WORKLOAD AND LIFESTYLE AS CORRELATES OF STRESS AMONG UNIVERSITY LECTURERS IN EDO STATE

Olalekan Tesilim ABINA

UNIVERSITY OF BENIN

BENIN CITY

DECEMBER, 2025

WORKLOAD AND LIFESTYLE AS CORRELATES OF STRESS AMONG UNIVERSITY LECTURERS IN EDO STATE

Olalekan Tesilim ABINA

PG/EDU/1119662

Diploma in physical Education (Benin)

B.Sc (Ed), Physical and Health Education(Abraka)

M. Sc. (Ed), Health Education,Benin.

A THESIS WRITTEN IN THE DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, SAFETY AND ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION, FACULTY OF EDUCATION. AND PRESENTED TO COLLEGE OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN COMMUNITY HEALTH EDUCATION OF THE UNIVERSITY OF BENIN, BENIN CITY

CERTIFICATION

We, the undersigned, certify that Olalekan Tesilim ABINA in the Department of Health, Safety and Environmental Education, Faculty of Education, University of Benin, Benin City carried out the study.

_____ _____

Prof. I. Owie Date

Chief Supervisor

_____ _____

Prof. Mrs.U. Igbudu Date

Co – Supervisor

_____ _____

Dr.Mrs. H.O. Obasuyi Date

Ag. H.O.D.

DEDICATION

The research is dedicated to the Almighty God for He is the giver of Life.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The researcher expresses his heartfelt appreciation to God Almighty for His love and divine protection during the entire research period. The researcher is especially grateful to Professor Ikponmwosa Owie, who graciously took time to thoroughly review this work. His commitment and valuable corrections significantly enhanced the quality of this research. Sincere appreciation is also extended to Professor (Mrs.) U. Igbudu for not only sharing her vast academic knowledge but also dedicating time to review the work and offer insightful suggestions. You are indeed a mother, and your nurturing support is deeply appreciated.

The researcher extends his deepest gratitude to the Acting Head of Department, Dr. (Mrs.) H. O. Obasuyi, and the entire staff of the Department of Health, Safety, and Environmental Education for their immense contributions. Special thanks go to the following individuals for their valuable comments and observations at various stages of this research work: Dr. (Mrs.) J. A. Agbonifo, S.O. Olikiabo, T.A. Akingbade (of blessed memory), Mrs. O.O. Egbochuku, Mrs. M. Onobumeh, D. Aideyan, I.N. Erhabor, Mrs. C. Atedoh, Mrs. H. Ehiorobo, Mrs. E.B. Timbiri, Mrs. J.U. Don, Mr. D. Oronsaye, Mrs. E. Odigie. Mrs. T. Egbon, and Mrs. B. Anabulele,

The researcher is also grateful to his colleagues: Drs. V. Braimah, Y. Suleiman, A.O. Abduirasaq, and Mrs. P. Uwadiale. Your comments, contributions, and critiques during classroom interactions were invaluable to the researcher's academic development.

The researcher acknowledges with deep appreciation the guidance and academic influence of the following professors: Professors O.K. Omoroguiwa (Dean, Faculty of Education), F.E.O. Omoruyi, R.J. Musa, E.O. Iyamu, C.N. Omoifo, A.U. Osunde, B.O. Ogonor, and A. Adeyemi. Special thanks are also due to the following doctors for their scholarly contributions and support throughout the research: Drs. P.K. Adeosun, G.C. Abey-Fashae, B.N. Aghahowas, and other

distinguished lecturers of the Faculty of Education, whose teachings greatly enhanced the researcher's knowledge and perspective.

The researcher is grateful to Mr. Igbinigie of the Department of Computer Science, Benson Idahosa University, and Mrs. I. Abina of the Department of Microbiology, University of Benin, for their encouragement and support throughout the research journey. Special appreciation is extended to the researcher's brother, Bamidele Abina, Esq., and Mr. Lateef Abina for their consistent moral and financial support.

