanding work conditions without adequate resources. The stress response manifests through two distinct yet interrelated pathways. The first follows a health-impairment process, where chronic stress contributes to both acute and chronic health problems ranging from temporary illnesses to more serious conditions like hypertension or anxiety disorders. The second pathway represents a direct behavioral response, where stressed employees develop maladaptive coping strategies, including presenteeism.

Presenteeism operates as a critical juncture in the model. Contrary to superficial appearances of dedication, presenteeism typically reflects deeper organizational issues and predicts subsequent performance declines. The framework identifies multiple routes to presenteeism: as a consequence of health problems, as a direct response to job stress, and as a behavior reinforced by workplace cultures that stigmatize legitimate absenteeism. The performance consequences form the final component of this integrated system. Presenteeism contributes to performance degradation through several mechanisms: impaired cognitive functioning, reduced concentration capacity, increased error rates, and diminished creativity. Importantly, the model recognizes that these performance effects

often manifest gradually, creating a deceptive appearance of normalcy while productivity and quality erode beneath the surface.

Several moderating factors influence the strength of these relationships. Social support emerges as a particularly significant buffer, capable of attenuating the link between job stress and presenteeism. Individual differences in resilience, coping strategies, and personal circumstances further shape how these dynamics play out across different employees.

The framework holds particular relevance for understanding workforce challenges among academic staff in selected universities in Edo State, where unique cultural and economic factors may intensify these relationships. The model suggests that interventions targeting any single component - whether reducing excessive demands, enhancing control and support, addressing health issues, or changing presenteeism norms - can disrupt the cycle and improve overall organizational health. By mapping these interconnected relationships, the framework provides a comprehensive tool for diagnosing and addressing the causes of performance problems relating to stress and presenteeism in Nigerian work settings.

2.3 Theoretical Review

2.3.1 Goal-Setting Theory of Employee Performance

Since its inception in the late 1960s, goal-setting theory has emerged as one of the most influential frameworks in organizational psychology, fundamentally reshaping our understanding of work motivation and performance enhancement (Locke, 1968; Latham & Yukl, 1975). The theory's robust empirical foundation, derived from extensive laboratory and field studies, demonstrates that properly structured goals significantly influence formal work performance through two primary mechanisms: goal clarity and goal difficulty. Locke and Latham's comprehensive theoretical model establishes a direct causal relationship between specific goal characteristics and subsequent task performance, with

particular emphasis on the motivational properties of precise and challenging objectives (Locke & Latham, 2002, 2006).

At its philosophical core, the theory rests on the assumption that conscious intentions govern human action, with goals representing deliberate targets of achievement. This cognitive perspective explains why specific, challenging goals consistently outperform vague "do your best" instructions, typically yielding performance improvements of 11-25% (Locke & Latham, 1990). The theory's core proposition maintains that optimal performance occurs under specific conditions: when goals are both clearly defined and sufficiently demanding, when they serve as measurable performance standards linked to systematic feedback mechanisms, and when they elicit strong psychological commitment from employees. This proposition has been empirically validated across diverse organizational settings, showing consistent effects on productivity metrics (Locke & Latham, 1990). The motivational impact of goals is further moderated by several psychological factors, including individual ability levels, self-efficacy beliefs, and the presence of explicit temporal boundaries (Lunenburg, 2011). Crucially, the theory distinguishes between assigned goals and internalized goals, noting that externally imposed objectives only influence behavior to the degree that they achieve conscious acceptance by the individual (Locke & Latham, 2002).

Developed through systematic investigation of work-related task performance, goal-setting theory identifies conscious goal specifically and optimal challenge level as two essential conditions for effective behavioral change. These conditions manifest through five interrelated principles that collectively enhance goal effectiveness: clarity, challenge, commitment, feedback, and appropriate task complexity. Clear goals provide unambiguous direction, enabling precise measurement of outcomes and accurate reinforcement of desired behaviors. The SMART (Specific, Measurable, Achievable,

Relevant, Time-bound) framework operationalizes this principle in organizational practice, contrasting sharply with vague directives that fail to motivate or guide behavior (Locke & Latham, 2002).

Challenging goals operate through their capacity to mobilize effort and sustain persistence, though the theory cautions against excessive difficulty that might undermine motivation. Goal commitment emerges as a critical mediator in this process, with research indicating higher commitment levels when employees participate in goal formation and perceive alignment between personal and organizational objectives (Latham & Yukl, 1975). Feedback mechanisms serve a dual purpose of facilitating progress monitoring and allowing for necessary goal adjustments, with both external and self-generated feedback proving valuable. For complex tasks, the theory recommends strategic decomposition into manageable subgoals to prevent cognitive overload and maintain motivation (Locke & Latham, 2006).

The theoretical construct of a goal as "the target or purpose of an action" (Locke & Latham, 2002, p. 705) has found widespread application across multiple disciplines. Public health initiatives (NICE, 2014; NHBLI, 2000), educational interventions (Clements & Kamau, 2018), athletic performance (Anshel, Weinberg, & Jackson, 1992), clinical settings (Hurn, Kneebone, & Cropley, 2006), and organizational behavior modification (Lunenburg, 2011) all incorporate goal-setting principles. Meta-analytic evidence indicates that goal-setting components appear in approximately 34% of behavioral interventions, particularly in physical activity promotion (Conn et al., 2014), underscoring the theory's practical utility.

However, the theory acknowledges boundary conditions and potential pitfalls, noting that improperly designed goals or inappropriate applications can paradoxically impair performance. These caveats emphasize the need for nuanced implementation that

considers situational factors, individual differences, and the dynamic nature of organizational environments (Locke & Latham, 2002).

The theory continued relevance in contemporary organizational practice stems from its robust empirical support and practical applicability. Recent adaptations have extended its principles to knowledge work, creative professions, and team-based environments, while maintaining focus on the fundamental psychological processes that make goals such powerful motivational tools. As organizations face increasingly complex challenges, goal-setting theory provides a flexible yet scientifically grounded framework for enhancing individual and collective performance while acknowledging the importance of proper implementation and contextual adaptation.

2.3.2 Expectancy Theory

In contemporary organizational psychology, Victor Vroom's Expectancy Theory stands as a seminal framework for understanding employee motivation. This cognitive approach examines how individuals make conscious choices about their work effort based on anticipated outcomes. The theory's enduring relevance stems from its ability to explain motivational dynamics across diverse workplace settings and cultural contexts.

The theory operates through three interconnected psychological mechanisms that employees evaluate when deciding their level of engagement. First, individuals assess whether increased effort will likely yield improved performance. This effort-to-performance expectancy depends on multiple factors including their skill set, available resources, role clarity, and self-confidence in their abilities. Employees constantly gauge whether they possess the necessary competencies and tools to translate additional effort into measurable results. Subsequently, workers evaluate whether achieving performance targets will actually lead to desired outcomes. This performance-to-outcome instrumentality represents a critical judgment about organizational trustworthiness.

Employees examine historical patterns of reward distribution, the transparency of evaluation systems, and the credibility of management promises. In environments where high performance consistently goes unrewarded, this instrumentality linkage weakens, significantly diminishing motivational forces. The final component involves assessing the personal value of potential rewards. Outcome valence varies dramatically across individuals based on their unique needs, life circumstances, and cultural backgrounds. While some employees prioritize financial incentives, others value professional development opportunities, work-life balance, or public recognition. This subjective valuation process explains why standardized reward systems often fail to motivate entire workforces equally.

Modern organizations face both opportunities and challenges in applying these principles. The rise of hybrid work models has complicated traditional approaches to maintaining clear expectancies and instrumentalities. Digital nomadism and gig economy arrangements require innovative solutions to sustain motivational linkages when physical supervision diminishes. Multigenerational workforces demand reward systems that accommodate vastly different valence preferences across age cohorts.

Sophisticated HR practices now integrate Expectancy Theory with advanced analytics to create more effective motivation systems. Predictive algorithms help identify individual valence profiles, while real-time performance dashboards strengthen effort-performance expectancies. Transparent bonus calculators and skill-based pay structures reinforce the performance-reward connection. These technological applications demonstrate how traditional psychological theory can evolve to meet contemporary workplace demands.

The theory's multiplicative formula reveals important organizational insights. The zero-sum principle shows that motivation collapses completely if any single factor reaches zero. Compensation effects demonstrate how exceptional rewards can offset moderate

instrumentality doubts. Most importantly, the nonlinear relationship means small improvements in the weakest factor often yield disproportionate motivational gains compared to equal improvements in stronger areas. Implementation requires careful diagnosis of current motivational profiles through climate surveys and reward effectiveness analyses. Targeted interventions might include training programs to fix broken effort-performance links, process changes to repair performance-reward disconnects, or total rewards redesign to address valence gaps. Continuous monitoring through motivational metrics allows for ongoing refinement of these strategies.

As workplace dynamics continue evolving, Expectancy Theory maintains its relevance by adapting to new contexts. Neuroscience research is uncovering the biological underpinnings of expectancy formation, while AI applications promise more personalized motivation systems. Cross-cultural studies are expanding our understanding of how motivational calculus varies globally. These developments ensure that Vroom's foundational theory will continue informing organizational practices for decades to come.

The theory's greatest strength lies in its recognition of motivation as a rational, cognitive process. Unlike behaviorist approaches that focus solely on external stimuli, or humanist theories that emphasize innate needs, Expectancy Theory acknowledges the complex decision-making employees undertake when choosing their level of engagement. This makes it particularly valuable for knowledge workers whose productivity depends heavily on discretionary effort.

Ultimately, organizations that master the art of aligning employee expectancies, strengthening performance-reward instrumentalities, and delivering meaningful valences will enjoy sustainable competitive advantages. In an era where human capital represents the primary source of organizational value, understanding and applying these motivational principles becomes not just advantageous but essential for long-term success. The

continued evolution of Expectancy Theory promises to yield even more sophisticated tools for unlocking human potential in the workplace**.**

2.3.3 Two- Factor Theory of Employee Performance

The study of workplace motivation has been profoundly shaped by two landmark theories that continue to inform organizational practices decades after their introduction. Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (1966) and Hackman & Oldham's Job Characteristics Model (1976, 1980) offer complementary yet distinct perspectives on what drives employee satisfaction and performance. Herzberg's groundbreaking research with engineers and accountants revealed a fundamental dichotomy in workplace factors. His findings distinguished between what he termed "hygiene factors" - elements like company policies, supervision quality, compensation, interpersonal relations, and working conditions - and "motivator factors" including achievement, recognition, work nature, responsibility, and advancement opportunities. This distinction emerged from simple yet powerful questioning about what made employees feel either bad or good about their jobs.

The theory's central proposition maintains that hygiene factors operate as baseline requirements - their absence creates dissatisfaction, but their presence alone doesn't generate positive motivation. They function much like the foundation of a building: essential for stability but not what makes the structure remarkable. Motivator factors, conversely, serve as the architectural features that create appeal and engagement. This explains why competitive salaries prevent dissatisfaction but don't necessarily inspire outstanding performance, while meaningful recognition and challenging work often do.

While subsequent research has questioned the strict separation of these factors (Ambrose & Kulik, 1999), Herzberg's enduring contribution lies in highlighting job enrichment's potential. By intentionally designing work to incorporate more motivator factors (Grant et al., 2010), organizations can transform routine jobs into sources of genuine engagement.

Building on this foundation, Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Model provided a more granular framework for job design. Their model identifies five core dimensions that make work motivating: skill variety (using diverse abilities), task significance (work's impact on others), task identity (completing whole pieces of work), autonomy (freedom in work approaches), and feedback (clear performance information).

These characteristics theoretically create three critical psychological states: experiencing work as meaningful, feeling responsibility for outcomes, and knowing actual results. When present, these states lead to positive outcomes like job satisfaction and reduced absenteeism. However, research has shown mixed support for these mediating states, with many studies focusing instead on direct links between job characteristics and outcomes (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Parker & Wall, 1998).

The model also introduces growth need strength as a moderating variable, suggesting that employees with stronger development desires respond more positively to enriched jobs. While theoretically appealing, empirical support for this moderation remains inconsistent (Graen, Scandura, & Graen, 1986), highlighting the complexity of individual differences in workplace motivation. Together, these theories form a powerful framework for understanding and enhancing employee motivation. They remind us that while basic workplace requirements must be met to prevent dissatisfaction, true engagement comes from designing work that offers challenge, meaning, and opportunities for growth. Modern organizations continue to apply these insights through job crafting initiatives, flexible work arrangements, and performance systems that emphasize autonomy and feedback - proving the enduring relevance of these foundational motivation theories.

2.3.4 Job Insecurity Theory of Presenteeism

Job insecurity refers to subjective perceptions about employment conditions, specifically, about losing job stability and continuity of employment relationship with the organization

(Bernardi et al., 2008). Evidence supports the notion that job insecurity is not necessarily associated with job instability or employment relationships instability per se (Ahn & Mira, 2002; Elman & O'Rand, 2002). Job insecurity is not about the fear or expectation of losing one's job per se. It is a subjective judgment concerning future potential job loss, and reduced confidence in future job stability. Generally, job insecurity has been associated with negative job-related outcomes. For example, when faced with perceived job insecurity, employees may report lower and reduced motivations due to decreased job satisfaction and organization commitment. Job insecurity may even foster a strong tendency or desire to depart from the organization (Davy et al., 1997; Probst, 2000, 2002). In a meta-analysis, Sverke et al. (2002) found that job insecurity is negatively correlated with job satisfaction, trust, job involvement, and positively correlated with employees' turnover intentions.

The theory of job insecurity and presenteeism suggests that employees who are insecure about their jobs may be more likely to come to work while sick in order to keep their jobs. Job insecurity is a personal experience that involves assessing the likelihood of losing a job and whether the individual has the resources to cope with that threat. Job insecurity can lead to increased stress and anxiety, and can reduce an employee's commitment to the organization. Presenteeism is defined as being at work when you should be at home, either because you are sick or because you are working long hours. Johns (2010) suggests that job insecurity is negatively correlated with presenteeism. However, other research suggests that employees with job insecurity are more likely to work while sick. Such has indicated a correlation between a higher incidence of presenteeism and the impression of work insecurity. Depending on their degree of job insecurity, employees choose whether or not to report for duty while ill. Employees' job insecurity rises during organizational reorganizations and layoffs, which contributes to a comparatively high

frequency of absenteeism. This is due to the fact that job insecurity among employees rises in tandem with increased workload and job competitiveness following organizational reorganization and layoffs. Therefore, in order to maintain their employment and improve job security, employees would choose to work when unwell rather than take a break or visit the hospital. However, since the epidemic devastated the international economy, businesses all over the world have drastically reduced their operations, and salary cutbacks and layoffs have become commonplace. This has resulted in new changes in the employment relationship between corporations and their employees, and it has also caused individuals to respond differently than they did previously when they felt uncertain about their jobs. Mainland China is no exception.

2.3.5 Organisational Culture Theory of Presenteeism

Presenteeism is a behavioral manifestation of an organizational culture that values long hours over productivity. It can be defined as employees being physically present at work but not functioning at their best. This can include working while ill, working long hours, or not taking breaks or annual leave. This theory suggests that certain aspects of an organization's culture can encourage or perpetuate presenteeism. It holds that expectation around attendance and productivity can create a culture where employers feel pressured to attend work despite health issues. The arguments are employees may fear being stigmatized or penalized for taking time off for health matters. This is often premised on leadership attitudes and behavior with the potential of spurring presenteeism. The overemphasis on productivity and performance, leading to a culture where employees prioritize work over their health and well-being. This often comes with excessive work load and poor workload management, leading to stress, burnout and presenteeism. Another angle to this is the condition of low employee engagement, resulting in a situation where employees feel disconnected from the organization and its values.

Organizational structures reveal much about the way senior management thinks about the nature and key activities of its business. Do they emphasize geography? Customers? Manufacturing? Insights into senior management's thinking about strategic direction lie in an analysis of the structure—and the changes therein—that they built. We observe TEN basic forms of organizational structure: functional, product, customer, geographic, divisional, matrix, amorphous, hybrid, and some current ideas that are creating the new, emerging forms—which the lead author calls "infocracies." "Infocracies" because the power to make key decisions -emanates not from the family name as it did in the Aristocratic Age, and not from the title as it did in the Bureaucratic Age, but from the installed hard IT and soft human processes that utilize increasingly comprehensive information systems—such that the power really does flow from the information network. Below we will describe each of these forms, present a typical organizational chart, and outline briefly some of their chief advantages and disadvantages.

The functional form divides work by type, e.g., marketing, finance, production, and administration. Although the functions may vary from industry to industry, the structure's organizing concepts are the skills needed to perform clusters of tasks; plants are assigned to the manufacturing function, sales perhaps in its own "arm," and marketing perhaps as a separate division. The underlying assumption in a functional structure is that the key, strategic organizational capabilities lie in the various functional skills—and hence they are emphasized and central. Functional organizations tend to be centralized in that it is only at the senior level that the melding of the activities of the various functions occur, hence the term "general management.

Organizational structure is a key element in the functioning of an effective organization. It is also a common lever that many executives "pull" in the attempt to increase the efficiency of their companies. If an organization's structure does not fit well with its

environment and internal systems, it will be unable to function at high levels of effectiveness and efficiency. Yet seldom is there a clearly appropriate organizational structure for any one situation. Managers charged with redesigning or influencing the design of organizations should keep in mind the basic considerations of fit, differentiation, integration, technology, size, span of control, and line authority, as they seek to shape or create organizational structures that will work. As they do, they have a variety of alternatives from which to choose—and a vast arena of possible variations. Further, the new Information Age organizations—in which powerful new information networks are distributing, de facto, greater decision-making power to people in all reaches—are evolving into new forms. These "infocracies" are distributing power to the who have access to both customers and information databases and can therefore merge the two to make good business decisions.

2.3.6 The Conservation of Resource (COR) Theory of Presenteeism

The Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory provides a compelling framework for understanding the complex phenomenon of presenteeism - the tendency of employees to attend work while unwell or impaired. Developed by Stevan Hobfoll in 1989, this theory offers valuable insights into why workers persist in coming to work despite health conditions that would logically suggest they should stay home.

The central argument of COR Theory lies the fundamental premise that individuals are motivated to obtain, retain, and protect their valued resources. These resources encompass four broad categories: material resources like salary and equipment; personal resources including self-esteem and optimism; conditional resources such as job security and work-life balance; and energetic resources like time and emotional stamina. The theory posits that stress occurs when these resources are threatened, lost, or when individuals fail to gain sufficient resources after significant investment. Presenteeism emerges as a strategic,

though often counterproductive, response to resource threats in the workplace. Employees facing job insecurity or punitive absence policies may choose to work while ill to protect their financial stability or career prospects. This behavior reflects the theory's principle of resource loss primacy - the idea that people experience the pain of losing resources more acutely than the pleasure of gaining them. Even when physically present, these employees often experience declining productivity and engagement, creating a vicious cycle where their reduced performance further threatens their resource position.

Several mechanisms explain how presenteeism develops and persists through the COR lens. First, the depletion of energetic resources like sleep and emotional resilience impairs cognitive function and work capacity. Modern work practices, particularly mobile work and constant connectivity, exacerbate this depletion by blurring boundaries between work and personal time. Second, organizational cultures that value face time over actual output create environments where presenteeism becomes the norm rather than the exception. Third, employees with strong "exchange ideology" beliefs - those who closely tie their effort to expected organizational rewards - may resent having to sacrifice their health resources without adequate compensation.

Research supporting the COR perspective on presenteeism reveals consistent patterns. Studies of mobile workers demonstrate how after-hours connectivity disrupts sleep and next-day functioning. Meta-analyses confirm that excessive job demands drain resources faster than they can be replenished. Importantly, interventions based on COR principles - such as flexible scheduling, adequate recovery time, and fair reward systems - show promise in breaking the presenteeism cycle. While powerful, the COR approach has limitations. Its universalist assumptions about resource valuation may not account for cultural differences in what constitutes valuable resources. The theory's rational-choice foundation may also underestimate emotional and social factors driving presenteeism.

Nevertheless, COR Theory provides organizations with actionable insights for addressing presenteeism through resource-protective policies and practices that support sustainable employee well-being and performance.

2.3.7 Job Demands-Resources Theory

Over the past decade, research leveraging the Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti & Bakker, 2011; Demerouti et al., 2001) has expanded significantly. This framework has been instrumental in predicting critical workplace outcomes, including job burnout (Bakker et al., 2005, 2008; Demerouti et al., 2001), organizational commitment**,** work enjoyment (Bakker et al., 2010), interpersonal connectedness (Lewig et al., 2007), and work engagement (Bakker et al., 2007; Hakanen et al., 2006). Additionally, the JD-R model has elucidated downstream consequences such as sickness absenteeism (Bakker et al., 2003a; Clausen et al., 2012; Schaufeli et al., 2009) and job performance (Bakker et al., 2004, 2008).

The accumulation of empirical studies, theoretical advancements, and meta-analyses (Crawford et al., 2010; Halbesleben, 2010; Nahrgang et al., 2011) has propelled the JD-R model into a robust theoretical framework. Today, JD-R theory serves as a comprehensive tool for understanding, explaining, and predicting relationships between workplace factors (e.g., demands, resources) and key outcomes such as employee well-being (e.g., burnout, health, motivation, engagement) and organizational effectiveness.

One important reason for the popularity of the JD-R theory is its flexibility. According to the theory, all working environments or job characteristics can be modeled using two different categories, namely job demands and job resources. Thus, the theory can be applied to all work environments and can be tailored to the specific occupation under consideration. Job demands refer to those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological effort and are

therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs (Demerouti et al., 2001). Examples are a high work pressure and emotionally demanding interactions with clients or customers. Although job demands are not necessarily negative, they may turn into hindrance demands when meeting those demands requires high effort from which the employee has not adequately recovered (Meijman & Mulder, 1998).

Job resources refer to those physical, psychological, social, or organization aspects of the job that are: (a) functional in achieving work goals; (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; or (c) stimulate personal growth, learning, and development (Bakker, 2011; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Hence, resources are not only necessary to deal with job demands, but they are also important in their own right. Whereas meaningful variations in levels of certain specific job demands and resources can be found in almost every occupational group (like work pressure, autonomy), other job demands and resources are unique. For example, whereas physical demands are still very important job demands nowadays for construction workers and nurses, cognitive demands are much more relevant for scientists and engineers.

A second proposition of JD-R theory is that job demands and resources are the triggers of two fairly independent processes, namely a health impairment process and a motivational process (Figure 2.1). Thus, whereas job demands are generally the most important predictors of such outcomes as exhaustion, psychosomatic health complaints, and repetitive strain injury (RSI) (e.g., Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003b; Hakanen et al., 2006), job resources are generally the most important predictors of work enjoyment, motivation, and engagement (Bakker et al., 2007, 2010). The reasons for these unique effects are that job demands basically cost effort and consume energetic resources, whereas job resources fulfil basic psychological needs, like the needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence (Bakker, 2011; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Nahrgang et al., 2011).

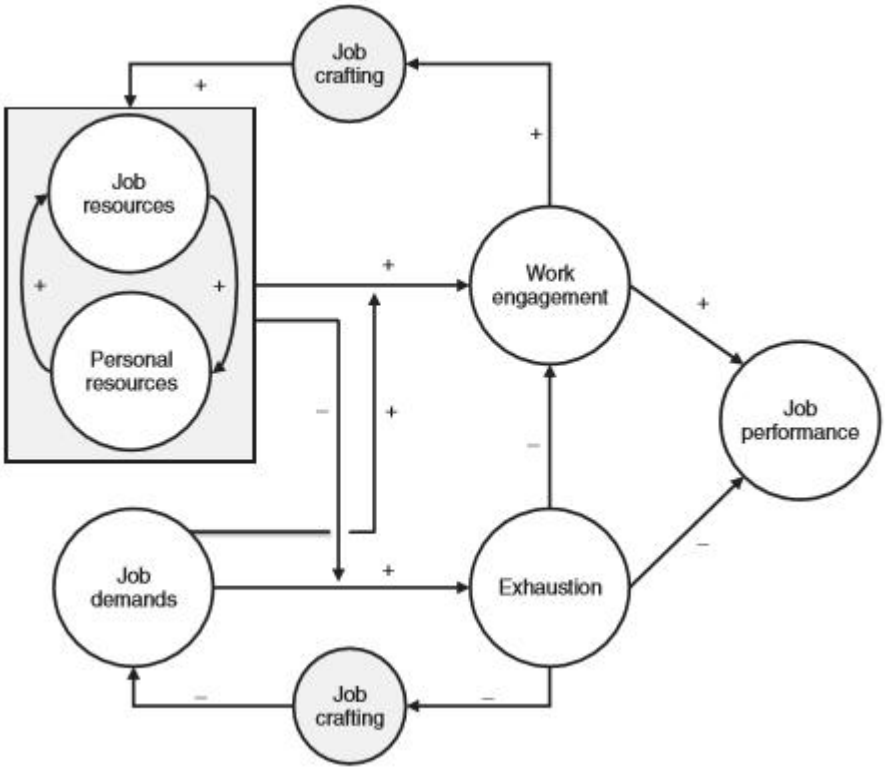

Figure 2.2. Job Demands-Resource Model

Source: Karasek, R. A. (1979). Job demands, job decision latitude, and mental strain: Implications for job redesign. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24(2), 285–308. doi: 10.2307/2392498

Extensive research has validated the dual-pathway framework proposed by the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) theory, demonstrating its robust predictive capacity for critical organizational outcomes. The model's central proposition - that job demands and job resources trigger distinct psychological processes affecting employee well-being and performance - has received consistent empirical support across diverse occupational settings.

Bakker et al., (2003b) investigation of Dutch telecom call center employees provided foundational evidence for these dual mechanisms. Their structural equation modeling analyses revealed two distinct pathways: (1) an energy-depletion process where excessive job demands (including work pressure, technological challenges, emotional labor, and task

instability) predicted health impairments, which subsequently correlated with both frequency and duration of sickness absenteeism; and (2) a motivational process where job resources (such as social support, supervisory guidance, performance feedback, and schedule autonomy) fostered work engagement and organizational commitment, thereby reducing turnover intentions.

This bifurcated pattern has been replicated across various professions. Hakanen et al.'s (2006) study of Finnish educators similarly found that burnout mediated the detrimental effects of job demands on health outcomes, while work engagement mediated the positive influence of job resources on organizational commitment. The robustness of these findings was further confirmed in Bakker et al.'s (2003) longitudinal study of production workers, where job demands uniquely predicted burnout and subsequent absence duration, whereas job resources predicted commitment and influenced absence frequency.

The model predictive utility extends beyond attendance metrics to performance outcomes. Bakker et al. (2004) demonstrated differential effects on task performance dimensions: job demands (particularly work pressure and emotional demands) primarily predicted exhaustion and subsequent in-role performance deficits, while job resources (including autonomy and social support) enhanced extra-role performance through their positive association with work engagement.

Collectively, these studies substantiate the JD-R theory's fundamental premise that job characteristics operate through two psychologically distinct yet organizationally consequential pathways. The energy-depletion pathway illustrates how chronic demands erode employee health and basic functioning, while the motivational pathway reveals how resource availability fosters commitment and discretionary effort. This body of research not only validates the theoretical model but also provides practical insights for

organizational interventions targeting specific well-being and performance outcomes through demand reduction and resource enhancement strategies.

Job demands and resources initiate different processes, but have also joint effects (see Figure 3.1). The third proposition put forward by JD-R theory is that job demands and resources interact in predicting occupational wellbeing. There are two possible ways in which demands and resources may have a combined effect on wellbeing, and indirectly influence performance. The first interaction is the one where job resources buffer the impact of job demands on strain. Thus, several studies have shown that job resources like social support, autonomy, performance feedback, and opportunities for development can mitigate the impact of job demands (work pressure, emotional demands, etc.) on strain, including burnout (Bakker et al., 2005; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Employees who have many job resources available can cope better with their daily job demands. The second interaction is the one where job demands amplify the impact of job resources on motivation/engagement. Thus, research has shown that job resources become salient and have the strongest positive impact on work engagement when job demands are high. In particular, when a worker is confronted with challenging job demands, job resources become valuable and foster dedication to the tasks at hand.

Hakanen, Bakker, and Demerouti (2005) investigated the latter interacting hypothesis in a sample of dental public servants in Finland. It was expected that job resources (e.g., flexibility in required professional abilities, peer interactions) would be most effective in maintaining work engagement under high job demands (e.g., workload, adverse physical environment). The dentists were divided into two randomly assigned groups. In order to cross-validate the findings. A set of sequential regression analyses revealed 17 of 40 notable relationships (40%), demonstrating, for example, that diversity in professional

skills improved job engagement when the qualitative workload was high, and buffered the detrimental effect of qualitative workload on work engagement.

Bakker et al. (2010) discovered in a comprehensive survey of over 12,000 employees from various occupational groups that task enjoyment and organizational commitment were also the outcome of a variety of job demands and job resources. Employees enjoyed and committed to their duties the most when they were given hard and engaging assignments and had adequate resources (e.g., performance feedback, high-quality connections with colleagues). To summarize, past research using the JD-R model clearly reveals that work demands and resources interact and have a multiplicative impact on employee wellbeing.

2.3.8 Person-Environment Fit Theory

The Person-Environment (P-E) Fit Theory stands as one of the most influential conceptual frameworks in organizational psychology, offering critical insights into how the interplay between individual characteristics and workplace factors influences employee outcomes. This theory, with roots tracing back to Lewin's (1936) proposition that behavior is a function of both person and environment, has evolved into a sophisticated model that explains workplace satisfaction, performance, and well-being through the lens of compatibility. P-E Fit Theory examines two fundamental dimensions of alignment. First, the demands-abilities fit focuses on the match between an employee's competencies and their job requirements. When individuals possess skills that meet or exceed job demands, they experience greater confidence and mastery. Conversely, when this fit is poor - whether through underqualification or overqualification - employees face either overwhelming stress or frustrating underutilization of their capabilities. Second, the needs-supplies fit addresses how well the work environment fulfills an employee's psychological and material needs, ranging from adequate compensation to opportunities for professional

growth. Organizations that successfully provide these supplies reap the benefits of more engaged and committed workforces.

The theory further distinguishes between supplementary fit, where individuals share core values and goals with their organization, and complementary fit, where individuals fill specific gaps in the work environment. This nuanced understanding helps explain why some employees thrive in certain organizational cultures while others struggle, regardless of their technical competence. The cultural alignment aspect of supplementary fit has become particularly crucial in today's era of employer branding and organizational identity.

The mechanisms through which P-E Fit influences outcomes are both direct and indirect. A strong fit directly reduces workplace stress by minimizing role ambiguity and conflict, while indirectly enhancing motivation through the satisfaction of psychological needs. Employees who experience good fit report higher levels of job satisfaction, demonstrate better performance, and show greater organizational commitment. These effects are particularly pronounced in knowledge work environments where employee discretion and engagement significantly impact outcomes.

Practical applications of P-E Fit Theory have transformed human resource practices. Modern recruitment processes increasingly incorporate personality assessments and structured interviews to evaluate fit, while onboarding programs aim to socialize new employees into organizational cultures. Job crafting initiatives allow employees to reshape their roles for better alignment with their strengths and interests, representing a bottom-up approach to improving fit.

However, the theory faces several challenges in contemporary work environments. The rise of remote work has complicated traditional notions of environmental fit, as physical workplace factors become less relevant. The growing emphasis on diversity and inclusion also requires reevaluating how we conceptualize "fit" to avoid homogeneity bias in hiring.

Furthermore, the dynamic nature of both individuals and organizations means that fit is not a static condition but an ongoing process requiring continuous attention and adjustment.

Future developments in P-E Fit Theory will likely explore how artificial intelligence can enhance fit assessments, how global virtual teams affect traditional fit concepts, and how organizations can maintain fit in rapidly changing business environments. As work continues to evolve, the fundamental insight of P-E Fit Theory - those successful outcomes emerge from the right alignment of person and environment - remains as relevant as ever, guiding both research and practice in organizational psychology

2.3.9 The JD-R Model and Presenteeism

The impact of the aforementioned work environment elements on employees' motivation, energy, and health is explained by the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Depending on the sector or particular organization, the JD-R model might include a wide variety of psychosocial work environment elements. Nonetheless, they can be broadly divided into two categories: job resources, which include leadership opportunities, social support, and growth possibilities, and job demands, which include workloads, time constraints, and job insecurity (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). The JD-R model describes two psychological processes that underlie the psychosocial work environment elements that connect employee motivation, energy, and health: a health impairment and a motivational pathway. These paths are explained below.

Routes of Health Impairment

The JD-R model suggests that high job demands, such as workload, time pressure, understaffing, and workplace bullying, can lead to poor health (episodic and chronic), negatively impacting work outcomes like presenteeism. According to the JD-R paradigm, employees must balance job demands and desired performance. As demands increase, the

process becomes more strenuous and may cause stress among personnel. Employees may have chronic burnout and health issues, including colds, headaches, and flu (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti & Bakker, 2011; Schaufeli et al., 2009; Bakker et al., 2014). Consequently, a rise in presenteeism would be anticipated given that worse health outcomes and higher stress levels are likely to raise the likelihood that employees will miss work due to illness and the amount of productivity loss caused by illness (Burton et al., 2004; Leineweber, Westerlund, Hagberg, Svedberg, & Alexanderson, 2012; Schultz & Edington, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2009; Ferreira & Martinez, 2012).

It is possible that job demands are indirectly linked to presenteeism through an increase in episodic (like headaches and the flu) and chronic health problems (like burnout), based on the health impairment route suggested in the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). This claim expands on that made by Miraglia and Johns (2016) by utilizing the JD-R model to examine the mediating function of various health-related factors on the connections between work environment elements and presenteeism.

Motivational Routes

Workplace variables may potentially affect presenteeism through motivational processes, according to the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, Schaufeli et al., 2009b; Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). For instance, the provision of resources like guidance, leadership, opportunity for growth, and support may make employees feel good. Because people feel valued and appreciated, this may thus result in a higher degree of motivation, engagement, and commitment to the organization (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli et al., 2009b; Bakker et al., 2014). The expectation would thus be higher presenteeism, or the practice of working when handicapped, since devoted, driven, and motivated workers are more inclined to work through their impairments. Alternatively, if presenteeism is understood as a loss of productivity related to health, then lower presenteeism levels would be

anticipated because motivated employees are less likely to suffer from productivity losses at work (Admasachew & Dawson, 2011; Barber & Santuzzi, 2015; Burton, Chen, Li & Schultz, 2017; Garczynski, Waldrop, Rupprecht, & Grawitch, 2013; Gosselin, et al., 2013; Karlsson, et al., 2010).

Leveraging on the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007)'s motivational route, it is conceivable that job resources—such as work engagement and organizational commitment—will tangentially influence presenteeism. By investigating the impact of additional important motivating elements, such as job engagement and organizational commitment, on the links between work environment parameters and presenteeism, this proposal expands on the indirect relationships proposed by Miraglia and Johns (2016). Job resources have the potential to motivate absenteeism in addition to this effect; this relationship may exist through the pathway of health impairment. A shortage of resources at work, such as inadequate leadership, support, or development opportunities, for instance, can irritate, depress, and frustrate employees, which can lead to cynicism—a sign of burnout—and episodic health issues, like headaches (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli, et al., 2009).

2.3.10 Spill Over Theory

The theory of spillover (Wilensky, 1960) states that an individual's attitudes, conduct, and cognitive processes in a social setting can be described as a reflection of their experiences and abilities in a different setting. These days, a growing body of research at the nexus of psychology and economics is investigating behavioral gateways in various fields—including prosocial, health, and environmental behavior. Two facets of how output is impacted by health are included in the growth development literature: It transmits effects as well; for example, increasing the energy of the elderly means that family members who are employed may spend less time caring for themselves (Tompa, 2013). Its direct effects

on the manufacturing process are as follows: enhancing health can boost output by lowering disability, incapacity, and sick days.

Put another way, there may be projects in progress spillover effects when a significant number of workers report for duty, even while they are ill. When employees report for work while ill, it can have a negative impact on productivity and cause a ripple effect in the workplace. According to the presenteeism spillover idea, production in one area may be impacted by presenteeism in another. According to a recent study on the impact of presenteeism on colleagues' emotions and behavioral patterns, presenteeism has been shown to influence other employee behaviors that result in less productivity and higher expenses (Rhodes, 2015). Research revealed that absenteeism costs a company far more in terms of productivity loss than sick leave (Weaver, 2010). Moreover, negative spillover occurs when one activity encourages another, leading to "less of the same." (Nilsson and others, 2016). Managers are specifically urged to factor in missed sales, costs proportionate to the employee's wealth, the cost of covering an ill employee, the impact of an outbreak on other employees' productivity, and the cost of lost employee productivity (Pauly et al., 2008).

Moreover, because of their demanding jobs and duties, people may become stressed out, which can lead to dangerous arguments and negatively impact their coworkers. This was suggested by Greenglass (2011). Therefore, burnout can cause harm to people's home lives, be shared through casual encounters at work, and result in an imbalance between work and life (Jayarathna, 2018).

The hypothesis regarding adverse spillover has had two effects. First, the strain of work-related responsibilities negatively impacts the family role. Second, the demands of the family role have an effect on the responsibilities assigned to each employee. Positive spillover effects include those pertaining to autonomy, social support, employment

resources, and feedback. Both the employment outcomes and the manner in which the work is performed have positive spillover effects. Workers are not consuming a lot of energy, time, or other resources. The lack of resources is causing issues, such as when individuals with different positions are connected to the same resources. The difficulty arises due to a scarcity of resources, such as personnel who are related or linked to the same resources yet do distinct responsibilities. When two families have limited resources, the efficiency of the one in the middle may suffer. Cross-over effects are linked to common stressors and empathetic mechanisms. In essence, spillover-crossover occurs when two domains interact socially, with the working domain influencing the family domain and then shifting to the relationship. However, there have been both favorable and unfavorable effects on the demands of job and family.

2.4 Theoretical Framework

This research hinges on the JD-R theory and the Conservation of Resource (COR) theory**.**

The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) theory offers a comprehensive framework for examining the complex relationships between workplace characteristics, employee wellbeing, and organizational outcomes. Developed by Bakker and Demerouti (2007), this model has evolved into one of the most influential approaches in occupational health psychology, providing valuable insights into how job stress emerges, how presenteeism manifests, and how these factors ultimately impact employee performance.

The JD-R theory organizes work characteristics into two fundamental categories of job demands and job resources. Job demands encompass the physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of work that require sustained effort, such as high workloads, emotional labor, or cognitive overload. While these demands are not inherently negative, they become particularly detrimental when employees lack adequate recovery opportunities, transforming into what scholars term "hindrance demands" (Meijman &

Mulder, 1998). Conversely, job resources include those aspects that facilitate goal achievement, reduce strain, and promote growth, such as autonomy, social support, and opportunities for professional development (Bakker, 2011).

The theory's explanatory power lies in its dual-process mechanism, which reveals how these work characteristics influence employees through distinct psychological pathways. The health impairment process demonstrates how chronic exposure to excessive job demands without sufficient resources leads to gradual energy depletion, resulting in stress responses, emotional exhaustion, and eventually, presenteeism behaviors as employees struggle to maintain their work attendance despite diminishing capacity (Bakker et al., 2005). This process helps explain why stressed employees often continue coming to work even when impaired - they may be attempting to conserve threatened resources like job security or professional reputation (Hobfoll, 1989).

Simultaneously, the motivational process illustrates how job resources foster positive outcomes by fulfilling fundamental psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000). When employees have access to adequate resources, they experience greater work engagement and commitment (Bakker et al., 2007), which enhances both the quality and quantity of their performance (Bakker et al., 2004). This dual-process perspective is particularly valuable for understanding why some employees maintain high performance despite stressful conditions while others deteriorate - the availability of resources creates fundamentally different work experiences.

The JD-R framework helps elucidate presenteeism as more than simply working while ill; it reveals presenteeism as a behavioral manifestation of the complex interplay between demands, resources, and stress. Employees may engage in presenteeism not just due to job insecurity or financial pressures, but as a strategy to protect their remaining psychological resources when facing overwhelming demands (Lu et al., 2013). However, this short-term

coping mechanism often leads to long-term performance declines as the cumulative effects of stress and inadequate recovery take their toll (Johns, 2010).

Several boundary conditions influence these dynamics. Personal characteristics like resilience can buffer the impact of demands (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007), while organizational factors such as presenteeism culture can exacerbate the stress-presenteeism relationship. Recovery opportunities play a crucial moderating role - workplaces that enable psychological detachment from work demands help prevent the negative spiral of stress and declining performance (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015).

The JD-R theory's strength lies in its adaptability across diverse occupational contexts while maintaining theoretical precision. By integrating with complementary perspectives like Conservation of Resources theory and Self-Determination Theory, it provides a nuanced understanding of workplace dynamics that informs both research and practice. For organizations, this framework suggests multi-faceted interventions that address demands, enhance resources, and create healthier work cultures to break the cycle of stress, presenteeism, and performance decline. As work environments continue evolving, particularly with the rise of remote and hybrid arrangements, the JD-R theory offers a robust foundation for examining emerging challenges in employee wellbeing and productivity.

The Conservation of Resources (COR) theory, originally formulated by Hobfoll (1989), provides a comprehensive framework for understanding the complex interplay between job stress, presenteeism, and employee performance. This theoretical perspective fundamentally posits that individuals are motivated to acquire, maintain, protect, and foster valued resources, which can be categorized into four distinct types: material (e.g., salary, equipment), personal (e.g., self-esteem, optimism), conditional (e.g., job security, work-life balance), and energetic (e.g., time, emotional stamina).

At the foundation of this framework lies the principle of resource loss primacy, which suggests that the threat or actual loss of resources is more psychologically salient and impactful than resource gain. This principle becomes particularly relevant in organizational contexts where employees facing job stress - characterized by excessive demands coupled with inadequate resources - may engage in presenteeism as a strategic, albeit often counterproductive, attempt to conserve their remaining resources. The decision to attend work while ill or impaired frequently stems from fears about losing critical resources such as income (material), professional reputation (conditional), or career advancement opportunities (personal).

The relationship between these constructs operates through several key mechanisms. First, chronic job stress leads to the gradual depletion of energetic resources, particularly when employees lack adequate recovery opportunities. This depletion manifests in reduced cognitive functioning, impaired decision-making capabilities, and diminished emotional regulation - all of which contribute to presenteeism behaviors. Second, organizational cultures that implicitly or explicitly reward presenteeism create conditions where employees feel compelled to sacrifice their health resources to protect other valued resources, establishing a vicious cycle of stress and impaired functioning.

Presenteeism, in turn, exerts significant effects on employee performance through multiple pathways. The immediate performance impacts include reduced productivity, increased errors, and poorer quality of work output. Over time, sustained presenteeism leads to more severe consequences such as chronic health problems, burnout, and complete withdrawal from work responsibilities. These outcomes further exacerbate resource loss, creating a downward spiral where stress begets presenteeism, which worsens performance, thereby increasing stress levels.

The framework also identifies important moderating factors that influence these relationships. Personal characteristics such as resilience and self-efficacy may buffer the negative effects of stress on presenteeism. Organizational factors including supportive leadership, fair absence policies, and adequate recovery opportunities can interrupt the cycle of resource depletion. Cultural context plays a crucial role as well, as norms around work attendance and illness behavior vary significantly across different societies.

Importantly, this theoretical perspective helps explain why presenteeism often persists despite its negative consequences. From a COR standpoint, presenteeism represents an attempt to prevent further resource loss in the short term, even when this behavior leads to greater resource depletion in the long term. This explains the paradoxical finding that employees frequently continue coming to work while ill, despite recognizing the negative impact on their health and performance.

The framework has important implications for intervention strategies. Effective approaches should focus on: (1) reducing unnecessary job demands that contribute to stress, (2) increasing access to job and personal resources, (3) creating organizational cultures that discourage presenteeism, and (4) implementing policies that support employee recovery and well-being. By addressing multiple points in the stress-presenteeism-performance cycle, organizations can break the pattern of resource depletion and create more sustainable work environments.

While the COR framework provides a powerful lens for understanding these phenomena, it also has limitations that suggest directions for future research. The theory's emphasis on rational resource conservation may underemphasize emotional and social factors that contribute to presenteeism. Additionally, cultural variations in resource valuation and conservation strategies warrant further investigation. Nevertheless, the COR perspective offers valuable insights for both researchers and practitioners seeking to understand and

address the complex relationships between job stress, presenteeism, and employee performance in organizational settings.

2.5 Empirical Review

2.5.1 Empirical Literature on Job Stress and Employee Performance

Manaya et al. (2024) investigate the incidence and variables influencing illness presenteeism among school teachers in Northwest Ethiopia. An institution-based cross-sectional investigation was conducted from April 18 to May 18, 2023. A total of 633 primary school teachers were recruited using two-stage stratified random selection. The data were gathered using structured self-administered questionnaires. Data input and analysis were performed using Epi-data version 4.6 and STATA version 14, respectively. Binary logistic regression was utilized. A multivariable logistic regression model with an adjusted odds ratio was used to test for statistical significance. This research included 603 school instructors, with a response rate of 95.26 percent. In the previous 12 months, illness presenteeism was 54.7% (N=330) with a 95% confidence interval. Private school teachers, low supervisor support, lack of staff replacement availability, low colleague support, unsuitable household conditions [AOR: 1.49, 95% CI (1.08, 2.34)], and strict attendance control were significantly associated with sickness presenteeism. The study found that the frequency of sickness presenteeism was quite high among primary school instructors due to variables such as insufficient support from supervisors and colleagues, stringent attendance monitoring, a lack of staff replacement, inappropriate housing conditions, and a private school type. Fostering a culture of support and collaboration among colleagues, hiring appropriate personnel, and having flexible attendance policies are all strategies for promoting teacher health.