The researcher also acknowledges the friendship and support of Mr. A. Momoh and Mr. Egbafe, met during the course of the program. Finally, the researcher places on record his deepest gratitude to his beloved wife, Mrs. I. Abina, and children for their unwavering support, encouragement, and understanding throughout this academic journey. Your love, patience, and sacrifices have been invaluable, you are truly wonderful.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

PAGES

LIST OF FIGURE

PAGE

LIST OF APPENDICES

ABSTRACT

This study investigated workload and lifestyle as correlates of stress among university lecturers in Edo State, Nigeria. The objectives were to examine the relationships between lecturers 'workload, lifestyle, and stress levels, and to determine whether academic rank and university type moderate these relationships. 9 research question were stated and answered, and 6 hypothesis were formulated and tested at 0.05 level of significance.

A survey research design was adopted, involving a population of 3,092 lecturers across federal, state, and private universities. A sample of 357 lecturers was selected through a multi stage sampling technique. Data were collected using a structured questionnaire divided into four sections: Section A (demographic data), Section B (ASUU Workload Form), Section C (Lifestyle Questionnaire), and Section D (adopted Stress Scale from the DASS). The instrument was validated by the research supervisors and three experts from the Department of Health, Safety, and Environmental Education. Reliability was established using Cronbach's alpha which yielded the following reliability coefficients: 0.81 for the ASUU Workload Form, 0.71 for the Lifestyle Questionnaire, and 0.78 for the adopted Stress Scale (from the DASS). Descriptive statistics (frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation) were used to answer nine research questions, while Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to test hypotheses 1 and 2, and Fisher's Z transformation was used for hypotheses 3 to 6.

Findings revealed a significant positive relationship between workload and stress, and a significant negative relationship between lifestyle and stress. Further analysis showed that academic rank significantly moderated the relationship between workload and stress, but not between lifestyle and stress. University type did not significantly moderate the relationship between either workload and stress or lifestyle and stress. The study concludes that both workload and lifestyle are critical predictors of stress among university lecturers, with academic rank influencing the effect of workload. It recommends institutional strategies to manage workload and promote healthier lifestyles to reduce occupational stress.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Nigeria's population is steadily increasing, with an estimated population of over 223 million people as of 2023, making it the most populous country in Africa (World Bank, 2023). A significant portion of this population comprises youth, many of whom view a university degree as a pathway to securing better employment and achieving a decent standard of living. This belief has led to a continuous rise in applications for admission into Nigerian universities. Unfortunately, the number of faculty members employed in these universities has not kept pace with the growing annual student enrollment. This disparity is evident in the frequent violation of the National Universities Commission's (NUC) recommended staff to student ratio, which is often exceeded due to inadequate staffing levels. As a result, many classes are overcrowded, leading to excessive workloads for lecturers.

This excessive workload is a major contributor to stress among academic staff. While stress can be considered an inherent aspect of academic work, an overwhelming workload invariably leads to undue stress (Ogonode, Ukozor, & Ayoko, 2023). Despite the large number of universities in Nigeria, many suffer from a shortage of academic staff. This shortage is largely attributed to brain drain, where qualified professionals migrate abroad in search of better working conditions and opportunities (Abosede, Usoro, & Etuk, 2016). Consequently, the remaining lecturers are burdened with excessive workloads, exposing them to high levels of occupational stress. Poor working conditions, irregular payment of salaries and allowances, frequent policy changes, supervision of student projects, participation in conferences, and the pressure to publish

academic articles further compound this workload. Additionally, lecturers often handle multiple courses and teach large classes, significantly contributing to their stress levels (Abosede et al., 2016).

Abosede and colleagues also noted that this overwhelming workload can lead to stress induced health challenges, which may incapacitate lecturers if not effectively managed. However, they suggest that stress tends to decrease with years of experience, as senior lecturers become more adept at managing responsibilities. This may be due to accumulated experience and, in some cases, the ability to delegate tasks to junior colleagues. The relationship between workload, stress, and lifestyle among university lecturers in Nigeria has become an increasingly important topic, particularly due to the challenges posed by an expanding student population, limited academic staff, and poor working conditions. These interconnected factors negatively affect lecturers' health, job satisfaction, and overall performance.