Jirachat et al (2022) evaluate the incidence of absenteeism and presenteeism among support staff at a Thai medical school hospital, as well as its relationship with job

performance. From June to August 2020, a cross-sectional survey was done among 1,102 support workers at Mahidol University's Faculty of Medicine Ramathibodi Hospital. The World Health Organization Health and job Performance Questionnaire (HPQ) was used to evaluate absenteeism, presenteeism, job performance, and other variables. Multiple logistic regression was used to investigate the relationship between current job performance and absenteeism and presenteeism in the previous year. The results indicated that 505 (45.8%) support workers completed the self-report questionnaire. The prevalence of illness absence, non-sickness absence, and presenteeism over the last year was 54.2%, 81.4%, and 48.1%, respectively. Sickness absence and presenteeism in the previous year were substantially linked with an elevated risk of poor job performance. Support workers who experienced high levels of stress and burnout were 3.89 and 2.66 times more likely to report poor work performance. The authors concluded that sickness absence and presenteeism are linked to poor work performance in hospital care staff. Other variables, such as stress and burnout, contribute to poor work performance, and the interplay of these elements requires more investigation. To increase productivity, hospital management may explore intervention programs that improve job performance among employees who are absent due to illness or presenteeism.

Olasanmi et al. (2021) used a descriptive survey design to examine employee productivity and the factors that influence it in listed manufacturing firms in southwestern Nigeria. A sample of 394 respondents was chosen using a simple random sampling technique, and data collected through a structured questionnaire was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The study revealed that the majority of respondents. The study found that financial, management, personal, and organizational factors all had a significant and negative impact on workers' productivity.

Using a deliberate and straightforward random technique to choose a sample size of 200 participants, Sucharitha and Basha (2020) examine the effect of job stress on workers' performance. A focus group discussion and questionnaires were used to gather information. Since many of the participants believe that leadership puts pressure on them to do better, the data show that the participants experience excessive stress, which negatively impacts their performance.

Bui et al. (2019) assessed the relationship between workplace stress and productivity among workers from sites that took part in a WorkWell KS Well-Being workshop and determined whether there were any differences by sex and race. A multi-site, cross-sectional study was carried out to poll workers from four sites that took part in a WorkWell KS Well-Being workshop regarding levels of stress and productivity. The Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) was used to measure stress, and the Health and Work Questionnaire (HWQ) was used to measure productivity. Pearson correlations were used to measure the relationship between stress and productivity scores, and t-tests assessed differences in scores by sex and race. The results show that, out of the 186 respondents to the poll, the majority identified as female (85%), married (80%), white (94%), and college-educated (74%). Productivity appeared to decline as stress rose, with a strong inverse association ($r = -0.35$, $p < 0.001$) seen between the PSS and HWQ scores. Another significant inverse correlation was found between PSS and the Work Satisfaction subscale. The HWQ Supervisor Relations subscale showed a significant difference in men' scores compared to females: 8.4 (SD 2.1) vs. 6.9 (SD 2.7), respectively, $p = 0.005$. They concluded that there appeared to be an inverse correlation between the PSS and HWQ scores, with greater stress levels substantially connected with lower productivity ratings. All HWQ subscales showed this negative link, but job satisfaction showed the strongest

correlation. Despite the fact that reported stress levels did not differ between the sexes, this study revealed that men may have better supervisor relationships than women.

Ekienabor (2019) examined how work-related stress affects academic staff members' commitment and productivity in Nigerian universities. The focus of the study is all Nigerian universities. A questionnaire was used as the main tool for gathering data for the field investigation. Statistical techniques were applied to the data, and SPSS (Version 20) was used to calculate the chi-square. The findings indicated that employee productivity is impacted by job stress. Furthermore, occupational stress has an effect on workers' dedication. When there is a high level of stress and management is not concerned about finding a solution, which lowers employee performance and jeopardizes the organization's reputation and results in the loss of skilled workers, these situations require immediate attention from management in order to implement effective stress management techniques and boost employee satisfaction and overall performance of employee. The recommendation was for management to implement corrective actions in order to permanently reduce the negative impacts of job stress. Management has to carry out research initiatives to help staff members develop their technical and managerial abilities in order to achieve this goal.

Jia (2019) evaluates the direct impacts of job stress, health status, and presenteeism on task performance, as well as the mediating effects of health status and presenteeism, with the goal of providing a theoretical foundation for increasing medical staff performance. A cross-sectional study was carried out on medical professionals in Jilin Province, Northeast China. The Challenge and Hindrance-Related Self-Reported Stress Scale, Short Form-8 Health Survey Scale, Stanford Presenteeism Scale, and Task Performance Scale were used to measure the job stress, health condition, presenteeism, and task performance of medical personnel. A total of 4,347 questionnaires were issued to medical professionals, with 4261

valid, yielding an effective rate of 98.02%. The average scores for job stress, health state, presenteeism, and task performance were 2.05 ± 0.84, 4.18 ± 0.68, 2.15 ± 0.79, and 4.49 ± 0.64, respectively. ANOVA findings indicated significant variations in task performance ratings across genders, ages, marital statuses, professional titles, departments, and work years ($P < 0.05$). Work stress ($\beta = -0.136$, $P < 0.001$) and presenteeism ($\beta = -0.171$, $P < 0.001$) were negative predictors of task performance. Health state ($\beta = 0.10$; $P < 0.001$) was a favorable predictor of task performance. Health status ($\beta = -0.070$; $P < -0.001$) and presenteeism ($\beta = -0.064$; $P < 0.001$) moderated the link between job stress and task performance ($P < 0.001$). Presenteeism moderated the link between health status and task performance. Work stress and presenteeism had a considerable detrimental influence on medical staff's task performance, whereas health status had a large favorable effect. Meanwhile, presenteeism and health status acted as mediators in the link between job stress and task performance. Reasonable job assignment can minimize work stress, but in order to enhance medical staff performance, we need focus more on improving health, such as implementing health-related safeguards, raising awareness, and developing a platform.

Mekonnen (2018) employed an institution-based cross-sectional quantitative study design to investigate the prevalence and determinants of sick at work among healthcare personnel in western Ethiopia. The research ran from February to March 2017. We used a simple random selection procedure to choose 360 research samples. Data was collected using a pre-tested structured and self-administered questionnaire. We utilized SPSS version 20 to do binary logistic regression analysis. The odds ratio was computed with 95% confidence intervals, and relationships were considered significant if the p-value was <0.05. According to the results, 344 respondents totally completed the survey questionnaire. The mean age and standard deviation were 30.28 ± 6.181. Prevalence of illness Presenteeism

was 52.6% in the earlier year. The variables that affect the study results are: educational status, financial difficulty, sick leave absenteeism, staff replacement, lack of occupational health services, supervisor pressure were important factors that predicted the dependent variable. In comparison to previous research, a larger proportion of workers reported illness presenteeism. Educational status, personal financial problems, illness absenteeism, a lack of staff replacement, the absence of occupational health services, and pressure from managers all raised the likelihood of employees becoming sick. It is recommended that health care administrators recruit appropriate workers, provide basic occupational health services, and develop ways to lessen supervisor pressure.

The impact of stress on worker productivity in the Nigerian banking sector was studied by Okeke and Ojan (2016). Person Environment (PE) Fit Theory served as the study's foundation, and it evaluated pertinent theoretical and empirical literature. The survey research approach was used in the study. The study's population consists of five specific banks located in the city of Awka. A purposive sample technique was employed to choose a total of 250 workers. This study's data were produced utilizing a 5-point Likert scale survey. Simple percentage analysis was used to assess the data, and chi-square statistical analysis was used to test the hypotheses. The results of the study showed that employee productivity is significantly impacted by workload strain. It was also shown that stress impairs workers' ability to execute effectively. As a result, it was suggested, among other things, that management implement corrective action to permanently reduce the impact of occupational stress.

Bakker et al. (2014) explored the longitudinal connections between occupational demands, burnout (exhaustion and depersonalization), and presenteeism. We expected that job demands and weariness (but not depersonalization) would cause presenteeism, and that presenteeism would eventually result in both exhaustion and depersonalization. To

evaluate the hypothesis, 258 staff nurses completed questionnaires at three measurement intervals separated by 1.5 years. The results were fairly consistent with anticipated. Job demands increased presenteeism, leading to depersonalization over time. tiredness and presenteeism have a reciprocal relationship, indicating that when employees are exhausted, they tend to use compensatory techniques, leading to further tiredness. These findings indicate that presenteeism is a risk-taking organizational behavior with significant longitudinal links to work demands and burnout. The report recommends preventing presenteeism in the workplace. The text aims to raise awareness about the negative impact of presenteeism on employee well-being and the business as a whole.

Imtiaz and Ahmad (2009) investigated the effects of high levels of stress on management accountability, employee performance, and other factors. The study's target group consists of medical officers and house officers who work for the major health and medical organizations in Rawalpindi, Islamabad. A questionnaire was used as the main tool for gathering data for the field investigation. With SPSS Version 16, statistical techniques were used to evaluate the data. The following elements were shown to have an impact on stress: personal problems, a lack of support from administrators, a lack of recognition for completed work, a low level of control over the workplace, an unpredictable work environment, and insufficient financial compensation. The analysis provided strong evidence for the detrimental association between stress and work performance, with significant effects on knowledge (-.787), career changeover (-.323), job satisfaction (-.285), and treatment errors (-.332). The findings indicated that job performance would decline by 0.513, 0.079, 0.266, and 0.117 for every unit rise in personal problems, loss in financial incentive, decrease in control over the work environment, and decrease in supervisor support. Because all of these findings are statistically significant, the research is rigorous and generalizable. Increased stress levels were present, but there was no managerial

concern for a solution, which led to a decline in employee performance. These circumstances risk the organization's reputation and result in the loss of skilled workers. As a result, management must take immediate action to implement effective stress management techniques in order to boost worker satisfaction and productivity. Staff mental health is crucial given that they spend a significant portion of their lives working towards organizational goals. Stress responses to a frightening scenario can vary significantly amongst individuals, leading to a variety of physical and mental health concerns. Individual variances in temperament, social resources, and coping mechanisms might lead to varying outcomes during stressful transactions.

Louis et al., (1992) concluded that structure analysis has not been involved with social and structural factors that may serve as moderators, buffers, or antidotes to worry in the context of job stress, and that there is little experimental evidence to suggest that weakening factors may or may not exist. Montgomery et al. (1996), on the other hand, believe that negative job stress is dysfunctional and lowers commitment and productivity. Williams et al. (2001) emphasized that job performance is impacted both physiologically and behaviorally by short-term job stress. Positive stress will arise once the scenario presents an opportunity for a private individual to highlight one beneficial aspect. It serves as an enhancer for subpar work. Negative stress also occurs when someone encounters social, physical, structural and psychological hurdles.

2.5.2 Empirical Review on Presenteeism and Employee Performance

Ajayi et al. (2024) analyzed the incidence and causes of illness absence among healthcare professionals in a tertiary hospital in Southwest Nigeria. From October to December 2022, 360 healthcare personnel participated in an institutional-based cross-sectional survey at a tertiary hospital in Southwest Nigeria. A pre-tested interviewer-administered, semi-structured questionnaire was used to collect information from respondents chosen using a

stratified sample approach. Using SPSS version 25.0, bivariate and binary logistic regression analyses were done to identify predictors of illness absenteeism. Associations were considered significant at a p-value of <0.05. The average age of respondents was 34 ± 7.15 years (SD). Sick absenteeism was 21.0% among health professionals, with malaria (51%), bodily discomfort (18%), and diarrhea (5%) as the causes. The only predictors of sickness absenteeism were family obligation (AOR: 2.1, 95% CI: (1.20, 3.53), P=0.009) and work type (AOR: 2.7, 95% CI: (1.05, 6.83), P=0.038). Malaria, diarrhea, and bodily discomfort kept almost one-fifth of respondents away from work for a period of time. To minimize the prevalence of ill absenteeism in these groups, stakeholders should implement preventive interventions based on the identified variables.

Drawing on self-determination theory, Zhang (2024) deployed 281 questionnaire data to investigate the positive effect of performance pressure on employee presenteeism, as well as the moderating role of authoritarian leadership and its joint moderation function effect with independent self-construal. The findings showed that performance pressure had a considerable beneficial impact on employee presenteeism. Authoritarian leadership had a stronger moderating effect on the relationship between performance pressure and employee presenteeism, whereas independent self-construal reduced authoritarian leadership's augmentative moderating role in this relationship. The research exposes the controlled motive of employee presenteeism under performance pressure, while accounting for China's cultural background and organizational situation. Furthermore, it provides unique approaches to efficiently addressing this problem.

Mathieu and Gilbreath (2023) investigated the component structure and validity of the Job Stress-Related Presenteeism Scale. The study used three organizational samples to assess the JSRPS's component structure, linkage to an illness presenteeism scale, and correlation with linked ideas. Exploratory and confirmatory factor studies showed a valid 6-item, 2-

component model for the JSRPS. JSRPS scores were linked to increased psychological distress, workplace harassment, and turnover intentions, as well as decreased job satisfaction and engagement. The JSRPS was more strongly associated with psychological discomfort and workplace harassment than the Stanford Presenteeism Scale. The results also indicate that the JSRPS is a reliable indicator of presenteeism caused by occupational stress.

Okoko and Ogbomah (2023) examined the impact of presenteeism on employee productivity in Bayelsa State tertiary institutions. Two research questions were developed to guide the study along with the objectives. The study employed a survey research method, collecting data and analyzing it using both qualitative and quantitative methodologies from primary and secondary sources. The sample size was made up of 933 respondents from seven Bayelsa State-owned higher institutions. The structured questionnaires were delivered to 933 respondents, and 931 copies were collected for analysis. The analysis utilized a Questionnaire on Development (QOD) using a 4-point Likert scale to analyze research topics, focusing on frequency and mean values. The study found that workers in Bayelsa State tertiary institutions experience presenteeism and low employee productivity due to financial demands from their families and a desire to please their boss. The study suggests reducing presenteeism in the workplace to promote justice, harmony, and a sense of belonging among employees, leading to improved productivity in educational institutions.

Abasillin and Adebajo (2023) study how presenteeism affects employee productivity at the Lagos State Ministry of Health in Nigeria. A cross-sectional survey was conducted to collect data from 362 employees at Nigeria's Lagos State Ministry of Health. Data was collected using two instruments: the Standard Presenteeism Scale (SPS) and the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ). The data was analyzed using regression

analysis with SPSS 25.0. The study found no significant detrimental impact of voluntary absenteeism on employee performance (fJ = -0.027, S.E =0.087, t-ea/c. = -0.419, p-value = 0.676, p>0.05). Involuntary presenteeism has a considerable detrimental impact on employee performance (fJ = -0.148, S.E = 0.090, tea/c.= -2.331, p-value = 0.020, p <0.05). The study found that involuntary presenteeism had a more detrimental impact on worker productivity compared to voluntary presenteeism. These data suggest that presenteeism, regardless of its manner, significantly impacts employee performance. The organization should avoid creating settings that promote presenteeism, as this serves no purpose.

Ajala et al. (2023) studied presenteeism and worker productivity at GlaxoSmithKline Consumer Nigeria PLC (GSK). The study used a descriptive survey research approach. The convenient sampling strategy was used to pick 219 respondents for data collection. Pearson correlation coefficient was used to examine the data. The results show a substantial association between demographic factors associated with employee presenteeism and staff productivity at GlaxoSmithKline Consumer Nigeria PLC (GSK), with a correlation value of 0.820. Furthermore, the Pearson correlation value between health issues and productivity loss was 0.819, demonstrating a substantial association between the type of health problems as a source of absenteeism and productivity loss in workplaces. As a result, the study claims that certain health problems predispose to presenteeism, which leads to absenteeism. In a similar manner the research suggested that manufacturing businesses should understand the causes of employee presenteeism in order to improve organizational efficiency, and that irrelevant excuses should be avoided. Similarly, the research indicated that firms should create a favorable atmosphere to enhance workers' health and welfare for higher production.

In a public tertiary institution in Lagos State, Nigeria, Ilo and Abari (2022) investigated employee productivity and presenteeism. According to them, a key element influencing

productivity in any higher education institution is the effective use of people resources within the company. Presenteeism and organizational silence are two aspects of this that are currently underappreciated. Determining the contributing elements and how they relate to other occurrences is crucial since silence can have unfavorable effects. Presenteeism occurs when a person decides to report to work even when it is strongly advised that they stay at home and recuperate. While presenteeism may exacerbate an illness at the human level, impairing staff performance, it also lowers productivity at the organizational level. Therefore, the research suggested discouraging presenteeism among employees. In the event that a staff member becomes unwell, there should also be a sufficient supply of replacements. Since it was shown that absenteeism (cost) receives greater attention, future studies should compare and examine the costs associated with both presenteeism and absenteeism. in Lagos State, Nigeria's public tertiary education institutions.

Ho et al. (2022) examined the impact of presenteeism on workers' psychological well-being by demonstrating a relationship between time constraints, continual connectedness, sick leave presenteeism, and workers' psychological health. The findings indicate that employees' psychological well-being is adversely correlated with ill presenteeism, and that time pressure is favorably correlated with it. After discussing the outcome, it was suggested that future study be done to actually look into the link that was suggested and covered in this report.

Akhigbe and Emoh (2021) investigated the impact of presenteeism and absenteeism on the well-being of Rivers State deposit bank employees. The study's population consisted of workers from 15 deposit money institutions in Rivers State. 255 questionnaires were distributed to workers of the chosen institutions via a simple random selection method. Following data collection utilizing questionnaire copies, 201 copies were judged well completed and appropriate for the study, and the Pearson Product Moment Correlation

Coefficient was used to test the hypotheses. The data indicate that absenteeism has a greater correlation with physical well-being than the other factors studied. The study indicated that presenteeism and absenteeism at deposit money institutions in Rivers State have a positive link with employee well-being. Furthermore, the research suggested that deposit money banks build dedicated counseling sections to aid in coaching and guiding workers who are facing sorrow or other types of emotional trauma, thereby boosting their mental and emotional well-being.

Biron (2020) describes presenteeism as a dynamic process that balances health limits and performance objectives. Our 2x2 paradigm of presenteeism (therapeutic, functional, overachieving, and dysfunctional) highlights the importance of flexible work resources and personal capacities for successful adaptation. Presenteeism can be a viable option for retaining performance amid compromised health if the company supports adaptability and offers necessary resources. The study examines the impact of resources on functional presenteeism, using conservation of resources theory and self-determination theory. This approach provides a deeper understanding of presenteeism by seeing it as an adaptive process, recognizing presentees as diverse groups, and studying the role of internal and work resources in balancing health and performance demands. The article proposes new studies and practices for managing presenteeism, health, and performance effectively.

Kim et al. (2019) examined presenteeism among workers in diverse industries, focusing on job-related stress with stratification based on the existence of depression. The study was done using data from questionnaires completed by various firms registered with the Federation of Korean Trade Unions. The Patient Health Questionnaire-2 was used to investigate workers' depressive symptoms, while questions about job-related stress and presenteeism were derived from the short form of the Korean Occupational Stress Scale and the official Korean version of the Work-Productivity and Activity Impairment

Questionnaire-General Health. The statistical differences resulting from company differences were determined using multilevel logistic analysis. The results show that 930 people (753 males and 177 women) from 59 businesses took part in the study. We used multilevel logistic regression to examine the relationship between the factors and presenteeism, stratifying by the presence of depression. Higher job demands and interpersonal conflict had significantly higher odds ratios (ORs) in univariate and multivariate multilevel models. In the final model of total population, fully adjusted by general and work-related characteristics, higher job demands and interpersonal conflict had significantly higher ORs—a tendency that remained in participants without depression. The data demonstrated that job-related stress was strongly linked to presenteeism in both the general population and the group without depression. Thus, it prioritized treatments for controlling workplace stress among workers in order to minimize presenteeism in the overall worker population.

Lui and Johnston (2019) seek to validate an instrument that thoroughly assesses presenteeism in the workplace and personal exposures among Asian nurses. The questionnaire domain inquiries were chosen using the JD-R framework and a comprehensive examination of validated scales for monitoring work attendance exposures in prior healthcare research. The preliminary questionnaire had two outcomes (presenteeism frequency, productivity) and five exposure domains: work resources, work demands, work stress, work engagement, personal characteristics, and health. Content validation and reverse translation (English-Cantonese Chinese-English) were completed. The validation research includes responses from full-time nurses working in two acute care hospitals (preliminary questionnaire at Hospital 1: N = 295 and main round questionnaire at Hospital 2: N = 1146) to achieve a sufficient sample size of ten cases per indicator variable for CFA analysis. To assess test-retest reliability, 80 nurses from

Hospital 1 were randomly selected 4 weeks after the original survey. The internal consistency, convergent, and discriminant validity tests were also performed. Results show satisfactory internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha > 0.7), test-retest reliability (ICC > 0.4), and concept validity (convergent and discriminant). Confirmatory factor analysis showed good fitness indices (CFI and TLI > 0.95, RMSEA < 0.08). In the second hospital, presenteeism and productivity were shown to be substantially associated with work resources, engagement, and stress. The Multidimensional Presenteeism Exposures and Productivity Survey (MPEPS-N) has been verified in two hospital settings. The instrument identifies and quantifies exposures linked to presenteeism and productivity. This allows hospital managers to set evidence-based intervention targets for wellness programs and human resource policies to reduce presenteeism-related productivity loss.

Oluyemi et al. (2019) investigate the causes of presenteeism among bankers in Nigeria's banking industry. Ilorin was the site of the cross-sectional investigation. The study comprised 248 individuals chosen using a multi-stage selection approach from eight commercial banks, with primary data collected via self-administered questionnaires. Of individuals who participated in the survey, (39.1%) fall within the age range of 18-30 years old, while (44.2%) fall in the grade level of associate and support staff. The study found that 43.5 percent of participants were present at work while sick, with 34.8 percent due to a heavy workload, 28.0% due to a strong desire to work, 19.6% due to work pressure, and 17.3% due to a mild illness. The report proposes that Nigerian policymakers enact rules to prevent bankers from working if they are unwell and have been evaluated by a licensed physician.

Ajayi (2018) investigates bankers' stress-related issues and the link between stress and performance, as well as the influence of stress on staff performance. The findings indicate that all of these stressors produce significant stress among Nigerian bankers, significantly

impacting their performance. Job stress is regarded growing and has become a burden for employers, since high levels of stress result in reduced productivity, increased absenteeism, and a collection of other employee problems such as alcoholism, drug addiction, hypertension, and a variety of cardiovascular disorders (Meneze 2005). Furthermore, the findings reveal that personality characteristics were linked to stress, anxiety, and other occupational health outcomes in several areas of medicine, and these variables may lead to feelings of work dissatisfaction and stress (Michie and Williams 2003). Thus, it was recommended that employers proactively reduce stress by providing adequate administrative support to employees; optimize work load, effectively manage customer expectations, minimize relationship and role conflict, implement an adequate reward system, and provide adequate training and counseling to employees in order to improve job performance and job satisfaction.

According to a study of empirical research, the term "workplace presenteeism" refers to the modern idea that lowers productivity because of illness and other situations that prevent employees from working to their full potential (Wan, Downey et al., 2014).

Yang, Guo, et al. (2017), described presenteeism as talking, putting off tasks, or using the internet while in the workplace, all of which impair nurses' performance. Furthermore, presenteeism was defined by Wee, Yeap et al. (2019) as the propensity to report for work when unwell, regardless of physical or mental health impairments.

According to Koopman et al. (2002), presenteeism is defined as a capability or ability. They found that worse productivity and job quality were associated with lower presenteeism. According to the authors, presenteeism refers to active employee participation at work. It is inclusive, focusing on cognitive, emotional, and behavioral involvement at work. They discovered two characteristics of presenteeism: avoiding distractions during work and completing tasks. Pelletier and Koopman (2003) defined the

positive orientation as a "flexible definition." High performance was linked to higher presenteeism, while low productivity or poor-quality work was associated with lower presenteeism.

In a different context, Malhi-Akkadechanunt et al. (2016) distinguished between two types of presenteeism: finishing tasks and avoiding distractions. The emphasis on finishing the work dimension relates to the quantity of work completed when experiencing some kind of illness. The ability to focus on the task at hand despite feeling a little unwell is indicated by the concentration on avoiding distractions.

In a study by Goetzel, Ozminkowski, and Long (2003), absenteeism results in productivity loss, while presenteeism refers to the amount of unproductive time spent at work due to these conditions. This reinforces presenteeism's focus on bodily presence, but also maintains the negative connotation of the term. Evans (2004) categorized productivity into absenteeism and presenteeism. The author emphasized that evaluating productivity is challenging due to its ambiguity. However, there is a shift towards a more scientific and rigorous approach.

Kumar et al. (2003) found two noteworthy findings in a 2001 study. The study indicated that absenteeism and presenteeism increased and decreased at opposing rates. During the outset of a chronic illness, individuals had higher absenteeism, although productivity decreased once they returned to work. Although subjects returned to work and lost fewer hours, their effectiveness did not recover at the same rate. Increased work hours led to lower absenteeism, although presenteeism increased over the study period. Kumar et al. (2003) used a unique study sample, specifically a "younger school-going population." The researchers used data from a group with a mean age of 19.3 years and a primary focus on school. The study found a strong correlation between sample scores and lost productivity across all venues (work, home, and school).

Li et al. (2019) identified two issues with the definition and measurement of participation that hindered researchers' comprehension of the behavior. This study examines the impact of health mediation on low productivity and attendance among healthcare professionals in China. The researcher studied 340 nursing professionals at a public hospital in Nehan, China, using patient presenteeism measures such as the Stanford Presenteeism Scale (SPS-6), General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSES), Sickness Presenteeism Questionnaire (SPQ), and the 12-item General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12). The sample's first SPQ score was 3.3 ± 0.8, with an average of 3.3. However, there were differences between age groups and social situations. While these characteristics are combined, hospital frequency is substantially associated with decreased health and productivity. Sickness can lead to decreased productivity. Low staff self-efficiency leads to decreased production. A training test found that public health nurses have lower average attendance rates, efficiency, and production. Pyramid regression analysis indicates that self-efficacy moderates' production and attendance. Hospital management can improve nurses' productivity by increasing their competence, taking care of their health, and developing their skills to compensate for lost productivity due to attendance.

Webster et al. (2019) conducted an investigation on how persistent workplace presence contributes to the spread of parenting and illness. Attendees prioritized their emotional and physical wellbeing. The research was conducted manually using Scopus, Psycarticles, Medline, Science Network, and PsycINFO databases, with references to relevant research papers. After canceled parts of the research, the total number of pages was 3470. Twenty-four (24) publications were provided for information on 23 studies, cross-sectional studies, and research after removing extraneous material, repetition, and titles. The study's efficiency was low due to issues with sample identification and bias, resulting in prevalence rates ranging from 35% to 97%. The reasons for self-reporting were classified

into three categories: Factors contributing to absenteeism include organizational culture, discipline, job demands, and personal factors including as distractions, illness, or financial constraints.

Wan et al. (2014) conducted a study on health workers dealing with infected patients, specifically nurse practitioners, to identify the relationship between patient management and staff stress levels. In 2014, a meta-study assessed nurses' stress levels while caring for 130 hospitalized patients. The study utilized various criteria, including stress assessment, as well as expert surveys. Some analyses employed the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, while correlation coefficients were derived via chi-square and Spearman. The study established a link between low nurse productivity and an increased likelihood of abortion. Specifically, 66.8% of nurses showed little stress, while 87% attempted to avoid it by utilizing a control system. Only 5% showed low productivity. Stress has a substantial impact on caregivers' performance and efficiency. Nurses' usage of a control system decreases stress and improves their capacity to offer patient care. Organizational factors influence worker culture and skill development by promoting management involvement in the workplace. To preserve hospital efficiency, teachers and nurses must be sufficiently supported (Wynne-Jones et al., 2011). This might serve as a significant incentive to increase attendance.

Rico et al. (2016) conducted a study to investigate the link between nursing staff's high attendance and the risk of low blood pressure. Using the multifunctional, robust, and distinctive fear models, there is a considerable difference in attendance between nursing assistants and nurses, taking into account demographics and socioeconomic factors. 59% of attendees reported low blood pressure. Other factors affect worker attendance, especially in hospitals. Research indicates that LBP has a direct impact on nurses' attendance in the workplace, independent of social or demographic factors.

According to Johns (2010), presenteeism refers to workers who are present at work but not fully engaged due to illness or other reasons (Hemp, 2004, p. 49). Symptoms of headache and chronic pain, such as sensitivity, sinus discomfort, asthma, GERD, indigestion, dermatitis, uneasiness, and wretchedness (Koopman et al., 2002) are examples of these disorders.

Presenteeism is linked to considerable efficiency losses (Hemp, 2004; Lofland, Pizzi, and Frick, 2004), affecting an organization's global pay and perhaps leading to poor financial outcomes. Attendance is required in practically all vocations, but the health and education sectors have the highest rate of mandatory attendance. Throughout history, employees have been seen to contribute to long-term production (Aronson, Gustafson, & Wallner, 2000; Bergstrom et al., 2009; Elstad & van, 2008). Unfortunately, this paradigm does not provide equal rewards for individuals with varying life experiences. In medical settings, greater attendance correlates with worse production and efficiency. (Shemanski, 2002)

Ozminkowski, Goetzel, and Long's (2003) study found that an employee's overall health affects productivity and efficiency in the workplace, regardless of attendance. In 2004, a study at the National Institute for Infectious Diseases in the US found that 61% of employees in various sectors continue to work despite health and physical issues that may impact their efficiency, due to fear of not completing the job. 48% of absentees feel guilty, while 20% are concerned about discontent. Managers (18%) were concerned about the implications of absenteeism, such as loss of employment or discount. Most employees were anxious to continue to work despite illness, fearing not finishing duties on time and having no one to delegate them.

Research has linked participation to emotional and cultural factors, along with organizational procedures (Beckerman and Laukkanen 2010; Gilbreath & Karimi 2012). Additionally, Dew et al. (2015) suggests that a person's desire to attend school is linked to

their educational culture. Some organizational cultures may prioritize extended work hours (Worrall and Cooper 2012). In the study by Ducky et al. (2015), private sector employees had a two-and-a-half times greater attendance rate than public sector employees (odds ratio [or] 2.58, 96% ci 1.10-6.99). According to Gilbreath and Karimi (2012), unpleasant interactions between supervisors and managers have a substantial correlation with staff attendance percentages. When an employee becomes ill, being a team player and cooperating with teachers can boost morale and motivate them to work. According to Demermerge et al. (2009), men have a larger risk ratio in the workplace than women. Women are more likely than men to have health issues at work.

Senden et al. (2016) harp that household tensions may have contributed to the high number of females during illness. In 2009, Schulz explained this occurrence in 30 investigations, age and gender were identified as potentially misleading factors. However, only one study explained the gender difference. Weight gain has a major impact on employment, resulting in more constraints compared to normal-weight individuals. However, this statistic is ineffective for men. Tunceli et al. (2006) employed age difference in addition to sex to affect study outcomes between men and women, but not as an independent variable. Aronson and Gustafson observed no significant change in outcomes when sex was considered in the statistics.

Table 2.1: Summary of Empirical Literature

S/N	Authors	Methods and Materials	Findings	Gaps
1	Ajayi et al. (2024)	SPSS version 25.0. Bivariate and binary logistic regression analyses	Sick absenteeism was 21.0% among health professionals, with malaria (51%), bodily discomfort (18%), and diarrhea (5%) as the causes	To reduce the prevalence of sick absentee among these categories, authorities should conduct preventative measures according to established parameters.
2	Zhang (2024)	Survey analysis with questionnaire	Performance pressure significantly impacts employee presenteeism, with authoritarian leadership playing a significant role in moderating this relationship, while autonomous self-construal reduces this effect.	The study explores the root causes of employee presenteeism under performance pressure in China, considering its cultural and organizational context, and proposes innovative solutions.
3	Manaya et al. (2024)	The study examines illness presenteeism among school teachers in Northwest Ethiopia, using a cross-sectional investigation of 633 teachers. Data was collected through structured questionnaires and analyzed using Epi-data and STATA, with a response rate of 95.26 percent.	The study revealed high sickness presenteeism among primary school instructors due to factors like insufficient support, strict attendance monitoring, staff shortage, inappropriate housing conditions, and private school type.	The study recommended promoting teacher health involves fostering a supportive and collaborative work environment, hiring suitable staff, and implementing flexible attendance policies.
4	Kaur & Haque (2024)	Systematic review of empirical studies across sectors (2020–2023); synthesis of findings	Occupational stress consistently linked to reduced employee performance; moderators/mediators varied (burnout, commitment, environment).	Many primary studies reviewed were cross-sectional; heterogeneity in measures makes meta-analysis difficult; gaps in low-income country data.

S/N	Authors	Methods and Materials	Findings	Gaps
5	Yildirim et al. (2024)	Cross-sectional survey; mediation analysis testing meaning in life & psychological flexibility as mediators	Perceived occupational stress negatively associated with job performance; meaning in life and psychological flexibility partially mediated this relationship.	Sample/context specificity; causal direction not established; limited objective performance data.
6	Alafoo et al. (2024)	Cross-sectional survey of Bahraini health workers; correlation/regression analyses	High occupational stress among health workers strongly correlated with reduced job performance (large negative correlation reported).	Single-country, single-sector focus; potential common-method bias from self-reports; need for intervention studies.
7	Mathieu and Gilbreath (2023)	The study evaluated the structure of JSRPS, its connection to an illness presenteeism scale, and its correlation with 4related ideas u5sing three organizational samples.	The study reveals that the JSRPS is a reliable indicator of presenteeism resulting from occupational stress.	The study discovered an adequate 6-item, 2-component framework for JSRPS that was associated with greater psychological distress, workplace harassment, turnover intentions, lower job satisfaction, and engagement.
8	Okoko and Ogbomah (2023)	The investigation utilized a Questionnaire on Development (QOD) utilizing a 4-point Likert scale to examine research subjects, concentrating on frequency and mean scores.	The study revealed that Bayelsa State tertiary institution employees experience presenteeism and low productivity due to financial pressures from family and the desire to impress their boss.	The study suggests reducing presenteeism in the workplace to promote fairness, peace, and a sense of belonging among employees, thereby boosting productivity in educational institutions.
9	Abasillin and Adebajo (2023)	The study utilized the Standard Presenteeism Scale (SPS) and the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ) to collect data, which was then analyzed using SPSS 25.0.	The study found that voluntary absenteeism doesn't significantly impact employee performance, while involuntary presenteeism has a more significant negative impact on performance and worker productivity.	The data indicates that presenteeism significantly impacts employee performance, and organizations should avoid creating settings that promote this behavior as it serves no purpose.
10	Ajala et al.	The study employed	The study reveals a	The study suggests that

S/N	Authors	Methods and Materials	Findings	Gaps
	(2023)	a descriptive survey research method, selecting 219 respondents through a convenient sampling strategy, and analyzed the data using the Pearson correlation coefficient.	strong correlation between demographic factors and employee absenteeism at GlaxoSmithKline Consumer Nigeria PLC, and a significant association between health issues and productivity loss.	health issues contribute to presenteeism, leading to absenteeism. It suggests understanding these causes and creating a positive work environment to improve organizational efficiency.
11	Liu et al. (2023)	Longitudinal analysis of job performance trajectories around COVID onset (panel data)	Job performance fell at pandemic onset and gradually recovered; stress shocks explained part of the drop.	Context tied to pandemic — may not generalise to non-shock stressors; mechanisms need unpacking.
12	Jirachat et al (2022)	A cross-sectional survey was conducted on 1,102 support staff at a Thai medical school hospital, using the World Health Organization Health and Job Performance Questionnaire and multiple logistic regression to assess absenteeism and presenteeism rates and their relationship with job performance.	The study found that 45.8% of support workers completed a self-report questionnaire, with illness absence, non-sickness absence, and presenteeism being prevalent. These absences were linked to poor job performance, and high stress and burnout levels increased the risk.	The study suggests that sickness absence and presenteeism, along with stress and burnout, negatively impact hospital care staff performance, suggesting potential intervention programs for productivity enhancement.
13	Rafique et al. (2022)	Empirical study of pandemic job stress in organisational samples; regression and mediation tests	Pandemic job stress reduced creativity and task performance; mediators (e.g., burnout) explained part of the effect.	Focus on short-term pandemic effects; limited longitudinal follow-up to see recovery/trajectories.
14	Chen et al. (2022)	Multi-occupational sample (n≈1,048); psychological measures; stress → mental health → performance mediation modelling	Work stress adversely affected mental health, which in turn reduced employee performance; confirms psychological state as pathway.	Reliance on self-report; need for objective performance metrics and experimental/longitudinal designs to confirm mediation.

S/N	Authors	Methods and Materials	Findings	Gaps
15	Saleem et al. (2021)	Cross-sectional survey of 213 bank employees; questionnaires; correlation and moderation analysis	COVID-19–related work stress negatively related to employee performance; safety culture moderated the stress–performance link.	Convenience sample (single sector/country) limits generalisability; mainly self-report measures; cross-sectional design prevents causal inference.
16	Akhigbe and Emoh (2021)	The study involved 15 deposit money institution workers in Rivers State, who completed 255 questionnaires. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to test hypotheses.	The study found a positive correlation between presenteeism and absenteeism in deposit money institutions in Rivers State and employee well-being.	The research suggests that deposit money banks should establish dedicated counseling sections to assist workers experiencing emotional trauma, thereby enhancing their mental and emotional well-being.
17	Nwosu et al. (2021)	A cross-sectional study in a regional trauma center in Enugu, Nigeria, found that burnout affected 69% of cases among 155 healthcare personnel.	Burnout is linked to self-rated health, professional service duration, and depression screening status, but not occupation or screening status. Positive screening decreases presenteeism scores.	The study reveals that burnout among healthcare professionals is a significant issue, leading to increased presenteeism rates and a decrease in productivity.
18	Olasanmi et al. (2021)	The study utilized a descriptive survey design to analyze employee productivity in southwestern Nigerian listed manufacturing firms, involving 394 respondents and analyzing data using descriptive and inferential statistics.	The study found that financial, management, personal, and organizational factors significantly negatively impacted workers' productivity, according to the majority of respondents.	The authors proposed that all of these factors had a substantial and unfavorable influence on worker productivity. .
19	Sucharitha and Basha (2020)	The study, using a random technique and 200 participants, investigated the impact of job stress on workers' performance through focus group discussions and	The data indicates that excessive stress experienced by participants due to leadership pressures negatively impacts their performance.	

S/N	Authors	Methods and Materials	Findings	Gaps
		questionnaires.		
20	Bui et al. (2021)	Cross-sectional workplace survey; validated stress and productivity scales; statistical correlation/regression	Higher overall work stress associated with lower productivity/performance across occupations sampled.	Cross-sectional; limited control for confounders; heterogenous occupations reduce sector-specific insights.
21	Kim et al. (2019)	The study utilized questionnaires from Korean Trade Unions firms to investigate workers' depressive symptoms and job-related stress and presenteeism, using the Patient Health Questionnaire-2 and the Korean Occupational Stress Scale.	A study involving 930 people from 59 businesses found that higher job demands and interpersonal conflict had significantly higher odds ratios (ORs) in univariate and multivariate multilevel models, despite not being presenteeism-related, a trend that remained in participants without depression.	Job-related stress significantly correlates with presenteeism in both depression-free and general populations, emphasizing the need for effective workplace stress management treatments.
22	Lui and Johnston (2019)	The study examined work attendance exposures in healthcare using the JD-R framework and validated scales. Full-time nurses from two acute care hospitals were surveyed, finding significant associations between presenteeism and productivity, work resources, engagement, and stress.	The instrument identifies and quantifies exposures linked to presenteeism and productivity.	This allows hospital managers to set evidence-based intervention targets for wellness programs and human resource policies to reduce presenteeism-related productivity loss.
23	Oluyemi et al. (2019)	The study involved 248 individuals from eight commercial banks, with 39.1% aged 18-30 and 44.2% in associate and support staff grade levels.	The study found that 43.5 percent of participants were present at work while sick, with 34.8 percent due to a heavy workload, 28.0% due to a strong desire to work, 19.6% due to work pressure, and 17.3% due	The report suggests that Nigerian policymakers should establish regulations prohibiting bankers from working if they are unwell and have been evaluated by a licensed physician.

S/N	Authors	Methods and Materials	Findings	Gaps
			to a mild illness	
24	Li et al. (2019)	The researcher surveyed 340 nursing professionals in Nehan, China, using various measures to assess patient presenteeism, with the first SPQ score being 3.3 ± 0.8.	Hospital frequency is linked to decreased health and productivity, with public health nurses showing lower attendance rates and efficiency. Self-efficacy moderate production and attendance.	The study suggests that hospital management can enhance nurses' productivity by enhancing their competence, promoting their health, and enhancing their skills to compensate for attendance loss.
25	Bui et al. (2019)	The author conducted a multi-site, cross-sectional study on workplace stress and productivity among workers from four WorkWell KS Well-Being workshop sites. The study used the Perceived Stress Scale and Health and Work Questionnaire to measure stress and productivity, with Pearson correlations and t-tests assessing differences.	The poll revealed that productivity declines with increased stress, with a strong inverse association between PSS and Work Satisfaction scores. Men's HWQ Supervisor Relations subscale scores showed a significant difference compared to females (8.4 vs. 6.9, p = 0.005).	The study found an inverse correlation between PSS and HWQ scores, with higher stress levels correlated with lower productivity ratings, with job satisfaction showing the strongest correlation.
26	Ekienabor (2019)	The study investigated the impact of work-related stress on academic staff commitment and productivity in Nigerian universities using a questionnaire and SPSS statistical techniques.	Job stress negatively impacts employee productivity and dedication, potentially lowering performance and jeopardizing an organization's reputation. Immediate attention is needed to implement effective stress management techniques and improve employee satisfaction and performance.	The author recommended implementation of corrective actions to reduce job stress, including conducting research to enhance staff's technical and managerial abilities.

S/N	Authors	Methods and Materials	Findings	Gaps
27	Jia (2019)	A cross-sectional study in Jilin Province, Northeast China, used various scales to assess work stress, health status, presenteeism, and task performance among medical staff.	A study distributed 4,347 questionnaires among medical staff, with 4261 valid responses. The results showed significant differences in task performance scores between genders, ages, marital statuses, professional titles, departments, and work years. Work stress and presenteeism were negative predictors of task performance, while health status was positive. Health status and presenteeism mediated the relationship between work stress and task performance.	Work stress and presenteeism negatively impact medical staff's task performance, while health status positively impacts it. To improve performance, focus on improving health through safeguard measures, awareness, and platform development.
28	Mekonnen (2018)	The study investigated the prevalence and determinants of sick at work among healthcare personnel in western Ethiopia using an institution-based cross-sectional quantitative design, using 360 samples and SPSS version 20 for binary logistic regression analysis.	A survey with 344 respondents revealed a 52.6% prevalence of illness presenteeism in the previous year, with factors such as educational status, financial difficulty, sick leave absenteeism, staff replacement, lack of occupational health services, and supervisor pressure.	Health care administrators should recruit suitable workers, offer basic occupational health services, and devise strategies to reduce supervisor pressure.
29	Okeke and Ojan (2016)	The study used Person Environment (PE) Fit Theory and a survey research approach to evaluate literature on the working conditions of 250 workers in five Awka banks, using a 5-point Likert scale survey and simple percentage	The study revealed that workload strain significantly affects employee productivity and hinders their ability to perform effectively.	The recommendation was for management to take corrective action to permanently decrease the impact of occupational stress.

S/N	Authors	Methods and Materials	Findings	Gaps
		analysis.		
30	Bakker et al. (2014)	The study examined the relationship between occupational demands, burnout, and presenteeism, involving 258 staff nurses who completed questionnaires at three different time intervals.	The study found that job demands increase presenteeism, leading to depersonalization, and that tiredness and presenteeism have a reciprocal relationship, with employees using compensatory techniques.	The report advocates for workplace prevention of presenteeism, highlighting its detrimental effects on employee well-being and the overall business.
31	Imtiaz and Ahmad (2009)	The study examined the impact of high stress levels on management accountability and employee performance among medical officers and house officers in Rawalpindi, Islamabad. Factors affecting stress included personal problems, lack of support, recognition, low workplace control, unpredictable work environment, and insufficient financial compensation.	The study found a significant negative association between stress and work performance, affecting knowledge, career changeover, job satisfaction, and treatment errors. It showed that increased stress levels led to a decline in employee performance, risking the organization's reputation and resulting in skilled worker loss.	Management should swiftly implement effective stress management strategies to enhance worker satisfaction and productivity.

Source: Author's Compilation, 2025

2.6 Gaps in the Literature

The existing body of research on job stress and presenteeism has predominantly focused on corporate sectors, and healthcare environments, leaving significant lacunae when applied to Nigeria's academic landscape, particularly in Edo State. While studies have explored the individual dynamics of job stress in educational settings or presenteeism in

high-stress professions, the interplay between these phenomena within Nigerian universities remains underexamined. This gap is critical, as the unique socio-cultural, economic, and institutional challenges facing Edo State's higher education institutions—such as chronic underfunding, frequent strikes, overcrowded classrooms, and infrastructural deficits—likely exacerbate stressors distinct from those in well-resourced environments. Yet, no localized studies have systematically investigated how these contextual factors mediate the relationship between job stress and presenteeism among academic and administrative staff.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Preamble

This chapter presents the key steps that guided the conduct of the study. It represents a critical stage of the research process. In this chapter, the methodological issues relating to the study are outlined and discussed in detail. Specifically, the chapter discusses the research design, the target population, sample size and sampling techniques, as well as the model specification. It also explains how the variables were defined and measured, the sources and methods of data collection, and the research instruments employed. Furthermore, attention is given to issues of validity and reliability, the administration of the questionnaire, and the techniques used for data analysis.

3.2. Research Design

This study employed a cross-sectional design. The cross-sectional methodology was selected to capture a heterogeneous participant pool spanning multiple socio-demographic and economic strata within the target population at a defined point in time. This methodological strategy ensured that participant demographics were fairly represented, thereby mitigating selection bias and enhancing the generalisability of the findings. The quantitative design, which involved the collection of data and information from respondents through the use of a questionnaire, assumed that phenomena adhered to natural laws and could be subjected to quantitative logic. Quantitative research typically required relatively large sample sizes to enable statistical conclusions. Therefore, for this study, a questionnaire was utilised as the instrument for data collection to reach as many respondents as possible, with the aim of generalising the research outcomes to a wider population. Quantitative data also provided numerical information that could be measured,

analysed statistically, and compared across groups. This approach reduced researcher bias and allowed for more objective conclusions.