Recent studies consistently show that excessive workload remains a major contributor to stress among Nigerian university lecturers. For instance, Soetan and Popoola (2020) revealed that academic workload significantly predicted stress levels among lecturers in Southwestern Nigeria. Their findings suggest that lecturers with heavy course loads, numerous administrative responsibilities, and high supervision demands are more likely to experience chronic stress. This is compounded by the reality that many Nigerian universities fall short of the recommended staff to student ratio, resulting in lecturers teaching large classes and supervising an unsustainable number of students. Stress resulting from workload is further exacerbated by inadequate institutional support, inconsistent policy changes, and delayed salary payments. Onyebuchi, Eze, and Nwafor. (2024) found a burnout prevalence of over 50% among lecturers in Enugu State,

Nigeria, with the primary contributors being prolonged workload, lack of motivation, and insufficient resources.

The stress these lecturers face is not only psychological but also physical, often leading to health complications such as hypertension, fatigue, and sleep disorders. This aligns with the findings of Obinna-Akakuru, Eze, and Nwachukwu, (2022), who reported that job-related stressors and insufficient rest contribute to deteriorating health conditions among lecturers. These work related stressors inevitably influence lifestyle choices and behaviors. Lecturers under persistent pressure often neglect physical activity, adopt irregular eating habits, and lack time for leisure or relaxation. Chukwuemeka, Okonkwo, and Njoku (2023) demonstrated that stress directly impacts the quality of life among academic staff, noting that those who do not engage in coping strategies are more likely to suffer from anxiety, depression, and burnout. Poor lifestyle choices, in turn, further intensify the effects of stress, creating a cycle that is difficult to break without deliberate institutional and individual intervention.

Interestingly, evidence suggests that experience and academic rank may influence how lecturers cope with stress. According to Soetan and Popoola (2020), senior lecturers tend to report lower levels of stress than their junior counterparts, possibly due to increased autonomy, better time management, and the ability to delegate tasks. Nevertheless, across all ranks, the need for effective work life balance and stress management strategies is evident. Efforts to reduce stress and promote healthier lifestyles among lecturers have included recommendations for better staff recruitment policies, improved working conditions, and wellness initiatives. Udodiugwu (2024) emphasized the importance of mental health programs and work life balance as essential components for sustaining academic productivity and lecturer well being. Without structural

reforms and institutional support, the cycle of workload induced stress and lifestyle deterioration will likely continue to affect the higher education workforce in Nigeria.

Students in Nigeria generally prefer federally funded universities over their state funded counterparts due to differences in tuition costs and government support. Federal universities typically charge lower tuition fees and benefit from more substantial government funding compared to state universities. As a result, they are more financially accessible to a broader segment of the population (Akinyemi, 2021). In contrast, state universities often rely heavily on internally generated revenue and inconsistent state government subsidies, leading to higher tuition fees. Privately funded universities, on the other hand, charge significantly higher fees, making them affordable primarily to students from wealthy families (Okebukola, 2020). This financial divide contributes to unequal access to higher education based on socioeconomic background, reinforcing class stratification within the educational system (Odukoya, 2018).

State universities in Nigeria often face significant financial challenges, resulting in higher tuition fees compared to federal institutions. This makes them less appealing to many prospective students, who are deterred by the cost implications (Ironagbe, Imhonopi, & Egbarevba, 2016). While both federal and state universities provide excess workload allowances to lecturers, this is typically not the case in privately funded institutions. Many private universities are characterized by poor compensation practices, lack of job security, and assigned workloads without room for negotiation or formal complaint. These conditions can lead to chronic stress and force academic staff to adopt various coping mechanisms. Although some of these mechanisms may be effective in the short term, they can have detrimental effects on long term health and well being (Ngobe, 2023).