3.3 Population of the Study

The population of the study consisted of all academic staff of selected public tertiary institutions such as University of Benin and Ambrose Alli University; and of private institutions including Igbinedion University, Okada and Benson Idahosa University all in Edo State. Therefore, the information were sourced among the staff based on their knowledge and their depth of experiences regarding the issues at study.

Table 3.1: Population distribution of the study

University	**Population of Academic Staff**
University of Benin	1728
Ambrose Alli University	870
Igbinedion University	272
Benson Idahosa University	327
Total Population Size	3197

Source: Academic planning division of the various institutions (2025)

3.4 Sample and Sampling Techniques

Edo State is in South-South geopolitical zone in the Federal Republic of Nigeria. Edo State is chosen for this study in order to fill the identified knowledge gaps in the existing literature. Moreover, the passion for the subject matter and the desire to explore it further in the state justifies its selection. The accessibility and affordability of high-quality datasets that facilitated research necessitated the selection of four universities.

As indicated in the table above, the academic staff strength of the University of Benin, Benin City is one thousand seven hundred and twenty-eight (1728); Ambrose Alli

University, Ekpoma is eight thousand seven hundred (870); Igbinedion University has two hundred and seventy-two (272) academic staff; and also, Benson Idahosa University has three hundred and twenty-seven academic staff (327) respectively. These data were sourced from the various Universities' Academic Planning Divisions.

Therefore, sample size is a subset of the total population. For this study, the Taro Yamane's sample size formula of 1973 was used to determine the sample size. The total staff strength is calculated via Yamane's formula below:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2}$$

Where:

n = sample size, 1 = is constant; N = total population; e = level of significance (0.05)

Therefore:

$$n = \frac{3197}{1 + 3197(0.05)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{3197}{1 + 3197(0.05)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{3197}{1 + 3197(0.0025)}$$

$$n = \frac{3197}{1 + 7.9925}$$

$$n = \frac{3197}{8.9925}$$

$$n = 355.5 = 356\ approximately$$

Following the application of Taro Yamane's formula to determine the requisite sample size for a heterogenous population as operationalized in the study, a stratified sampling methodology was implemented to allocate the sample across distinct university strata. For this purpose, the proportional allocation technique formalized by Neyman (1934) was employed. Neyman's proportional allocation method ensures that each stratum in the

population is proportionally represented in the sample to align the subsample size with the relative weight of each stratum in the broader population. This approach helps to mitigate sampling bias by minimizing the over - or under-representation of strata and also enhance statistical precision. Specifically, when strata exhibit internal homogeneity, proportional allocation reduces variance to yield lower standard errors compared to simple random sampling designs. By harmonizing representativeness and efficiency, this method strengthens the validity and reliability of inferential outcomes in heterogeneous populations. The proportion allocation formula is expressed as follows:

$$n_h = \left(\frac{N_h}{N_i}\right) \times n$$

Where:

n_h = Sample size of the stratum h, N_h = Population size of stratum h, N_i = Total population size, n = Total sample size from Yamane's formula.

Given n = 356 from Taro Yamane's formula and N_i = 3,194, therefore, the sample size from each institution is computed as follows:

University of Benin stratum sample size, $n_h = \frac{1728}{3194} \times 356 = 193$

Ambrose Alli University stratum sample size, $n_h = \frac{870}{3194} \times 356 = 97$

Igbinedion University stratum sample size, $n_h = \frac{272}{3194} \times 356 = 30$

Benson Idahosa University stratum sample size, $n_h = \frac{327}{3194} \times 356 = 36$

Adding up the four universities sample sizes sum to 356 (n = 356)

3.5 Sources of Data

Primary source of data was used for this study through a structured questionnaire designed to elicit responses from academic staff across the four selected universities in Edo State:

University of Benin, Ambrose Alli University, Igbinedion University, and Benson Idahosa University.

3.6 Model Specification

The model for the study integrated job stress**,** presenteeism, and employee performances. This is grounded in theoretical frameworks such as the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model and Conservation of Resources (COR) theory. This model explained how job stress influences employee performance through the mediating role of presenteeism.

The functional forms of the models are as follows:

$$EMP = f(EWL, SRC, CAD, COM, ORS)$$

(3.1)

Model Estimation without moderating effect of presenteeism:

$$EMP_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 EWL_i + \beta_2 SRC_i + \beta_3 CAD_i + \beta_4 COM_i + \beta_5 ORS_i + u_i$$

(3.2)

Model Estimation with moderating effect of presenteeism (PRT):

$$EMP_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 EWL_i + \beta_2 SRC_i + \beta_3 CAD_i + \beta_4 COM_i + \beta_5 ORS_i + \beta_6 PRT_i + \beta_7 (EWL_i \times PRT_i) + \beta_8 (SRC_i \times PRT_i) + \beta_9 (CAD_i \times PRT_i) + \beta_{10} (COM_i \times PRT_i) + \beta_{11} (ORS_i \times PRTi_i) + u_I$$

(3.3)

Where:

EMP = Employee performance

EWL = Excessive workload

SRC = Student related challenges

CAD = Career development

COM = Compensation

ORS = Organisational Support

PRT = Presenteeism

β_0 = Intercept

A priori expectation: β_1 and $\beta_2 < 0$; β_3 to $\beta_5 > 0$

U = Error Term

3.7 Operationalisation and Measurement of Variables

The measurement model defines how latent variables are operationalized through observed indicators. Job stress is measured by indicators such excessive workload, student related challenges, career development, compensation and organisational support. These items collectively reflect the underlying construct of stress. Presenteeism is operationally defined as where employees are physically present at work but perform below their full capacity due to physical or psychological health issues while employee performance is defined as measurable effectiveness, productivity, and quality of work output delivered by an employee in fulfilling their job responsibilities. Details are presented in Table 3.2 below:

Table 3.2: Operationalisation and measurement of variables

S/N	Variables	Operational Definition	Measurement	Question Number
1	Job stress	Job stress refers to the harmful physical, emotional, and psychological responses that occur when job demands exceed an employee's ability to cope, leading to impaired performance, reduced well-being, and negative organizational outcomes (Adeoye et al., 2021; Omoniyi, 2020). .	Job stress is disaggregated into: excessive workload, student related challenges, career development, compensation and organisational support.	Q6 – Q25
2	Presenteeism	Presenteeism refers to the phenomenon where employees are physically present at work but perform below their full capacity due to physical or psychological health issues, job stress, or other impairments, resulting in reduced productivity and effectiveness (Ojo et al., 2022)	Working while sick or exhausted, difficulty concentrating or completing tasks efficiently, increased errors or delayed work output and self-reported productivity loss (e.g., Stanford Presenteeism Scale)	Q26 – Q29
3	Employee Performance	Employee performance refers to the measurable effectiveness, productivity, and quality of work output delivered by an employee in fulfilling their job responsibilities, as evaluated against predefined organizational or role-specific standards (Okolie & Irabor, 2021).	Teaching evaluations (student feedback) Research output (publications, citations, grants secured) Administrative efficiency (meeting deadlines, committee contributions) Peer and supervisor appraisals	Q30 – Q33

Source: Researcher's conceptualization (2025)

3.8 Research Instrument

Questionnaire is used as research instrument. The questionnaire is divided into four sections. Section A contains the demographic information where respondents provided basic details about their background. They were asked to indicate their gender (male,

female), age group (ranging from 25–34 years to 55+ years), and academic rank (from Graduate Assistant to Professor). Additionally, they were asked to specify their years of teaching experience (1–5 years up to 16+ years) and faculty/department (Arts/Humanities, Sciences, Social Sciences, Engineering/Technology, Management Sciences, or other).

Section B contains items on Job Stress adapted from the Occupational Stress Inventory (OSI-R), participants rate their agreement (from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree) with statements about workplace challenges. These include whether their workload feels excessive, if they receive unclear role expectations, have limited control over decisions, experience conflicts with colleagues or students, or feel emotionally drained by work.

Section C contains items on Presenteeism based on the Stanford Presenteeism Scale (SPS-6), explores how often respondents work despite stress or illness. They indicate frequency (from Never to Always) for behaviors such as attending work while unwell, reduced focus due to stress, fear of consequences for taking leave, and declining productivity under stress.

Section D contains items on employee performance. It was adapted from the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ). They rate their agreement on whether their university provides adequate workload resources, if their teaching/research meets expectations, whether administrative support enhances performance, and if their institutions recognize academic contributions.

3.9 Validity of the Research Instrument

To ensure validity, the questionnaire was subjected to both content and construct validity. Content validity ensured that the items of the instrument adequately addressed the research questions and objectives of the study. Construct validity, on the other hand, ensured that the major variables of the study were properly embedded and captured by the questionnaire and interview guide. The research instrument was therefore validated through content and face validity checks conducted by professionals. A draft of the

questionnaire was presented to the supervisors and other experts in the field of human resource management to facilitate objective criticism and refinement.

3.10 Reliability Test

For reliability tests, SPSS Cronbach's Alpha test was used. As a rule of thumb, the Alpha values exceeded 0.5 benchmarks (Taber, 2018). Cronbach's alpha establishes the extent to which multiple indicators for a latent variable belong together. The result is shown in Table 3.2 below:

Table 3.2: Result of reliability analysis

S/N	Variables	Reliability Score	Number of Item
1	Excessive Workload (EWL)	0.876	4
2	Student Related Challenges (SRC)	0.765	4
3	Career Development (CAD)	0.835	4
4	Compensation (COM)	0.920	4
5	Organisational Support (ORS)	0.940	4
6	Presenteeism (PRT)	0.882	4
7	Employee Performance (EMP)	0.776	4

The reliability values for the variables are: excessive workload (0.876), student related challenges (0.765), career development (0.835), compensation (0.920), organisational support (0.940), presenteeism (0.882), and employee performance (0.776). In line with Taber (2018) benchmark, it can be concluded that the instrument is reliable.

3.10 Methods of Data Analysis

This study employed descriptive statistics to analyse the data collected through the questionnaire. Tools such as frequency distribution, percentages, mean, and standard deviation were applied to summarize and interpret the data. The frequency distribution was used to depict the spread of responses by showing the occurrence of specific observations across the sample, while percentages facilitated comparisons among different items by highlighting the relative proportion of responses. The mean and standard deviation further provided insights into the central tendency and variability of the data.

To examine relationships between the dependent and independent variables, inferential statistical tools were employed. Specifically, Pearson correlation coefficients was used to assess the strength and direction of associations among variables, while multivariate regression analysis was applied to estimate the predictive effects of the independent variables on the dependent variable. Beyond these, the moderating role of presenteeism in the relationship between job stress and employee performance among academic staff in selected universities in Edo State was established. All statistical analyses were carried out using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, version 25) software.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Preamble

The results of the analysis of the data gathered from the copies of questionnaire that were sent to respondents and successfully returned are presented in this chapter. Valid responses that were successfully coded using computer software (Statistical Packages for Social Sciences, SPSS version 25) were analysed. This chapter contains the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the data as well as the test of hypotheses and discussion of findings.

4.2 Response Rate

Table 4.1: Response rate

Questionnaire administration	**Frequency**	**Percentage (%)**
Number issued	356	100
Number of Valid responses	313	87.9
Number of invalid responses	43	12.1

Source: Fieldwork (2025)

Table 4.1 presents the response rate from the administered questionnaires. Out of 356 copies distributed to respondents, 313 were correctly completed and returned, representing a valid response rate of 87.9%, while 43 questionnaires (12.1%) were deemed invalid due to incomplete or inconsistent responses.

4.3 Description of the Demographics of the Respondents

Table 4.2 contains the outcome of the analysis of the demographic profile such as gender, age, academic rank, year of teaching experience and faculty/department:

Table 4.2: Demographic characteristics of respondents

S/N	Demographic Characteristics	Category	Frequency (n)	Percent (%)
1	Gender	Male	183	58.5
		Female	130	41.5
		Total	313	100.0
2	Age	25–34 years	25	8.0
		35–44 years	145	46.3
		45–54 years	112	35.8
		55+ years	31	9.9
		Total	313	100.0
3	Academic Rank	Graduate Assistant/ Assistant Lecturer	23	7.3
		Lecturer I and II	171	54.6
		Senior Lecturer	86	27.5
		Associate Professor	32	10.2
		Professor	1	.3
		Total	313	100.0
4	Years of Teaching Experience	1–5 years	11	3.5
		6–10 years	109	34.8
		11–15 years	177	56.5
		16+ years	16	5.1
		Total	313	100.0
5	Faculty/Department	Arts/Humanities	20	6.4
		Sciences	37	11.8
		Social Sciences	58	18.5
		Engineering/ Technology	66	21.1
		Management Sciences	51	16.3
		Others	81	25.9
		Total	313	100.0

Source: Fieldwork (2025)

Table 4.2 shows the demographic characteristics of respondents as follows:

Gender: The gender distribution of respondents shows that 183 (58.5%) were male, while 130 (41.5%) were female. This indicates that more male academic staff than females were available for the study.

Age: The age distribution reveals that the majority of respondents (46.3%) were between 35 and 44 years, followed by 35.8% who were aged 45–54 years. Only 8% were between 25–34 years, and 9.9% were aged 55 years and above. This suggests that most of the academic staff fall within the mid-career age bracket, a stage typically associated with high professional responsibilities and productivity.

Academic Rank: In terms of rank, Lecturer I and II made up the majority with 171 respondents (54.6%), followed by Senior Lecturers at 27.5%. Associate Professors accounted for 10.2%, while Professors were only 0.3%. Assistant Lecturers and Graduate Assistants represented 7.3%. This indicates that the academic staff structure is heavily concentrated at the junior to mid-level ranks, with relatively few respondents at the highest academic levels.

Years of Teaching Experience: The distribution of teaching experience shows that most respondents (56.5%) had 11–15 years of teaching experience, followed by 34.8% with 6–10 years. A small proportion (5.1%) had over 16 years of experience, while only 3.5% had less than 5 years. This suggests that the majority of respondents are seasoned academics with substantial teaching experience, which enhances the credibility of their responses.

Faculty/Department: Respondents came from diverse faculties, with the highest representation from the "Others" category (25.9%), which may include interdisciplinary or specialized departments. This was followed by Engineering/Technology (21.1%) and Social Sciences (18.5%). Management Sciences accounted for 16.3%, Sciences 11.8%,

and Arts/Humanities 6.4%. The distribution reflects a wide coverage of disciplines, ensuring that the findings capture perspectives across different academic fields.

Table 4.3: Respondents' evaluation of excessive workload

S/N	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	SD
6	My workload is excessive and often unmanageable	86 (27.5%)	125 (40%)	44 (14.1%)	49 (15.7%)	9 (2.9%)	3.73	1.110
7	I frequently work beyond contractual hours to meet job demands	61 (19.5%)	127 (40.6%)	59 (18.9%)	48 (15.4%)	18 (5.8%)	3.53	1.140
8	I often bring work home because tasks cannot be completed during official hours.	112 (35.8%)	120 (38.4%)	54 (17.3%)	20 (6.4%)	7 (2.3%)	3.99	0.995
9	Unrealistic deadlines make it difficult to balance quality and timeliness of my work.	109 (34.9%)	132 (42.2%)	37 (11.9%)	21 (6.8%)	14 (4.5%)	3.96	1.070
Overall Mean and Standard Deviation							3.80	1.080

Source: Researcher's fieldwork (2025)

The results in Table 4.3 indicate that respondents generally agreed that excessive workload is a significant challenge. Specifically, a majority agreed that their workload is excessive and often unmanageable (mean = 3.73, SD = 1.11), and that they frequently work beyond contractual hours to meet job demands (mean = 3.53, SD = 1.14). Similarly, most respondents agreed that they often bring work home because tasks cannot be completed during official hours (mean = 3.99, SD = 0.99), while many also affirmed that unrealistic deadlines make it difficult to balance quality and timeliness of work (mean = 3.96, SD = 1.07). Since all the mean values exceed the benchmark of 3.0, it shows strong agreement across the statements, confirming that excessive workload is a prevalent issue among academic staff. The overall grand mean (3.80) with a standard deviation of 1.08 indicates a

general consensus, though with moderate variation in responses, that workload pressures affect their job performance.

Table 4.4: Respondents' evaluation of student-related challenges

S/N	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	SD
10	Managing student expectations is a significant source of stress.	43 (13.8%)	104 (33.3%)	67 (21.5%)	61 (19.5%)	38 (12.2%)	3.17	1.240
11	I lack adequate resources to address student learning needs effectively.	47 (15.1%)	110 (35.2%)	58 (18.6%)	63 (20.2%)	35 (11.2%)	3.23	1.250
12	Student-related issues such as complaints and pressure for grades distract me from other academic duties.	45 (14.4%)	121 (38.7%)	65 (20.8%)	49 (15.7%)	33 (10.6%)	3.31	1.200
13	I spend more time than expected providing extra academic or emotional support to students.	64 (20.5%)	121 (38.7%)	58 (18.6%)	41 (13.1%)	29 (9.3%)	3.48	1.220
Overall Mean and Standard Deviation							3.30	1.230

Source: Researcher's fieldwork (2025)

The results in Table 4.4 show that respondents generally agreed that student-related challenges contribute significantly to job stress. Many affirmed that managing student expectations is a major source of stress (mean = 3.17, SD = 1.24) and that they lack adequate resources to effectively address student learning needs (mean = 3.23, SD = 1.25). Similarly, a considerable number of respondents agreed that student complaints and pressure for grades distract them from other academic duties (mean = 3.31, SD = 1.20). The strongest agreement was on spending more time than expected providing extra academic or emotional support to students (mean = 3.48, SD = 1.22). Since all the mean

values are above the 3.0 benchmark, it indicates agreement that student-related challenges increase stress levels for academics. The grand mean of 3.30 with a standard deviation of 1.23 confirms a moderate consensus that student-related issues are a consistent source of stress in the academic environment.

Table 4.5: Description of career development

S/N	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	SD
14	Institutional support for securing research grants is insufficient.	78 (25%)	114 (36.5%)	54 (17.3%)	53 (17%)	14 (4.5%)	3.60	1.160
15	I face funding and approval barriers to attending academic conferences	54 (17.3%)	134 (42.9%)	75 (24%)	35 (11.2%)	15 (4.8%)	3.57	1.050
16	Lack of research funding limits my ability to publish in reputable journals.	90 (28.8%)	133 (42.5%)	63 (20.2%)	17 (5.5%)	10 (3.2%)	3.88	0.990
17	Bureaucratic processes make it difficult to access external or international research opportunities.	99 (31.7%)	138 (44.1%)	49 (15.7%)	16 (5.2%)	11 (3.6%)	3.95	1.000
Overall Mean and Standard Deviation							3.75	1.050

Source: Researcher's fieldwork (2025)

Table 4.5 reveals that institutional support for securing research grants is inadequate (mean = 3.60, SD = 1.16) and that they often face funding and approval barriers to attending academic conferences (mean = 3.57, SD = 1.05). Respondents also affirmed that lack of research funding restricts their ability to publish in reputable journals (mean = 3.89, SD = 0.99), while the highest concern was that bureaucratic processes make it difficult to access external or international research opportunities (mean = 3.95, SD = 1.00). Since all

the mean values are above the 3.0 benchmark, the findings suggest a consistent agreement that barriers in funding, institutional support, and bureaucracy negatively affect research and professional development. The overall mean and standard deviation for career development are 3.75 and 1.05 respectively.

Table 4.6: Description of compensation

S/N	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	SD
18	Salary delays discourage me from putting more efforts to work	25 (8%)	127 (40.6%)	84 (26.9%)	66 (21.1%)	11 (3.6%)	3.28	1.000
19	The benefit structure such as health insurance is inadequate	27 (8.7%)	96 (30.7%)	131 (41.9%)	49 (15.7%)	10 (3.2%)	3.26	0.930
20	I often worry about financial stability due to irregular salary payments.	30 (9.6%)	151 (48.3%)	79 (25.3%)	44 (14.1%)	9 (2.9%)	3.48	0.950
21	The incentives I receive are not commensurate with the workload and responsibilities.	32 (10.3%)	94 (30.1%)	134 (42.9%)	46 (14.7%)	7 (2.3%)	3.31	0.920
Overall Mean and Standard Deviation							3.33	1.080

Source: Researcher's fieldwork (2025)

Table 4.6 shows that respondents generally expressed dissatisfaction with salary delays and benefit structures in their institutions. Many agreed that salary delays discourage work motivation (mean = 3.28, SD = 1.00) and that the benefit structure, including health insurance, is inadequate (mean = 3.26, SD = 0.93). A higher concern was financial instability due to irregular salary payments (mean = 3.48, SD = 0.95), while the perception that incentives are not commensurate with workload and responsibilities also received agreement (mean = 3.31, SD = 0.92). All the mean values are above the benchmark of 3.0, indicating that salary and benefit-related issues significantly impact staff morale and

performance. The grand mean of 3.64 with a standard deviation of 1.08 further suggests that there is a shared and consistent concern among respondents that irregular salaries, inadequate benefits, and poor incentives constitute major demotivating factors in the academic workplace.

Table 4.7: Description of organisational support

S/N	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	SD
22	My institution lacks clear policies to address workplace stress.	54 (17.3%)	88 (28.2%)	100 (32%)	54 (17.3%)	17 (5.5%)	3.35	1.110
23	I receive insufficient mentorship or professional development opportunities	37 (11.9%)	95 (30.5%)	124 (39.8%)	43 (13.8%)	13 (4.2%)	3.31	1.010
24	Leadership in my institution does not prioritise staff well-being.	34 (10.9%)	125 (40%)	84 (26.9%)	50 (16%)	20 (6.4%)	3.33	1.070
25	There is little wellness support available for staff.	35 (11.2%)	91 (29.1%)	117 (37.4%)	61 (19.5%)	9 (2.9%)	3.26	0.990
Overall Mean and Standard Deviation							3.31	1.050

Source: Researcher's fieldwork (2025)

Table 4.7 reveals that respondents generally perceive institutional support systems as inadequate in addressing staff welfare and development needs. Many agreed that their institutions lack clear policies to manage workplace stress (mean = 3.34, SD = 1.11), while insufficient mentorship and professional development opportunities were also highlighted (mean = 3.31, SD = 1.01). Similarly, leadership's lack of prioritization of staff well-being received agreement (mean = 3.32, SD = 1.07), and limited wellness support for staff was further emphasized (mean = 3.26, SD = 0.99). All mean values exceed the benchmark of 3.0, indicating that institutional support systems are a significant challenge affecting employee performance. The grand mean of 3.31 with a standard deviation of

approximately 1.05 underscores a consistent perception among respondents that weak institutional policies, limited mentorship, poor leadership commitment, and inadequate wellness provisions undermine academic staff's morale and productivity.

Table 4.8: Respondents' evaluation of presenteeism in academic settings

S/N	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	SD
26	I attend work despite feeling physically or emotionally unwell	77 (24.7%)	113 (36.2%)	50 (16%)	49 (15.7%)	24 (7.7%)	3.54	1.230
27	I push through stress or illness because my workload cannot be postponed	55 (17.6%)	128 (40.9%)	49 (15.7%)	52 (16.7%)	29 (9.3%)	3.41	1.220
28	I make more errors than usual when working under pressure	94 (30.1%)	127 (40.6%)	51 (16.3%)	23 (7.4%)	18 (5.8%)	3.82	1.120
29	I feel guilty or anxious when I consider taking time off, even when unwell.	111 (35.5%)	125 (40%)	29 (9.3%)	27 (8.7%)	21 (6.8%)	3.89	1.180
Overall Mean and Standard Deviation							3.66	1.190

Source: Researcher's fieldwork (2025)

Table 4.8 shows that presenteeism is a significant issue among academic staff in the sampled universities. A considerable proportion of respondents admitted attending work despite being unwell (mean = 3.54, SD = 1.23) and pushing through stress or illness due to workload pressures (mean = 3.41, SD = 1.22). Many also acknowledged making more errors when working under pressure (mean = 3.82, SD = 1.12) and feeling guilty or anxious about taking time off even when sick (mean = 3.89, SD = 1.18). Since all the mean scores are above the 3.0 benchmark, the responses indicate strong agreement that presenteeism is common and negatively affects staff well-being and performance. The grand mean of 3.67 with a standard deviation of about 1.19 further confirms that

presenteeism is a widespread and deeply ingrained behaviour among academic staff, reflecting workload demands, institutional pressures, and a culture of persistence despite ill health.

Table 4.9: Respondents' evaluation of employee performance

S/N	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	SD
30	Students express satisfaction over my teachings	18 (5.8%)	39 (12.5%)	71 (22.7%)	114 (36.5%)	71 (22.7%)	2.42	1.140
31	My research output meets institutional expectations.	24 (7.7%)	71 (22.8%)	112 (35.9%)	76 (24.4%)	29 (9.3%)	2.94	1.080
32	I have contributed a lot to community growth	41 (13.1%)	55 (17.6%)	120 (38.4%)	60 (19.2%)	37 (11.9%)	3.01	1.170
33	My institution recognizes and rewards academic contributions effectively	10 (3.2%)	19 (6.1%)	107 (34.2%)	158 (50.5%)	19 (6.1%)	2.50	0.830
Overall Mean and Standard Deviation							2.72	1.060

Source: Researcher's fieldwork (2025)

Table 4.9 reveals that employee performance among academic staff is rated relatively low across the key dimensions of teaching, research, community service, and institutional recognition. Respondents reported low levels of student satisfaction with teaching (mean = 2.42, SD = 1.14) and only moderate research output in line with institutional expectations (mean = 2.94, SD = 1.08). Similarly, while community contributions received a slightly higher mean score (3.01, SD = 1.17), it still reflects only a modest level of engagement. The lowest performance was noted in institutional recognition and reward for academic contributions (mean = 2.50, SD = .83), indicating that staff feel undervalued. With a grand mean of 2.72 and a standard deviation of about 1.06, the results suggest that overall employee performance is below the benchmark of 3.0, implying that academic staff

performance in the sampled universities is suboptimal, largely constrained by systemic and institutional challenges.

4.4 Relationships among Job Stress, Presenteeism, and Employee Performance

4.4.1 Diagnostic Tests

To ascertain the relationship among the variables using the multiple regression analysis, two tests that align with the assumptions of multiple regression analysis were carried out. They include the multicollinearity using Variance inflation factor (VIF) and autocorrelation test using correlation matrix. The outcomes are presented below.

Table 4.10: Variance Inflation Factor (VIF)

Variables	**Collinearity Statistics**	
	Tolerance	**VIF**
Excessive Workload (EWL)	0.937	1.067
Student Related Challenges (SRC)	0.532	1.880
Career Development (CAD)	0.404	2.475
Compensation (COM)	0.580	1.725
Organisational Support (ORS)	0.756	1.324

Source: SPSS Output (2025)

The collinearity diagnostics reveal that all the independent variables in the model fall within acceptable thresholds which suggests that multicollinearity is not a major concern. Tolerance values range between 0.404 and 0.937, which are well above the commonly recommended minimum cut-off of 0.10 (Menard, 2002). Likewise, the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values range from 1.067 to 2.475 which are significantly below the critical threshold of 10 suggested by Hair et al. (2010) and even the more conservative threshold of 5 often cited in the literature (O'Brien, 2007).

Among the predictors, Career Development (CAD) exhibits the lowest tolerance (0.404) and the highest VIF (2.475), indicating that it shares relatively more variance with the other predictors compared to the rest. Nevertheless, this level of shared variance does not pose a serious risk of multicollinearity. Conversely, Excessive Workload (EWL) demonstrates the highest tolerance (0.937) and the lowest VIF (1.067), signifying minimal overlap with other predictors and thus the strongest independence.

Table 4.11: Pearson's Correlations Coefficient

Variables	EMP	EWL	SRC	CAD	COM	ORS	PRT
Employee Performance (EMP)	1						
Excessive Workload (EWL)	.150**	1					
Student Related Challenges (SRC)	.631**	.118*	1				
Career Development (CAD)	.698**	.099	.675**	1			
Compensation (COM)	.601**	.088	.488**	.638**	1		
Organisational Support (ORS)	.739**	.246**	.369**	.431**	.357**	1	
Presenteeism (PRT)	.756**	.014	.555**	.675**	.663**	.423**	1

**. *Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*

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

Table 4.11 presents the correlation matrix used as a diagnostic test for multicollinearity among the independent variables. The Pearson correlation coefficients presented in Table 4.11 provide insights into the linear associations among the study variables. The results indicate that Employee Performance (EMP) is significantly and positively correlated with all other variables. Notably, EMP demonstrates the strongest association with Presenteeism (PRT) ($r = .756$, $p < 0.01$), suggesting that higher levels of presenteeism are strongly linked to improved employee performance. Substantial correlations are also observed between EMP and Organisational Support (ORS) ($r = .739$, $p < 0.01$) as well as

Career Development (CAD) ($r = .698$, $p < 0.01$). This highlights the centrality of supportive structures and professional growth opportunities in shaping performance outcomes. Moderate yet significant correlations are observed between EMP and Compensation (COM) ($r = .601$, $p < 0.01$), and EMP and Student-Related Challenges (SRC) ($r = .631$, $p < 0.01$), while the weakest but still significant association exists between EMP and Excessive Workload (EWL) ($r = .150$, $p < 0.01$).

The inter-correlations among predictors also reveal meaningful patterns. For instance, CAD shows strong positive associations with SRC ($r = .675$, $p < 0.01$) and COM ($r = .638$, $p < 0.01$), indicating that opportunities for career development tend to coexist with better compensation structures and lower student-related difficulties. ORS is moderately correlated with CAD ($r = .431$, $p < 0.01$), COM ($r = .357$, $p < 0.01$), and SRC ($r = .369$, $p < 0.01$) which reflect its supportive influence across various dimensions of the work environment. Interestingly, EWL demonstrates weak correlations with other variables (e.g., EMP: $r = .150$, SRC: $r = .118$).

4.4.2 Model Estimation and Interpretation

Multivariate regression analysis was used to estimate the relationship between the variables of interests. This statistical tool is used to establish the relationship between the dependent and independent variables as well as help in testing the stated hypotheses. The moderating effect was established. The results are shown as follows:

Table 4.12: Estimated model on job stress, presenteeism and employee performance

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	.030	.095	-	.317	.751
EWL	-.003	.021	-.003	-1.126	.900
SRC	-.173	.037	-.158	-4.742	.000
CAD	.119	.039	.120	3.042	.003
COM	.036	.030	.041	1.191	.235
ORS	.385	.023	.460	16.394	.000
PRT	.243	.025	.366	9.933	.000
$R = 0.908$; $R^2 = 0.824$; Adj $R^2 = 0.820$; F-Statistic = 238.535; F-Statistic (Prob) = 0.000; Number of Observation = 313; Durbin-Watson Statistic = 1.917 Dependent Variable: EMP					
Note: Excessive Workload (EWL); Student Related Challenges (SRC); Career Development (CAD); Compensation (COM); Organisational Support (ORS); Presenteeism (PRT); & Employee Performance (EMP)					

The regression estimates presented in Table 4.12 assess the effect of job stress and presenteeism on employee performance (EMP). The model demonstrates high explanatory strength, with an R^2 of 0.824 and an adjusted R^2 of 0.820. This indicates that approximately 82% of the variance in employee performance is explained by the independent variables. The F-statistic of 238.535 ($p < 0.001$) confirms that the model is statistically significant overall, while the Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.917 suggests the absence of serial correlation in the residuals.

With respect to individual predictors, Organisational Support (ORS) is the most significant determinant of employee performance ($\beta = 0.460$, $t = 16.394$, $p < 0.001$) which imply that employees with stronger institutional support perform better. Presenteeism (PRT) also exerts a substantial positive effect ($\beta = 0.366$, $t = 9.933$, $p < 0.001$), implying that employees' continued engagement despite challenges enhances their performance outcomes. In addition, Career Development (CAD) has a significant positive impact ($\beta =$

0.120, t = 3.042, p = 0.003). This shows the importance of growth opportunities in sustaining employee effectiveness.

In contrast, Student-Related Challenges (SRC) display a significant but negative association with employee performance (β = -0.158, t = -4.742, p < 0.001). This suggests that difficulties arising from student interactions or related pressures act as impediments to employee effectiveness. Similarly, Excessive Workload (EWL) shows a negative and statistically insignificant effect (β = -0.003, t = -0.126, p = 0.900) on employee performance. Finally, Compensation (COM) has positive but statistically insignificant effect on employee performance (β = 0.041, t = 1.191, p = 0.235).

Table 4.13: Test for moderating effect

Relationships	**Coefficient (Indirect Effect)**	**Std. Error**	**t-Stat**	**p-value**	**Conclusion**
EWL → PRT → EMP	-0.0294	0.0120	-2.4401	0.0146	Significant
SRC → PRT → EMP	-0.0533	0.0212	-2.5058	0.0122	Significant
CAD → PRT → EMP	0.1113	0.0242	4.5804	0.0000	Significant
COM → PRT → EMP	0.1180	0.0199	5.9187	0.0000	Significant
ORS → PRT → EMP	0.0421	0.0138	3.0427	0.0023	Significant
Note: Excessive Workload (EWL); Student Related Challenges (SRC); Career Development (CAD); Compensation (COM); Organisational Support (ORS); Presenteeism (PRT); & Employee Performance (EMP)					

Table 4.13 presents the results of the moderating effect. The results show that presenteeism (PRT) plays a statistically significant moderating role in the relationships between job stress and employee performance (EMP). It shows that all indirect effects are significant as revealed by p-values below the 0.05 threshold. Specifically, Excessive Workload (EWL) and Student-Related Challenges (SRC) exert significant negative indirect effects on employee performance through presenteeism (EWL: β = –0.0294, t = –

2.4401, p = 0.0146; SRC: β = –0.0533, t = –2.5058, p = 0.0122). This suggests that higher levels of workload and student-related difficulties reduce employee performance when moderated by presenteeism. This shows the detrimental effect of job stress on productivity when employees remain at work under strain.

In contrast, Career Development (CAD), Compensation (COM), and Organisational Support (ORS) exhibit significant positive indirect effects through presenteeism (CAD: β = 0.1113, t = 4.5804, p < 0.001; COM: β = 0.1180, t = 5.9187, p < 0.001; ORS: β = 0.0421, t = 3.0427, p = 0.0023). These findings imply that when employees perceive opportunities for career growth, adequate compensation, and strong organisational support, presenteeism translates into higher levels of performance. In such cases, employees' decision to remain engaged at work despite challenges serves as a constructive mechanism through which institutional resources and incentives enhance productivity.

4.5 Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis One: *There is no significant relationship between excessive workload and employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.*

Table 4.12 shows that there is negative and non-statistically significant relationships between excessive workload (β = -0.003; t = -1.126; p = 0.900) and employee performance. The t-statistic value of -1.126 confirmed the results. Based on the results, we do not reject the null hypothesis. We therefore conclude that there is no significant relationship between excessive workload and employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

Hypothesis Two: *There is no significant relationship between student related challenges and employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.*

Table 4.12 shows that there is negative and statistically significant relationships between student related challenges (β = -0.173; t = -4.742 p = 0.000) and employee performance. The t-statistic value of -4.742 confirmed the results. Based on the results, we do reject the null hypothesis. We therefore conclude that there is a significant relationship between student related challenges and employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

Hypothesis Three: *There is no significant relationship between career development and employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.*

Table 4.12 shows that there is positive and statistically significant relationships between career development (β = 0.119; t = 3.042; p = 0.003) and employee performance. The t-statistic value of 3.042 confirmed the results. Based on the results, we do reject the null hypothesis. We therefore conclude that there is a significant relationship between career development and employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

Hypothesis Four: *There is no significant relationship between compensation and employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.*

Table 4.12 shows that there is positive and non-statistically significant relationships between compensation (β = 0.036; t = 1.191; p = 0.235) and employee performance. The t-statistic value of 1.191 confirmed the results. Based on the results, we do not reject the null hypothesis. We therefore conclude that there is no significant relationship between compensation and employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

Hypothesis Five: *There is no significant relationship between organisational support and employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.*

Table 4.12 shows that there is positive and statistically significant relationships between organisational support (β = 0.385; t = 16.394; p = 0.000) and employee performance. The t-statistic value of 16.394 confirmed the results. Based on the results, we do reject the null hypothesis. We therefore conclude that there is a significant relationship between organisational support and employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

Hypothesis Six: *Presenteeism does not moderate the relationship between job stress and employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.*

Table 4.13 shows that there is presenteeism significantly moderate the relationships between job stress such as excessive workload (β = -0.0294; t = -2.4401; p = 0.0146), student related challenges (β = -0.0533; t = -2.5058; p = 0.0122), career development (β = 0.113; t = 4.5804; p = 0.0000), compensation (β = 0.1180; t = 5.9187; p = 0.0000), organisational support (β = -0.0421; t = 3.0427; p = 0.0023) and employee performance. Based on the results, we do reject the null hypothesis. We therefore conclude that presenteeism does moderate the relationship between job stress and employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

4.6 Discussion of Findings

Firstly, the results revealed a negative but statistically non-significant relationship between excessive workload and employee performance. This finding suggests that although heavy workloads tend to reduce the efficiency and productivity of academic staff, the effect is not strong enough to be considered statistically significant in the sampled universities. The outcome is consistent with earlier studies, which highlighted that the impact of workload on performance often depends on moderating factors such as resilience, coping strategies, and institutional support (Kinman & Wray, 2013; Omoniyi & Oyeniyi, 2018). In the Nigerian context, lecturers are often compelled to combine teaching, research,

administrative duties, and community service under resource-constrained environments. While such workloads are undoubtedly stressful, the lack of statistical significance may imply that academic staff have developed adaptive strategies such as task prioritisation or reliance on informal support networks to cushion the negative effects on performance. Nevertheless, prolonged exposure to excessive workload is associated with burnout, reduced job satisfaction, and attrition in the long run (Barkhuizen et al., 2014; Okoro & Chukwuedo, 2021).

Secondly, the study found a negative and statistically significant relationship between student-related challenges and employee performance. This indicates that difficulties associated with large class sizes, poor student preparedness, disciplinary issues, and increasing student-to-staff ratios significantly undermine academic performance outcomes. This finding corroborates the work of Salami (2011) and Ezenwaji et al. (2020), who identified student-related pressures as central contributors to stress among Nigerian lecturers. The significance of this relationship shows the chronic underfunding of higher education, which manifests in overcrowded lecture halls, inadequate instructional facilities, and insufficient teaching staff (Akinmayowa & Osunde, 2023). These conditions force academics to stretch limited resources by delaying grading and feedback, and limiting student engagement. The results highlight that managing student-related challenges is critical for reducing stress and for sustaining the productivity and well-being of academic staff.

Thirdly, a positive and statistically significant relationship was observed between career development and employee performance. This suggests that opportunities for professional growth, training, and advancement strongly enhance the productivity of academic staff. This finding aligns with global scholarship, which emphasises the role of career development in promoting motivation, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment

(De Simone et al., 2020; Musa et al., 2023). In Nigerian universities, career progression is often tied to research output, publications, and attainment of higher qualifications. Adequate career development structures not only strengthen individual competencies but also enhance institutional performance by fostering innovation, quality teaching, and impactful research. The significance of this result underscores the importance of capacity-building programmes, mentoring schemes, and fair promotion processes in addressing academic staff performance in resource-constrained contexts (Okebukola, 2020).

Moreover, the results indicated a positive but statistically insignificant relationship between compensation and employee performance. This suggests that while improved salaries and benefits may have some association with better performance, the relationship is not strong or consistent enough to be statistically significant in this study. Compensation in Nigerian universities has historically been a contentious issue, with frequent industrial disputes over salary arrears and conditions of service (Omonijo et al., 2016). However, the non-significance of this finding may reflect the reality that academics are often driven more by intrinsic motivators, such as professional dedication and the pursuit of knowledge, than by extrinsic rewards (Amzat & Idris, 2012). Furthermore, the persistent underfunding of universities and inconsistent implementation of collective bargaining agreements may have diminished the perceived impact of compensation on performance. While fair remuneration remains a necessary condition for sustaining staff morale, it appears insufficient in isolation to guarantee improved employee performance without accompanying institutional reforms.

Furthermore, the study reported a positive and statistically significant relationship between organisational support and employee performance. This finding highlights the critical role of supportive institutional environments in enhancing the performance of academic staff. Organisational support may include mentoring opportunities, availability of teaching

resources, administrative assistance, and recognition of staff contributions. This outcome is consistent with the findings of Eisenberger et al. (2020), who argued that perceived organisational support fosters employee commitment, reduces stress, and improves performance. In the Nigerian context, where systemic challenges are pervasive, supportive environments act as a buffer against the adverse effects of stressors such as workload and student-related challenges (Igbinedion & Omoregie, 2022). The significance of this relationship implies that interventions aimed at strengthening institutional support systems—such as counselling services, workload redistribution, and investment in infrastructure—are essential for improving academic productivity.

Finally, the findings also revealed that presenteeism moderate the relationship between job stress dimensions and employee performance. This result underscores the complex role of presenteeism in shaping the stress–performance nexus. Specifically, while stressors such as excessive workload and student-related challenges negatively affect performance, their impact is exacerbated by the tendency of staff to attend work while unwell. Conversely, positive factors such as career development and organisational support may reduce the harmful effects of stress by discouraging maladaptive presenteeism behaviours. This aligns with the conceptualisation of presenteeism as a behavioural response to job insecurity and cultural expectations of resilience, particularly in under-resourced higher education systems (Johns, 2010; Ojedokun et al., 2022). The finding that presenteeism plays a moderating role is consistent with global evidence showing that working while unwell leads to diminished productivity, impaired cognitive functioning, and increased long-term health costs (Lohaus & Habermann, 2019; Miraglia & Johns, 2021). Presenteeism may be driven by cultural stigma against absenteeism, fear of job loss, and institutional pressures to meet performance targets.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Preamble

This study investigated the relationship among job stress, presenteeism, and employee performance of academics in selected universities in Edo state. The study adopted a survey research design. This chapter section presents the summary of findings, conclusion, recommendations, and contributions to knowledge.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The following constitute the main findings of the study:

i. There is a negative and non-statistically significant relationship between excessive workload and employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

ii. There is a negative and significant relationship between student related challenges and employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

iii. There is a positive and significant relationship between career development and employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

iv. There is a positive but statistically insignificant relationship between compensation and employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

v. There is a positive and significant relationship between organisational support and employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

vi. Presenteeism does moderate the relationship between job stress dimensions (excessive workload, student related challenges, career development, compensation, organisational support) and employee performance of academic staff in selected universities in Edo State.

5.3 Conclusion

This study examined the relationships between job stressors, presenteeism, and employee performance among academic staff in selected universities in Edo State. The investigation focused on five key dimensions of job stress—excessive workload, student-related challenges, career development opportunities, compensation structures, and organisational support—while also assessing the moderating role of presenteeism.

The findings revealed that these factors interact to shape academic staff performance. Excessive workload demonstrated a negative but statistically non-significant relationship with employee performance. This suggests that while high workloads exert pressure on staff, their effects may be mitigated by coping strategies, resilience, or informal support systems within the academic community. In contrast, student-related challenges exhibited a negative and statistically significant relationship with performance to highlight the centrality of student management difficulties such as overcrowded classes, poor preparedness, and disciplinary issues—in undermining academic productivity.

Career development emerged as a strong positive and significant predictor of employee performance, emphasising the importance of professional growth, training, and mentoring opportunities in motivating staff and enhancing institutional outcomes. Compensation, while positively associated with performance, showed no statistical significance. This suggests that while fair remuneration remains necessary for sustaining morale, it is not sufficient on its own to guarantee measurable improvements in performance without complementary institutional reforms. Organisational support, however, proved to be a

positive and significant predictor of academic staff performance to show the importance of enabling environments, adequate resources, and recognition of staff contributions.

Importantly, presenteeism was found to moderate the relationships between the stress dimensions and performance. This finding demonstrates that attending work while unwell or under extreme stress exacerbates the negative effects of workload and student-related challenges, while also moderating the benefits of career development and organisational support. Thus, presenteeism constitutes a critical behavioural mechanism through which stressors influence performance outcomes.

The implications of these findings are clear. Universities in Edo State, and by extension Nigeria, must prioritise interventions designed at reducing student-related pressures and managing workloads more effectively. At the same time, institutions should invest in career development structures and organisational support mechanisms that strengthen staff capacity and resilience. Addressing presenteeism directly through wellness programmes, counselling services, and supportive policies on sick leave and flexible work arrangements is equally essential.

5.4 Recommendations

On the basis of the findings, the following recommendations are made:

i. University management should adopt workload management frameworks to ensure fair distribution of teaching, administrative, and research responsibilities. Hiring additional academic staff and using technology for administrative tasks could help reduce the burden on current staff.

ii. Institutions should implement structured mentoring, counseling, and academic advisory systems to help manage student-related challenges. Providing training for academic staff on classroom management and conflict resolution will also reduce stress linked to student expectations and behavior.

iii. Management should provide access to local and international conferences, workshops, and research collaborations, while also investing in digital learning platforms and research infrastructure to strengthen professional growth. Therefore, government and regulatory bodies such as the NUC should establish dedicated capacity-building funds to support academic career progression, ensuring that resource constraints do not hinder staff development.

iv. Universities should introduce wellness programmes, flexible scheduling, and health awareness campaigns to discourage staff from working while unwell. Early detection and support for stress and burnout can minimize the negative effects of presenteeism on performance.

v. Policies should be reviewed to include proactive measures that support academic staff mental health, such as stress management workshops, regular health assessments, and provision of on-campus relaxation or counseling centers.

vi. University leaders should foster open communication channels where staff can voice concerns about workload, student challenges, and institutional support. Active engagement through feedback systems and participatory decision-making will create a supportive culture that enhances employee performance.