Moreover, the nature of stress experienced by lecturers varies by academic rank. Senior academic staff, such as senior lecturers and professors, often deal with stressors linked to administrative leadership roles, high research output expectations, and mentoring duties. In contrast, junior lecturers are more likely to be stressed by the pressure to publish, establish their academic careers, and secure tenure. These varying stress profiles across academic ranks reflect the diverse challenges embedded in the university work environment and underline the complex relationship between workload and psychological well-being in academia (Ngobe, 2023).

Obikoya (2022) observed that senior lecturers in Nigerian public universities are more likely to experience stress arising from administrative responsibilities, while junior lecturers tend to be more burdened by teaching loads and the pressure to publish. Supporting this, Aduma, Okafor, and Nwankwo, (2022) found that the combination of academic rank and stress levels had a significant effect on job performance among university lecturers, accounting for the largest proportion (37%) of the total variance when compared to other demographic variables. This suggests that academic rank not only shapes the nature of stress experienced but also influences overall job effectiveness. The increasing demands placed on academic staff in Nigerian universities have elevated stress to a near-constant feature of the profession.

Furthermore, O'Meara, Kuvaeva, Nyunt, Waugaman, and Jackson (2017) emphasized that faculty rank is a strong predictor of workload expectations. As lecturers ascend through the academic hierarchy, their responsibilities shift accordingly. Senior faculty members are more likely than their junior counterparts to be considered for institutional leadership roles, serve as journal editors, lead major research grants, and present scholarly work on behalf of their institutions. These shifting expectations contribute to differing stress profiles across academic ranks,

reinforcing the need to account for hierarchical roles when examining stress and workload in university settings.

The workload of university lecturers in Nigeria, particularly in Edo State, has increased significantly due to rising student enrollment, insufficient staffing, and expanding academic responsibilities. Federal and state universities often face challenges such as under funding, inadequate infrastructure, and inconsistent policy implementation, all of which contribute to a heavier workload for academic staff. Lecturers are expected to balance teaching large classes, supervising student projects, publishing scholarly articles, attending conferences, and fulfilling administrative duties. These demands create an overwhelming work environment that places lecturers under considerable pressure, often without adequate institutional support or compensation. As such, workload has become a central factor influencing stress levels among lecturers in Edo State.

Despite measures implemented by the government and educational institutions to reduce stress and improve working conditions, stress remains a persistent challenge among university lecturers in Edo State. Initiatives such as workload allowances, promotion of research grants, and periodic reviews of academic policies have not significantly alleviated the pressures lecturers face. Many continue to experience high levels of stress due to excessive teaching loads, administrative responsibilities, and limited time for personal well being. These stressors are further compounded by unhealthy lifestyle choices resulting from demanding work schedules, including poor diet, lack of exercise, and insufficient rest. It is against this background that the researcher seeks to examine workload and lifestyle as correlates of stress among university lecturers in Edo State, to identify specific contributing factors and suggest possible solutions.

Statement of the Problem

University lecturers in Edo State are responsible for a wide range of academic and administrative duties, including teaching, research, supervision, student advising, invigilation, and attending academic meetings and conferences. These daily responsibilities often lead to both physical and psychological strain. Research has shown that many lecturers experience symptoms such as fatigue, persistent headaches, back pain, insomnia, and irregular eating patterns, all of which are common indicators of chronic stress (Obikoya, 2022). In an attempt to cope with these pressures, some lecturers resort to unhealthy lifestyle practices such as excessive alcohol consumption, smoking, poor dietary habits, and physical inactivity. These behaviors further contribute to stress related health complications (Ngobe, 2023).

Despite interventions by university management and the government such as access to healthcare and the provision of recreational facilities intended to support staff well being stress related illnesses remain prevalent among lecturers. Incidents of hypertension, stroke, and sudden death continue to be reported among academic staff, raising concerns about the adequacy and effectiveness of existing support systems (Aduma et al., 2022). These persistent health issues suggest that institutional strategies may not be addressing the underlying causes of stress. Therefore, this study seeks to examine the relationship between workload, lifestyle, and stress among university lecturers in Edo State and explore implications for health education and policy reforms.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

1. What is the level of workload among university lecturers in Edo State?

2. What kinds of lifestyle behaviors are prevalent among university lecturers in Edo State?
3. What is the level of work-related stress among university lecturers in Edo State?
4. What is the relationship between workload and stress levels among university lecturers in Edo State?
5. What is the relationship between lifestyle and their work stress levels among university lecturers in Edo State?
6. Is there a relationship between workload and their work stress based on academic rank?
7. Is there a relationship between lifestyle and their work stress based on academic rank?
8. Is there a relationship between workload and their work stress based on university type?
9. Is there a relationship between lifestyle and their work stress based on university type?

Hypotheses:

The following null hypotheses were tested in the study:

1. There is no significant relationship between the workload of university lecturers and their stress levels in Edo State.
2. There is no significant relationship between the lifestyle of university lecturers and their stress levels in Edo State.
3. There is no significant relationship between the workload of university lecturers and their stress levels based on academic rank.
4. There is no significant relationship between the lifestyle of university lecturers and their stress levels based on academic rank.

5. There is no significant relationship between the workload of university lecturers and their stress levels based on university type.
6. There is no significant relationship between the lifestyle of university lecturers and their stress levels based on university type.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between workload, lifestyle, and stress among university lecturers in Edo State. Specifically, the study aims to:

- assess the level of workload among university lecturers in Edo State.
- identify the prevalent lifestyle level among university lecturers in Edo State.
- determine the level of work related stress among university lecturers in Edo State.
- examine the relationship between workload work stress among university lecturers.
- examine the relationship between lifestyle and work stress among university lecturers.
- investigate whether workload and stress are related based on academic rank.
- investigate whether lifestyle and stress are related based on academic rank.
- explore the relationship between workload and stress based on university type.
- explore the relationship between lifestyle and stress based on university type.

Significance of the Study

This study on workload and lifestyle as correlates of stress among university lecturers in Ed State, if published in reputable journals and placed in libraries, holds substantial relevance for

multiple stakeholders in the higher education sector. For university lecturers, the findings offer practical guidance on strategies to reduce stress, achieve a healthy work life balance, and adopt lifestyle habits that promote physical, mental, and emotional well being. By identifying specific factors that contribute to stress, the study empowers lecturers to take proactive measures to safeguard their health and sustain professional productivity.

For university administrators and policymakers, the research provides evidence-based recommendations for designing and implementing effective workload management policies, developing support services, and creating healthier work environments. Such measures may include flexible work arrangements, wellness programs, counseling services, and improved resource allocation, all aimed at reducing burnout and promoting optimal performance.

For researchers and academics, the study adds valuable insight to the existing body of knowledge on academic stress, occupational health, and faculty welfare. Its empirical findings can serve as a foundation for future research, enabling comparative studies across different institutions, regions, and disciplines, thereby deepening the understanding of the issues under investigation.

Scope and Delimitation of the Study

This study focuses on the workload, lifestyle, and stress levels of university lecturers in Edo State. It is delimited to the following universities: University of Benin, Benin City; Ambrose Alli University, Ekpoma; Edo University, Uzairue; Benson Idahosa University, Benin City; Igbinedion University, Okada; Wellspring University, Benin City; and Samuel Adegboyega University (now Glorious Vision University), Ogwa.

Limitations of the Study

The study relies heavily on the honesty and willingness of participants to provide accurate information, especially concerning personal lifestyle and health behaviors. Some respondents may be reluctant to disclose such details, which may affect the comprehensiveness and generalization of the findings.

Definition of Terms

Workload: The volume and complexity of tasks assigned to an individual within a given period.

Stress: The psychological strain experienced when academic and professional demands exceed an individual's capacity to cope, affecting emotional well-being and job performance.