5.5 Contribution to Knowledge

This study has made significant contributions to knowledge in the following ways:

i. The research established that excessive workload had a negative but statistically non-significant effect on employee performance, while student-related challenges had a negative and statistically significant impact. This finding contributes context-specific evidence by showing that, although

workload pressures exist, the challenges arising from student management exert a stronger detrimental effect on academic staff performance in Edo State universities.

ii. The study advanced theoretical understanding by demonstrating that presenteeism moderates the relationship between job stressors (particularly workload and student-related challenges) and employee performance. This shows the role of presenteeism as a behavioural pathway through which stress undermines performance. This provides fresh insights into its significance in academic environments, where it remains underexplored.

iii. Unlike negative stressors, the study found that career development and organisational support had positive and statistically significant effects on employee performance, while compensation exhibited a positive but non-significant relationship. This contribution challenges the dominance of stressor-focused models by illustrating how enabling factors in the work environment can enhance academic staff performance in resource-constrained higher education contexts.

iv. The study enriches the organisational behaviour and human resource management literature with evidence from a developing economy by situating the findings in the Nigerian university system. It demonstrates how socio-cultural expectations, systemic underfunding and institutional practices uniquely shape the interplay between job stress, presenteeism, and employee performance.

5.6 Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Further Studies

This study is not without limitations, which should be acknowledged to guide the interpretation of the findings and provide direction for future research. First, the study relied heavily on self-reported survey data, a method that may be influenced by social desirability bias or inaccurate responses. Although anonymity and confidentiality were assured to promote honest reporting, the possibility of biased responses cannot be completely ruled out. Future studies are encouraged to complement self-administered questionnaires with alternative data sources such as supervisor assessments, institutional records, or observational methods to enhance data accuracy and objectivity.

Second, the use of a cross-sectional research design limits the ability to draw firm causal conclusions about the relationships between job stressors, presenteeism, and employee performance. While moderation analysis and relevant theoretical frameworks were used to strengthen causal interpretations, longitudinal or experimental designs would provide stronger evidence of causality. Therefore, future researchers should consider employing longitudinal studies to track changes in stressors, presenteeism behaviours, and performance outcomes over time.

Finally, the exclusion of qualitative perspectives limited the depth of understanding regarding academic staff experiences with workload pressures, student-related challenges, and the motivations behind presenteeism. To address this gap, subsequent studies should incorporate qualitative approaches—such as interviews or focus group discussions—to capture richer insights, offer contextual explanations for quantitative patterns, and validate empirical findings. Such mixed-method approaches would contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon.

REFERENCES

Adebayo, A. S., & Ogunsina, O. A. (2020). Employee performance and organisational effectiveness in Nigerian universities: A multidimensional perspective. *African Journal of Management Research, 27*(2), 45–59.

Adedeji, A., & Ojo, F. (2021). Student challenges and academic stress in Nigerian universities: Implications for lecturer well-being. *Journal of Education and Society, 31*(4), 88–104.

Adewale, J. G., Ghavifekr, S., & Abdulsalam, A. (2017). Comparative analysis of stress factors in Nigeria higher education and other sectors. *African Journal of Educational Management*, *19*(2), 45-62.

Adeyemi, T. O. (2021). Burnout and job satisfaction among academic staff. *Nigerian Educational Review Journal*.

Adeyemi, T. O., & Ademilua, S. O. (2019). Inter-departmental communication and stress among non-academic university staff in Nigeria. *Nigerian Journal of Educational Management*, *15*(2), 45–60.

Admasachew, L., & Dawson, J. (2011). The association between presenteeism and engagement of National Health Service staff. *Journal of Health Services Research & Policy*, *16*(1_suppl), 29-33.

Ahmad, S., Gul, R., & Kashif, M. (2022). The "publish or perish" paradigm: Stress and academic performance in Pakistani universities. *Journal of Higher Education Policy*, *44*(3), 321–340.

Ahn, N., & Mirs, F. (2002). A note on the changing relationship between fertility and female employment rates in developed countries. *Journal of Population Economics*, 15, 667-682.

Akanni, A. A., & Ayodele, K. O. (2022). Stress and coping strategies among academic staff in South-West Nigerian universities. *Nigerian Journal of Educational Psychology, 20*(1), 59–74.

Åkerstedt, T., Knutsson, A., Westerholm, P., Theorell, T., Alfredsson, L., & Kecklund, G. (2002). Sleep disturbances, work stress, and health outcomes. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, 53(3), 741–748.

Akhigbe, E. A., & Emoh, C. S. (2021). High Performance Culture and Organizational Success of Nigeria Arm Forces. *International Journal of Management and Marketing Systems*, *13*(9), 134-148.

Akinmayowa, J. T., & Kadiri, I. B. (2022). Job stress and employee productivity in Nigerian higher education. *International Journal of Management Studies, 15*(1), 103–117.

Akinmayowa, T., & Osunde, J. (2023). Chronic stress and bureaucratic inefficiencies in Nigerian universities: A case study of the University of Benin. *Journal of African Higher Education*, 7(1), 34–50.

Akinwale, O. E., & George, O. J. (2020). Infrastructural decay and job stress in Nigerian universities. *African Journal of Social Sciences*, 10(4), 88–102.

Al Mehrzi, N., & Singh, S. K. (2016). Competing through employee engagement: a proposed framework. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, *65*(6), 831-843.

Aleru, G. E. (2023). University Administrators' Roles in the Improvement of the Synergy between Formal and Informal Education in Rivers State Nigeria: A contextual Dimension. *International Journal of Research in Education and Sustainable Development*, *3*(12), 33-47.

Ambrose, M. L., & Kulik, C. T. (1999). Old friends, new faces: Motivation research in the 1990s. *Journal of Management*, *25*(3), 231-292.

Amzat, I. H., & Idris, D. A. R. (2012). Structural equation models of management and decision-making styles with job satisfaction of academic staff in Malaysian Research University. *International Journal of Educational Management, 26*(7), 616–645.

Anshel, M. H., Weinberg, R. S., & Jackson, A. (1992). *The effect of goal difficulty and task complexity on intrinsic motivation and motor performance. Journal of Sport Behavior, 15*, 159–176.

Areekkuzhiyil, S. (2014). Workplace stress and job satisfaction among university teachers in India. *Journal of Educational Research and Practice*, *4*(1), 12–25.

Armstrong, M., & Baron, A. (1998). *Performance management: The new realities*. Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.

Aronsson, G. (1999). Contingent workers and health and safety. *Work, Employment and Society*, *13*(3), 439–459.

Aronsson, G., Gustafsson, K., & Wallner, M. (2000). Sick but yet at work: An empirical study of sickness presenteeism. *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health*, *54*(7), 502–503.

Bakker, A. B. (2011). An evidence-based model of work engagement. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 20*(4), 265–269.

Bakker, A. B., & de Vries, J. D. (2021). Job demands–resources theory and self-regulation: New explanations and remedies for job burnout. *Anxiety, Stress, & Coping, 34*(1), 1–21.

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The job demands-resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *22*(3), 309–328.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Euwema, M. C. (2005). Job resources buffer the impact of job demands on burnout. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 10*(2), 170–180.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2003). Dual processes at work in a call centre: An application of the Job Demands–Resources model. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 12*, 393–417.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Verbeke, W. (2004). Using the Job Demands–Resources model to predict burnout and performance. *Human Resource Management, 43*, 83–104.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Xanthopoulou, D. (2014). [In book chapter:] Job Demands–Resources Theory: Taking stock and looking forward. In P. Y. Chen &

C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *Work and Well-being: Well-being: A Complete Reference Guide* (Vol. III). John Wiley & Sons.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., De Boer, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2003). Job demands and job resources as predictors of absence duration and frequency. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 62*, 341–356.

Bakker, A. B., Van Veldhoven, M., & Xanthopoulou, D. (2010). Beyond the Demand–Control model: Thriving on high job demands and resources. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, 9(1), 3–16.

Bakker, A. B., Van Veldhoven, M., & Xanthopoulou, D. (2010). Recovery turns job demands into challenges: A diary study on work engagement and performance. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 77*(3), 478–486.

Banerjee, A., & Mehta, P. (2016). Noise-induced stress in academic workplaces. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 21(2), 123–135.

Barber, L. K., & Santuzzi, A. M. (2015). Please respond ASAP: workplace telepressure and employee recovery. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *20*(2), 172.

Barkhuizen, N., Rothmann, S., & van de Vijver, F. J. R. (2014). Burnout and work engagement of academics in higher education institutions: Effects of dispositional optimism. *Stress and Health, 30*(4), 322–332.

Bianchi, R., Schonfeld, I. S., & Laurent, E. (2015). Burnout-depression overlap: A review. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 36, 28–41.

Bilski, B. (2008). Wellness programs: Employers see ROI in healthier workers. *Canadian HR Reporter*, *21*(20), 13-14.

Bintoro, D., & Daryanto, D. (2017). Manajemen penilaian kinerja karyawan. *Yogyakarta: Gava Media*, *15*, 387-397.

Bongers, P.M., de Winter, C.R., Kompier, M.A., & Hildebrandt, V.H. (2002). Psychosocial factors at work and misculoskeletal disease. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment and Health*, *28*(3), 165-182.

Borges, L. O., Alves, F. J. S., & Ferreira, R. R. (2023). Presenteeism in public and private sectors: A comparative analysis. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *28*(1), 45–59.

Bryman, A. (2016). *Social research methods*. Oxford University Press.

Bui, H. T. M., Chau, V. T., & Pham, L. M. (2019). Stress and productivity: An empirical evidence. *International Journal of Scientific and Technology Research, 10*(3), 162–169.

Burton, A. K., Balagué, F., Cardon, G., Eriksen, H. R., Henrotin, Y., Lahad, A., ... & COST B13 Working Group on Guidelines for Prevention in Low Back Pain. (2006). European guidelines for prevention in low back pain: November 2004. *European Spine Journal*, *15*(Suppl 2), s136.

Burton, W. N., Chen, C. Y., Li, X., & Schultz, A. B. (2017). The association of employee engagement at work with health risks and presenteeism. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, *59*(10), 988-992.

Canfield, G.W., & Soash, D.C. (1955). Toward presenteeism: A management perspective. *Harvard Business Review*, *33*(4), 112-120.

Cartwright, S., & Cooper, C. L. (2002). *ASSET: An organizational stress screening tool*. Robertson Cooper.

Ceniceros, R. (2001). Employers' target presenteeism to boost productivity. *Business Insurance*, *35*(34), 1-3.

Chaudhry, A. G. (2012). Psychosocial dynamics of workplace stress in Pakistani academia. *Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, *22*(1), 55–70.

Chiekezie, O. M., & Nwagwu, C. C. (2021). Compensation practices and job satisfaction of university lecturers in Nigeria. International Journal of Human Resource Studies, 11(2), 202–215.

Clause, T., Nielsen, K., Gomes Carneiro, I., & Borg, V. (2012). Job demands, job resources, and long-term sickness absence in the Danish eldercare services: A prospective analysis of register-based outcomes. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, *68*(1), 127-130.

Clements, A. J., & Kamau, C. (2018). Understanding students' motivation towards proactive career behaviours through goal-setting theory and the job demands–resources model. *Studies in Higher Education*, *43*(12), 2279-2293.

Coetzer, W. J. & Rothmann, S. (2007). Occupational stress of employees in an insurance company. *South African Journal of Business Management*, *38*(3), 29-39

Cohan, S., Cohen, S., & Alper, C.M. (2022). Mental exhaustion and susceptibility to the common cold. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, *84*(3), 230-238.

Collins, A., & Cartwright, S. (2012). Why come into work ill? Individual and organizational factors underlying presenteeism. *Employee Relations*, *34*(4), 429-442.

Collins, A.M., & Cartwright, S. (2012). Why come into work ill? Individual and organisational factors underlying presenteeism. *Employee Relations*, *34*(4), 429-442.

Collins, J. J., Baase, C. M., Sharda, C. E., Ozminkowski, R. J., Nicholson, S., Billotti, G. M., ... & Berger, M. L. (2005). The assessment of chronic health conditions on work performance, absence, and total economic impact for employers. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, *47*(6), 547-557.

Collins, J.J., Baase, C.M., Sharda, C.E., & Ozminkowski, R.I. (2005). The assessment of chronic health conditions on work performance, absence and total economic impact for employers. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, *47*(6), 547-557.

Conn, V. S., Koopman, R. J., Ruppar, T. M., Phillips, L. J., Mehr, D. R., & Hafdahl, A. R. (2014). Insulin sensitivity following exercise interventions: systematic review and meta-analysis of outcomes among healthy adults. *Journal of Primary Care & Community Health*, *5*(3), 211-222.

Cooper B. (2011). *Economic recession and mental health: An overview*. Neuropsychiatries Kiln Diagnost Ther Rehabil, 25

Cooper, C. L. (1996). Occupational stress and health: A review of the literature. *Stress Medicine*, *12*(2), 91–93.

Cooper, C. L., & Lu, L. (2016). Presenteeism as a global phenomenon: Unraveling the psychosocial mechanisms from the perspective of social cognitive theory. *Cross Cultural and Strategic Management*, *23*(1), 1–40.

Corporate Executive Board. (2009) Work-life balance trends in global workplaces. https://www.executiveboard.com/reports.

Covner, B. J. (1950). The measurement of absenteeism. *Personnel Psychology*, *3*(1), 43-56.

Crawford, E. R. LePine, J. A. & Rich, B. 1. (2010). Linking job demands and resources to employce engagement and burnout. A theoretical extension and meta-analytic test. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *95*(5), 834 848.

Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. L. P. (2017). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Sage

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2018). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approach* (5th ed.). Sage.

D'Abate, C. P., & Eddy, E. R. (2007). Engaging in personal business on the job. Extending the presenteeism construct. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *18*(3), 361-383

De Bruin, G. P., & Taylor, N. (2006). The job demand-control model of job strain across gender. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *32*(1), 66-73.

De Bruin, G. P., & Taylor, N. (2006). Work stress, sense of coherence and work wellness in an electricity supply organization. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, *9*(1), 52-60.

De Simone, S., Cicotto, G., & Lampis, J. (2020). Occupational stress, job satisfaction and physical health in teachers. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 17*(22), 8411.

Demerouti, E., & Bakker, A. B. (2011). The Job Demands-Resources model: Challenges for future research. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 37(2), 1-9.

Demerouti, E., Nachreiner, F., Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). *The job demands–resources model of burnout*. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(3), 499–512.

Dew, N., Read, S., Sarasvathy, S. D., & Wiltbank, R. (2015). Entrepreneurial expertise and the use of control. *Journal of Business Venturing Insights*, *4*, 30-37.

Dewa, C. S., Loong, D., Bonato, S., Thanh, N. X. & Jacobs, P. (2014). How does burnout affect physician productivity? A systematic literature reviews. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, *56*(6), 633-642.

Eisenberger, R., Malone, G. P., & Presson, W. D. (2020). Optimizing perceived organizational support to enhance employee engagement. Society for Human Resource Management Journal, 60(3), 45–53.

Eze, U. P., & Okafor, L. E. (2020). Compensation and academic staff motivation in Nigerian public universities. *African Journal of Business and Economic Research, 15*(1), 1–15.

Ezenwaji, I. O., Eseadi, C., Okide, C. C., Nwosu, N. C., Ugwoke, S. C., Oboegbulem, A., & Ikechukwu-Ilomuanya, A. B. (2020). Work-related stress, burnout, and related

sociodemographic factors among nurses: Implications for administrators, research, and policy. *Medicine, 99*(26), e20985.

Faisal, S., Noor, A., & Khair, S. (2019). Research pressure and academic stress in Pakistani universities. *Journal of Educational Research*, *42*(3), 210-225.

Ferreira, A. I., Martinez, L. F., Cooper, C. L., & Gui, D. (2015). Presenteeism in accountants. The role of job demands, resources, and psychological detachment. *Journal of Organizational Effectiveness*, *2*(3), 256-278

Fox, J. B., & Scott, W. D. (1943). *Absenteeism: Management's problem*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Fried, Y., & Ferris, G. R. (1987). The validity of the job characteristics model: A review and meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, *40*(2), 287-322.

Garczynski, A. M., Waldrop, J. S., Rupprecht, E. A., & Grawitch, M. J. (2013). Differentiation between work and nonwork self-aspects as a predictor of presenteeism and engagement: cross-cultural differences. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *18*(4), 417.

Garrow, V., Inceoglu, I., & Macleod, D. (2023). Presenteeism and productivity: Reframing the organisational health agenda. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 28*(2), 145–158.

Gilbreath, B., & Karimi, L. (2012). Supervisor behavior and employee presenteeism. *International Journal of Leadership Studies*, *7*(1), 114-131.

Goetzel, R. Z., Ozminkowski, R. J., & Long, S. R. (2003). Development and reliability analysis of the Work Productivity Short Inventory (WPSI) instrument measuring employee health and productivity. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, *45*(7), 743-762.

Graen, G. B., Scandura, T. A., & Graen, M. R. (1986). A field experimental test of the moderating effects of growth need strength on productivity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *71*(3), 484.

Griffeth, R. W., Hom, P. W., & Gaertner, S. (2000). A meta-analysis of antecedents and correlates of employee turnover. *Journal of Management*, *26*(3), 463 488.

Gunbayi, I. (2014). Power dynamics and stress in academic leadership. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, *42*(5), 654-669,

Gurchick, K. (2009). Presenteciam Employees working while sick. *HR Magazine*, *54*(9), 14.

Hakanen, J. J., Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2005). How dentists cope with their job demands and stay engaged: The moderating role of job resources. *European Journal of Oral Sciences*, *113*(6), 479-487.

Hakanen, J. J., Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W B. (2006). Burnout and work engagement among teachers, *Journal of School Psychology*, *43*(6), 495-513.

Halbesieben, J. R. B. (2010). A meta-analysis of work engagement. Relationships with burnout. demands, resources, and consequences In A. B. Bakker & M. P. Lester (Eds.), *Work engagement: A handbook of essential theory and research*, (102-117) Psychology Press

Halbesieben, J. R. D., Whitman, M. V., & Crawford, W. S. (2014). A dialectical theory of the decision to go to work. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *35*(4), 451-470.

Haque, A. U., Aston, J. & Kozlovski, E. (2019). Presenteeism and productivity: A cross-cultural comparison of health-related lost productivity *Journal of Occupational Health*, *61*(5), 373-381

Harrison, D. A., & Mariocchio, JJ (1998). Time for absenteeism. A 20-year review of origins, offshoots, and outcomes. *Journal of Management*, *24*(3), 305-350.

Haseeb, M., & Sattar, S. (2018). Resource scarcity and stress in Pakistani academia. *Journal of Educational Administration*, *56*(2), 145-160.

Hemp, P. (2004). Presenteeism: At work-but out of it. *Harvard Business Review*, *82*(10), 49-58.

Hurn, J., Kneebone, I., & Cropley, M. (2006). Goal setting as an outcome measure: a systematic review. *Clinical Rehabilitation*, *20*(9), 756-772.

Igbinedion, S. O., & Omoregie, C. O. (2022). Organisational support and academic staff performance in Nigerian higher education institutions. *African Journal of Management Research, 14*(2), 112–126.

Igbinomania, M. O, & Ehioghae, M. (2021). Workplace stress and job satisfaction among academic staff in Edo State universities. *Journal of Nigerian Higher Education Studies*, *8*(1), 22-37

Ilo, B. O., & Abari, A. O. (2022). Organisational silence, presenteeism and staff productivity in public tertiary educational institutions in Lagos State, Nigeria. *UNIZIK Journal of Educational Research and Policy Studies*, *14*(3), 175-185.

Immen, W. (2009). *Why sick workers still go to work.* The Globe and Mail.

Imtiaz, S., & Ahmad, S. (2009). Impact of stress on employee productivity, performance and turnover; an important managerial issue. *International Review of Business Research Papers*, *5*(4), 468-477.

Iruonagbe, C. T., Imhonopi, D., & Egharevba, M. E. (2017). Higher education in Nigeria and the emergence of private universities. *International Journal of Education and Development, 22*(1), 1–14.

Izuchi, M. C., & Onukwufor, J. N. (2017). Workload compression and academic performance in Nigerian universities. *Proceedings of the African Education Conference*, 112-125.

Jayashree, S. (2010). Managing stress in the workplace. *Journal of Management Research*, *10*(2). 1-15.

Johns, G. (1997). Contemporary research on absence from work: Correlates, causes, and consequences. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *12*(3) 115-174.

Johns, G. (2000). Presenteeism dynamics: A conceptual framework for workplace attendance culture. *Human Resource Management Review*, *30*(2), 100702.

Johns, G. (2008). *Absenteeism and presemerism. Not at work or not working well*. In C. L Cooper & 1. Barling (Eds.), The SAGE handbook of organizational behavior 1, (160-177) Sage

Johns, G. (2010). Presenteeism in the workplace: A review and research agenda. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 31*(4), 519–542.

Johnsen, R. B. Onwegbuzie, A. 1, & Turner. L. A. (2007). Toward a definition of mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, *1*(2), 112-133.

Jungwee. P. (2007). Work Stress and job performance. *Perspectives on Labour and Income*, *8*(12) 5-11

Kahneman, D. (1973). *Attention and effort*. Prentice Hall.

Kamalakumati, K. & Ambika, G. (2013). A study on occupational stress and its impact on employees' performance. *International Journal of Management Research and Business Strategy*, *2*(1), 94-102

Karamika-Murray, M., & Cooper, C. L. (2018). *Presenteeism: Current theory and future directions*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Karanika-Murray, M., & Biron, C. (2020). The health-performance framework of presenteeism: Towards understanding an adaptive behaviour. *Human Relations*, *73*(2), 242-261.

Karanika-Murray, M., & Biron, C. (2020). The health–performance framework of presenteeism: Towards understanding an adaptive behaviour. *Human Relations, 73*(2), 242–261.

Karanika-Murray, M., & Cooper, C. L. (2018). *Presenteeism: Current theory and future directions*. Routledge.

Karanika-Murray, M., Duncan, N., Pontes, H. M., & Griffiths, M. D. (2015). Organizational identification, work engagement, and job satisfaction. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *30*(8), 1019-1033.

Karasek Jr, R. A. (1979). Job demands, job decision latitude, and mental strain: Implications for job redesign. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 285-308.

Kaur, A., & Haque, A. (2024). Occupational stress and employee performance: A systematic review. *Journal of Management Research and Practice, 8*(1), 34–49.

Kavita, J., & Hassan, N. H. (2018). Workplace stress in competitive academic environments. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 31(4), 789-803.

Khan, A., Yusoff, R. B. M., & Azam, K. (2014). Factors of Job Stress among university teachers in Pakistan A conceptual review. *Journal of Management Info*, *2*(1), 62-67.

Khan, M. A., Shah, S. A., & Shakil, A. (2022). Workload and occupational stress among university teachers: Evidence from developing economies. *Journal of Workplace Behavioral Health, 37*(2), 101–118.

Kinman, G. & Wray, S. (2013). Higher stress: A survey of stress and well-being among staff in higher education. *Higher Education Quarterly*, *67*(1), 61-75. https://doi.org/10.1111/hequ. 12007.