Lifestyle: The patterns of behavior and habits such as diet, physical activity, and use of social support that influence a person's health and well-being.

University Types: Classifications of universities based on ownership, including federal, state, and private institutions.

Coping Mechanism: Strategies employed by lecturers to manage occupational stress and maintain emotional and mental balance.

Academic Ranking: The hierarchical structure of academic positions, typically including Assistant Lecturer, Lecturer II, Lecturer I, Senior Lecturer, Associate Professor, and Professor.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The literature was reviewed under the following headings:

- Theoretical Framework
- Concept of Workload
- Concept of Lifestyle
- Concept of Stress
- The Relationship Between University Lecturers' Workload and their Stress Levels
- The Relationship Between University Lecturers' Lifestyle Habits and their Stress Levels
- Workload and Lifestyle Components of University Lecturers
- Workload and Stress Levels Among University Lecturers
- Impact of University Types on Stress Levels Among Academic Staff
- Influence of University Types on Lifestyle Patterns Among University Lecturers
- Summary of Related Literature

Theoretical Framework

The Transactional Model of Stress and Coping, introduced by Richard Lazarus and Susan Folkman in 1984, explores why stress is a common challenge in human life. This model focuses on examining the various demands individuals face at any given moment, the coping mechanisms available to handle those demands, and the methods used to manage stressful

situations. The transactional model views stressors as demands from the internal or external environment that disrupt equilibrium, thereby impacting both physical and psychological health. These disruptions necessitate actions to restore balance. The model provides a framework for assessing how individuals cope with stressful events, which are interpreted as transactions between the individual and their environment. When confronted with a stressors, a person first engages in a primary appraisal, evaluating the significance of the event. This assessment determines whether the event is stressful, positive, manageable, challenging, or insignificant. Following the primary appraisal, a secondary appraisal occurs, in which individuals assess their available coping resources and potential responses. Coping efforts are then directed toward managing the stressors, leading to specific outcomes.

Primary Appraisal

Primary appraisal involves evaluating the potential harm or threat a stressors may pose to one's wellbeing. A stressors is likely perceived as a threat if it is anticipated to cause harm, loss, or an unfavorable outcome. Alternatively, it may be viewed as a challenge if it is seen as an opportunity for growth or personal development. For instance, an employee promoted to a leadership role may perceive the promotion as a threat if they believe it will increase workload and pressure. However, another individual might view the same promotion as an opportunity to gain new skills and advance their career.

Secondary Appraisal

Secondary appraisal involves evaluating the available coping strategies and assessing their likely effectiveness. A threat is often perceived as less severe when one feels confident that actionable steps can be taken to address it (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Consider two women, Robin and

Maria, who both discover a lump in their breast during a self-examination. While both recognize the lump as a potential health threat (primary appraisal), their secondary appraisals differ significantly. Robin thinks, “Oh no, I might have breast cancer! What if it has spread? What if I need chemotherapy? What if I lose my job? How will we pay the mortgage? This is terrible I can’t handle it!” In contrast, Maria thinks, “This might not be good, but often these lumps are benign. I’ll get it checked. If it is cancer, there are effective treatments. I’ll be okay.”

Robin feels helpless and overwhelmed, while Maria remains calm and optimistic. As a result, Robin is more likely to experience higher stress levels due to her perception of limited coping options, while Maria’s belief in effective strategies reduces her stress.