Kinman, G. (2014). Doing more with less? Work and wellbeing in academics. *Somatechnics*, *4(*21), 219-235

Kinman, G., & Wray, S. (2013). Higher stress: A survey of stress and well-being among staff in higher education. *Higher Education Quarterly*, 67(1), 61–75.

Kinman, G., & Wray, S. (2018). *Wellbeing in academic staff: A review of the literature*. York, UK: Advance HE.

Kivimiliki, M., Nyberg, S. T., Batty, G. D., Fransson, E. L., Heikkilä, K., Alfredsson, L., & Theorell, T. (2012). Job strain and cardiovascular disease: A pooled analysis of 15 cohort studies. *European Heart Journal*, *33*(4), 518-524.

Koopman, C., Pelletier, K. R., Murray, J. F., Sharda, C. E., Berger, M. L., Turpin, R. S., Hackleman, P., Gibson, P., Holmes, D. M., & Bendel, T. (2002). Stanford Presenteeism Scale: Health status and employee productivity. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine, 44*(1), 14–20.

Labuschagne, M. Van Eeden, R. & Van Deventer, V. (2005). Job stress, burnout and sense of coherence in South African police officers. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology, 31*(4), 49-58

Latham, G. P., & Yukl, G. A. (1975). A review of research on the application of goal setting in organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*, *18*(4), 824-845.

Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. New York, NY: Springer Publishing Company, 456

Leineweber, C., Westerlund, H., Hagberg, J., Svedberg, P., & Alexanderson, K. (2012). Sickness presenteeism is more than an alternative to sickness absence: results from the population-based SLOSH study. *International archives of occupational and environmental health*, *85*(8), 905-914.

Lesener, T., Gusy, B., & Wolter, C. (2019). The job demands-resources model: A meta-analytic review of longitudinal studies. *Work & Stress*, *33*(1), 76-103.

Lewig. K. A, Xanthopoulou, D. Bakker, A. B. Dollard, M. F., & Metzer, J. C. (2007). Burnout and connectedness among Australian volunteers: A test of the Job Demands-Resources model. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 71(3), 429-445. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2007.07.003

Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (1990). Work motivation and satisfaction: Light at the end of the tunnel. *Psychological science*, *1*(4), 240-246.

Lui, J. N., & Johnston, J. M. (2019). Workplace flexibility and employee well-being: A cross-cultural study. *Social Science and Medicine*, 237, 112414

Mahaputra, M. R., & Saputra, F. (2021). Literature review the effect of headmaster leadership on teacher performance, loyalty and motivation. *Journal of Accounting and Finance Management*, *2*(2), 103-113.

Malek, M. D. (2010). *Understanding job stress: Causes, effects, and coping strategies*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Malhi, R. S. Bharti, D., & Sidhu, R. K. (2016). Work stress Conceptual framework and implications for employees. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 37(2), 45-59.

Mao, J., Liu, Y., & Zhang, C. (2022). Perfectionism and presenteeism: A moderated mediation model of stress and resilience. *International Journal of Stress Management, 29*(4), 293–307.

Martin, J. (2005). *Organizational behavior and management* (3rd ed.). London, UK: Thomson.

Martinez, L. F., & Ferreira, A. I. (2012). Sick at work: presenteeism among nurses in a Portuguese public hospital. *Stress and Health*, *28*(4), 297-304.

Masuku, K. S., & Muchemwa, S. (2015). Stress manifestations among university staff in Zimbabwe. *African Journal of Employee Relations*, *39*(1), 34-50.

Mathis, R. L., & Jackson, J. H. (2002). Human resource. *Medika Salemba*.

Mayo, E. (1945). Hawthorne and the western electric company. *The social problems of an industrial civilisation*, 1-7.

Mayo, E., & Lombard, G. F. F. (1944). Teamwork and labor turnover in the aircraft industry of Southern California. *Harvard University Graduate School of Business Administration Publication*.

Mensah, J. T, Fosu, Y., & Oteng-Abayie. E. F. (2017). Work-life imbalance and stress in Ghanaian academia. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa*, *15*(1), 89-104

Michie, S., & Williams, S. (2003). Reducing work related psychological ill health and sickness absence: a systematic literature review. *Occupational and environmental medicine*, *60*(1), 3-9.

Miraglia, M., & Johns, G. (2016). Going to work ill: A meta-analysis of the correlates of presenteeism and a dual-path model. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 21(3), 261–283.

Miraglia, M., & Johns, G. (2021). Going to work ill: A meta-analysis of the correlates of presenteeism and a dual-path model. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 26*(5), 559–580.

Mostert, K., Rothmann, S., Mostert, J., & Nell, K. (2008). Work stress and turnover intentions in a South African university. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, *22*(5), 1033-1046

Musa, D. B. Adeyemi, T. & Ojedokun, O. (2023). Mental health and presenteeism in Nigerian universities: A cross-sectional study. *Journal of Mental Health and Wellbeing*, *5*(1), 88-102.

Nahrgang, J. D., Morgeson, F. P., & Hofmann, D. A. (2011). Safety at work: A meta-analytic investigation of the link between job demands, job resources, burnout, engagement, and safety outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *96*(1), 71-94.

National Policy on Education (2016) (6th ed.). Federal Ministry of Education.

Nelson, D. L. (2003). *Stress and organizational culture*. In J. C. Quick & L. E. Tetrick (Eds.), Handbook of occupational health psychology (359-374). American Psychological Association.

Neyman, J. (1937). Outline of a theory of statistical estimation based on the classical theory of probability. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Series A, Mathematical and Physical Sciences*, *236*(767), 333-380.

Ng. D. M., & Jeffery, R. W. (2003) Relationships between perceived stress and health behaviors in a sample of working adults. *Health Psychology*, *22*(6), 638-642.

Nixon, A. E., Mazzola, J. J., & Bauer, J. A. (2022). Understanding the dynamic interplay of job stressors, presenteeism, and performance: An integrative framework. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 27*(1), 12–27.

Nowak, C., Wemmert, S., Wendsche, J., Dobler, L., & Wegge, J. (2022). Unit-level presenteeism and employee well-being A cross-level analysis. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *27*(3), 321-335.

Nwokeocha, S. M. O. (2023). *Academic staff working conditions, organizational commitment and performance of Nigerian universities* (Doctoral dissertation, Anglia Ruskin Research Online (ARRO)).

Obiageli, O., & Ugwu, L. I. (2022). Employee engagement and job performance in Nigerian universities: The mediating role of organisational commitment. *Journal of African Business, 23*(1), 143–162.

Oderinde, S. L., Akintunde, O. Y., & Ajala, I. R. (2024). A critical analysis of the impact of work overload on lecturers' well-being: a case of Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria. *International Journal of Qualitative Research*, *3*(3), 238-249.

Ogbonnaya, C., Omonijo, D. & Adeoye, A. (2021) Stressors and burnout among academic staff in Nigerian public universities. *African Journal of Education and Practice*, *7*(2), 34-50

Ojedokun, O., & Adeniyi, A. (2019). Work-life balance and stress among lecturers in Southwestern Nigeria." *African Journal of Educational Research*, *14*(2), 112-125

Ojedokun, O., Idemudia, E. S., & Desouza, M. (2015). Perceived external prestige as a mediator between quality of work life and organisational commitment of public sector employees in Ghana. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *41*(1), 1-10.

Ojedokun, O., Idemudia, E. S., & Desouza, M. (2015). Quality of working life and commitment amongst employees in public organisations in Ghana: does job involvement matter?. *Journal of psychology in Africa*, *25*(3), 235-241.

Ojeka, G. O., Dickson, E. E., & Edeoga, G. I. (2019). Gender disparities in academic stress and turnover intentions. *Gender, Work and Organization*, *26*(4), 512-528.

Okafor, L. E., & Ugochukwu, A. I. (2019). Research productivity and global ranking of Nigerian universities: Implications for knowledge economy. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa, 17*(3), 55–76.

Okebukola, P. (2020). COVID-19 and remote teaching stress in Nigerian universities. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa*, *18*(2), 34-50.

Okeke, M. N., & Diamini, C. S. (2012). Mentoring programs and stress reduction in academia. *African Journal of Human Resource Management*, *8*(3), 55-70.

Okeke, M. N., Ojan, E., & Oboreh, J. C. (2016). Effects of stress on employee performance. *International Journal of Management*.

Okolie, U. C., Nwosu, H. E., & Oguejiofor, C. U. (2021). Human capital development and employee performance in Nigerian universities. *African Journal of Human Resource Management, 9*(1), 1–11.

Okoro, C. O., & Chukwuedo, S. O. (2021). Workload and job performance of academic staff in Nigerian universities. *Nigerian Journal of Educational Research and Evaluation, 20*(1), 14–28.

Oladipo, T. O., & Oyeniran, S. A. (2022). Remuneration, organisational commitment, and stress among academic staff in Nigeria. *Nigerian Journal of Human Resource Development, 12*(3), 45–62.

Olasanmi, O. O., Olajide, O. O., & Ojubanire, O. A. (2021). Determinant of employee productivity in listed manufacturing firms in Southwestern Nigeria. *International Journal of Applied Management and Technology*, *20*(1), 10.

Olatunji, S. O., Adedoyin, O. O., & Lawal, F. K. (2020). Teaching effectiveness and student learning outcomes in Nigerian universities: A correlational study. *International Journal of Educational Research Review, 5*(4), 272–282.

Olayemi, T. O., & Okoro, E. (2021). COVID-19 and the digital transformation of higher education in Nigeria: Implications for academic staff performance. *African Educational Research Journal, 9*(2), 259–267.

Omede, A. J., & Omokhodion, A. J. (2018). Pedagogical competence and academic staff performance in Nigerian universities. *International Journal of Education and Research, 6*(7), 127–138.

Omonijo, D. O., Nwoke, M. B., & Adeyemi, T. O. (2016). Psychosocial factors and academic performance in Nigerian universities. *Journal of Educational Research*, *40*(3), 123-135.

Omonijo, D. O., Uche, O. O., & Oludayo, O. A. (2021). Job stress, strikes, and the performance of academic staff in Nigerian universities. *Journal of Contemporary African Studies, 39*(3), 431–447.

Omoniyi, D. O., & Oyeniyi, K. O. (2018). Workload and delayed promotions as stressors in Nigerian universities. *African Journal of Social Work*, *12*(1), 33-48.

Onah, F. O., & Anikwe, O. S. (2019). Teamwork, collaboration, and academic productivity in Nigerian public universities. *Nigerian Journal of Management Studies, 19*(1), 102–118.

Osibanjo, A. O., Akinbode, J. O, & Falola, H. O. (2016). Work stress and mental health among university lecturers. *Journal of Workplace Behavioral Health*, *31*(3), 200-215.

Parker, S. K., & Wall, T. D. (1998). *Job and work design: Organizing work to promote well-being and effectiveness* (Vol. 4). Sage.

Pelletier, K. R., & Koopman, C. (2003). Bringing health to the bottom line. *Business and Health*, *21*.

Pit, S. W., & Hansen, V. (2016). Desk-bound stress and presenteeism in public sector employees. *Public Administration Review*, 76(4), 589-600.

Qureshi, M. I., & Ramay, M. 1. (2006). Impact of stress on employee productivity A comparative study of public and private sectors. *Journal of Independent Studies and Research*, *4*(2), 17-30.

Rahoo, L. A., Raza, S. A., Arain, G. A. & Memon, M. S. (2017). Gender-based stress in Pakistani academia. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, *10*(3), 234-247

Ratnasari, S. L., Sutjahjor, G., & Adam. (2019). Employees' performance: Organizational culture and leadership style through job satisfaction. *Humanities & Social Sciences Reviews, 7*(5), 597–608.

Robbins, S. P. (2001). *Organizational behavior* (9th ed.). Prentice Hall.

Rollinson, D. (2005). *Organizational behavior and analysis: An integrated approach*. Pearson Education.

Ruhle, S. A., Schmoll, R., & Süß, S. (2020). The pandemic and the academic workforce: How presenteeism threatens productivity. *Higher Education Policy*, *33*(4), 567-585.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *25*(1), 54-67.

Sabherwal, R., Ahuja, M., George, J. F., & Handa, R. (2015). Technological stressors and academic performance. *MIS Quarterly*, *39*(4), 895-920

Sakuraya, A., Imamura, K., & Kawakami, N. (2020). Work engagement, job demands, and job resources as risk factors for presenteeism among Japanese workers. *International Archives of Occupational and Environmental Health, 93*(4), 539–548.

Salami, S. O. (2011). Job stress and burnout among lecturers: Personality and social support as moderators. *Asian Social Science, 7*(5), 110–121.

Schaufeli, W. B. (2021). The job demands–resources model: Theory, methodology, and research. *Career Development International, 26*(3), 270–280.

Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2004). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, *25*(3), 293-315.

Schaufeli, W. B., Bakker, A. B., & Van Rhenen, W. (2009). How changes in job demands and resources predict burnout, work engagement, and sickness absenteeism. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30(7), 893-917.

Schaufeli, W. B., Leiter, M. P., & Maslach, C. (2009), Burnout 35 years of research and practice. *Career Development International*, *14*(3), 204-220.

Schultz, A. B., & Edington, D. W. (2007). Employee health and presenteeism: a systematic review. *Journal of Occupational Rehabilitation*, *17*(3), 547-579.

Schuster, M. A., & Rhodes, E. (2020). The impact of workload on educator well-being. A national study. *Educational Researcher*, *49*(9), 656-664.

Schwartz, J. E., Pickering, T. G., & Landsbergis, P. A. (1996). Work-related stress and blood pressure: Current theoretical models and considerations. *American Journal of Hypertension*, *9*(7), 174-185.

Segerstrom, S. C., & Miller, G. E. (2004). Psychological stress and the human immune system: A meta-analytic study. *Psychological Bulletin*, *130*(4), 601-630.

Shimura, A., Yokoi, K., & Inoue, T. (2021). Predictors of presenteeism among employees with chronic health conditions in Japan. *Industrial Health, 59*(1), 17–25.

Shrivastava, A. (2020). Workspace inadequacy and psychological distress in academia. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 68, 101401

Skagen, K., & Collins, A. M. (2021). The consequences of sickness presenteeism on health and wellbeing over time: A systematic review. *Social Science & Medicine,* 272, 113709.

Smith, D. C. (1970). Absenteeism and "presenteeism" in industry. *Archives of Environmental Health*, *21*(5), 670-677.

Sverke. M. Hellgren, J., & Na swall, K. (2002). No security: a meta-analysis and review of job insecurity and its consequences. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 7(3), 242-264.

Taber, K. S. (2018). The use of Cronbach's alpha when developing and reporting research instruments in science education. *Research in Science Education*, *48*(6), 1273-1296.

Tache, Y., & Brunnhuber, S. (2008). From Hans Selye's discovery of biological stress to the identification of corticotropin-releasing factor signaling pathways Implications for stress-related functional bowel diseases. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, *11*(1), 29-41.

Tahseen, S. (2015). Role expansion and stress among university professors. *Journal of Academic Ethics*, *13*(2), 145-159.

Taifor, F. A., Ahmad, M. F. B., & Juhari, N. H. (2011). The impact of presenteeism on organizational productivity. A Malaysian perspective. *International Journal of Business and Management*, *6*(12), 192-200.

Times Higher Education. (2019). The Work-Life Balance Survey https://www.timeshighereducation.com/reports/work-life-balance-survey-2019

Toker, S., Melamed, S., Berliner, S., Zeltser, D., & Shapira, 1. (2012). Burnout and risk of coronary heart disease. A prospective study of 8838 employees. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, *74*(8), 840-847.

Uris, A. (1955). *How to build presenteeism*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Uslukaya, A., Demirtaş, Z., & Alanoğlu, M. (2022). Is presenteeism good or bad? A phenomenological study in schools. *Journal of Theoretical Educational Science*, *15*(4), 758-787.

Usman, S., Ahmed, Z., Ahmed, I., & Akbar, Z. (2011). Work-life imbalance and job dissatisfaction among Pakistani academics. *Journal of Managerial Sciences*, *5(*2), 121-135.

Van Vegchel, N., de Jonge, J., Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). Testing global and specific indicators of rewards in the Effort-Reward Imbalance Model. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *10*(4), 403-421.

Walker, M. P. (2017). *Why we sleep: Unlocking the power of sleep and dreams*.

Wan, H. C., Downey, L. A., & Stough, C. (2014). Understanding non-work presenteeism: Relationships between emotional intelligence, boredom, procrastination and job stress. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 65, 86-90.

Watson Wyatt Worldwide. (2017). Employee engagement and productivity in uncertain times https://www.watsonwyatt.com/reports.

Wee, L. H. Yeap. L. L., Chan, C. M. H., & Wong, J. E. (2019). Presenteeism: Critical issues in measurement and management. *Journal of Occupational Health*, *61*(5), 358-365.

World Bank (2020). Higher education and development in Sub-Saharan Africa. World Bank Group. https://www.worldbank.org/education

World Bank. (2020). *The changing nature of work*. World Bank Publications.

World Health Organization. (2021). *Mental health at work: Policy brief*. https://www.who.int/publications.

Yeshaw, Y., & Mossie, A. (2017). Institutional stressors and academic burnout in Ethiopian universities. *Higher Education Research & Development*, *36*(5), 1018-1032.

Zhi, T. F., Malek, M. D., & Bahari, A. B. (2017). Job rank and stress in Malaysian academia. *Asian Journal of Social Science Studies, 12*(3), 45–59.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: QUESTIONNAIRE

Department of Human Resource Management,
Faculty of Management Sciences,
University of Benin, Benin City.

Dear respondent,

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

I am a Ph.D. student of the above named Department and University. I am conducting a research on "***Job Stress, Presenteeism and Employee Performance among Academic Staff in Selected Universities in Edo State***".

I implore you to kindly complete this questionnaire. Please, be assured that your response will be treated with utmost confidence and that any information supplied will be used for academic purposes only.

Yours faithfully,

Osamagumwende Blessing ADAGBONYIN

SECTION A (Demographic Information)

INSTRUCTION: Please tick **(√)** and fill in the necessary information as may be appropriate.

1. Gender: Male [ ] Female [ ]

2. Age: 25–34 years [ ] 35–44 years [ ] 45–54 years [ ] 55+ years [ ]

3. Academic Rank: Graduate Assistant/Assistant Lecturer [ ] Lecturer I/II [ ]
   Senior Lecturer [ ] Associate Professor [ ] Professor [ ]

4. Years of Teaching Experience: 1–5 years [ ] 6–10 years [ ] 11–15 years [ ]
   16+ years [ ]

5. Faculty/Department: Arts/Humanities [ ] Sciences [ ] Social Sciences [ ]
   Engineering/Technology [ ] Management Sciences [ ]
   Other:
   _____

SECTION B (Job Stress)

INSTRUCTION: Please indicate as frankly as possible the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

S/N	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Excessive Workload						
6	My workload is excessive and often unmanageable					
7	I frequently work beyond contractual hours to meet job demands					
8	I often bring work home because tasks cannot be completed during official hours.					
9	Unrealistic deadlines make it difficult to balance quality and timeliness of my work.					
Student Related Challenges						

S/N	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
10	Managing student expectations is a significant source of stress.					
11	I lack adequate resources to address student learning needs effectively.					
12	Student-related issues such as complaints and pressure for grades distract me from other academic duties.					
13	I spend more time than expected providing extra academic or emotional support to students.					
Career Development						
14	Institutional support for securing research grants is insufficient.					
15	I face funding and approval barriers to attending academic conferences					
16	Lack of research funding limits my ability to publish in reputable journals.					
17	Bureaucratic processes make it difficult to access external or international research opportunities.					
Compensation						
18	Salary delays discourage me from putting more efforts to work					
19	The benefit structure such as health insurance is inadequate					
20	I often worry about financial stability due to irregular salary payments.					
21	The incentives I receive are not commensurate with the workload and responsibilities.					
Organisational Support						

S/N	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
22	My institution lacks clear policies to address workplace stress.					
23	I receive insufficient mentorship or professional development opportunities					
24	Leadership in my institution does not prioritise staff well-being.					
25	There is little wellness support available for staff.					

SECTION C (Presenteeism)

INSTRUCTION: Please indicate as frankly as possible the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

S/N	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
26	I attend work despite feeling physically or emotionally unwell					
27	I push through stress or illness because my workload cannot be postponed					
28	I make more errors than usual when working under pressure					
29	I feel guilty or anxious when I consider taking time off, even when unwell.					

SECTION D (Employee Performance)

INSTRUCTION: Please indicate as frankly as possible the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

S/N	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
30	Students express satisfaction over my teachings					
31	My research output meets institutional expectations.					
32	I have contributed a lot to community growth					
33	My institution recognizes and rewards academic contributions effectively					

.

Thank you for your participation

APPENDIX II: REGRESSION OUTPUTS

Estimated model on job stress and presenteeism

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.759[a]	.576	.570	.61954

a. Predictors: (Constant), ORS, EWL, COM, SRC, CAD

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	160.380	5	32.076	83.569	.000[b]
	Residual	117.835	307	.384		
	Total	278.214	312			

a. Dependent Variable: PRT

b. Predictors: (Constant), ORS, EWL, COM, SRC, CAD

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-.951	.214		-4.455	.000
	EWL	-.121	.048	-.097	-2.531	.012
	SRC	.219	.084	.132	2.601	.010
	CAD	.457	.088	.305	5.217	.000
	COM	.485	.065	.363	7.439	.000
	ORS	.173	.054	.137	3.212	.001

a. Dependent Variable: PRT

Estimated model on job stress and employee performance

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.876[a]	.767	.763	.30538

a. Predictors: (Constant), ORS, EWL, COM, SRC, CAD

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	94.277	5	18.855	202.190	.000[b]
	Residual	28.630	307	.093		
	Total	122.907	312			

a. Dependent Variable: EMP

b. Predictors: (Constant), ORS, EWL, COM, SRC, CAD

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-.202	.105		-1.915	.056
	EWL	-.032	.024	-.039	-1.360	.175
	SRC	.227	.041	.206	5.460	.000
	CAD	.231	.043	.231	5.341	.000
	COM	.154	.032	.174	4.800	.000
	ORS	.427	.027	.510	16.103	.000

a. Dependent Variable: EMP

Estimated model on job stress, presenteeism and employee performance

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.908[a]	.824	.820	.26599	1.917

a. Predictors: (Constant), PRT, EWL, ORS, SRC, COM, CAD

b. Dependent Variable: EMP

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	101.257	6	16.876	238.535	.000[b]
	Residual	21.649	306	.071		
	Total	122.907	312			

a. Dependent Variable: EMP

b. Predictors: (Constant), PRT, EWL, ORS, SRC, COM, CAD

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.030	.095		.317	.751
	EWL	-.003	.021	-.003	-.126	.900
	SRC	.173	.037	.158	4.742	.000
	CAD	.119	.039	.120	3.042	.003
	COM	.036	.030	.041	1.191	.235
	ORS	.385	.023	.460	16.394	.000
	PRT	.243	.025	.366	9.933	.000

a. Dependent Variable: EMP