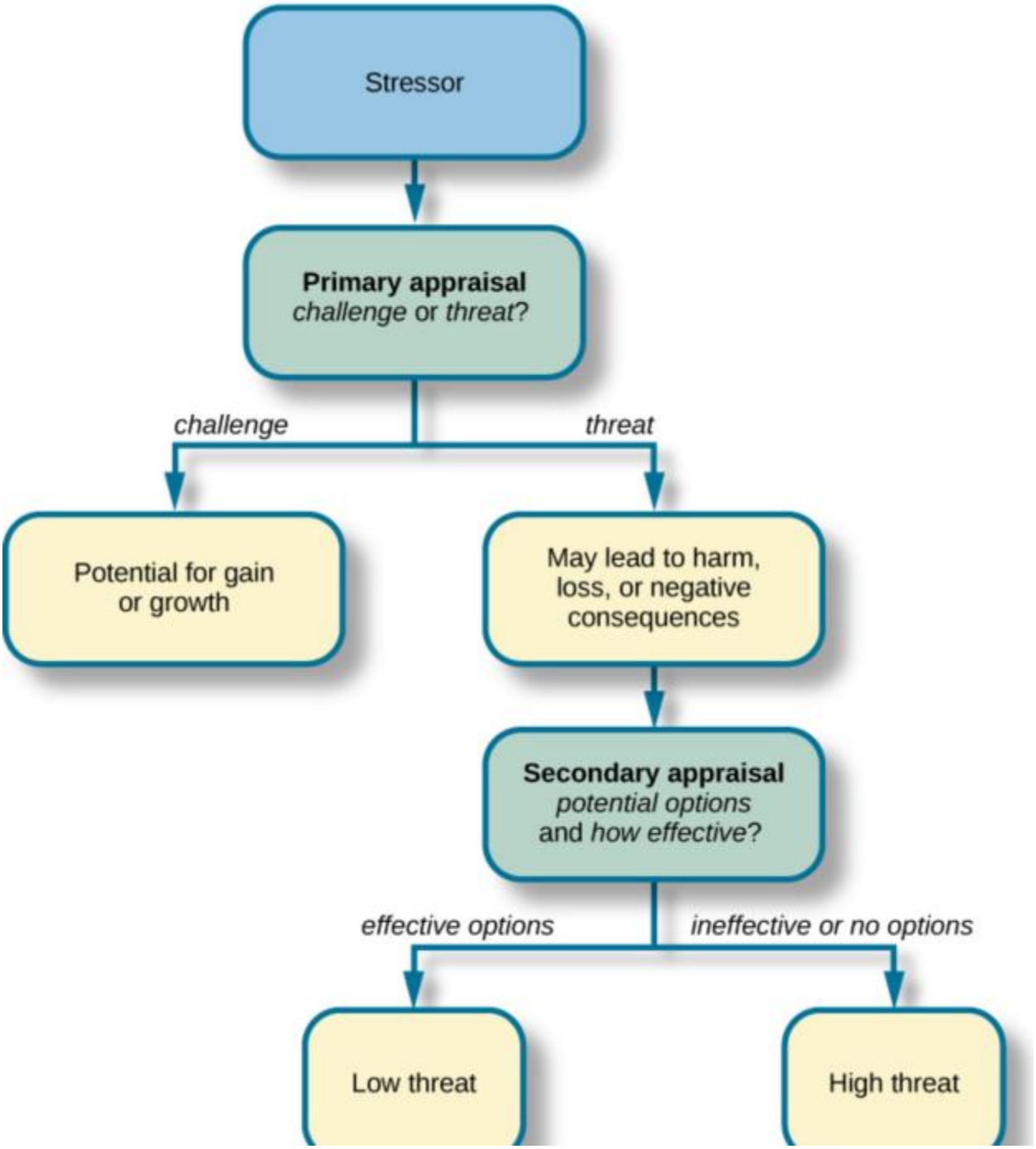

Figure 1: Transactional model of stress and coping by Richard Lazarus and Susan Folkman in 1984

Major Components of the Transactional Model

1. Stressors (Environmental Demands)

Stressors refer to internal or external demands that challenge an individual's adaptive capacity. In the context of university lecturers, common stressors include: Heavy teaching workload, Research and publication pressure ("publish or perish"), Administrative and committee responsibilities, Student supervision and assessment, Role conflict and role overload, and Inadequate facilities and funding. Recent studies indicate that lecturers in Nigerian universities experience extremely high workload, especially in state and federal institutions due to staff shortages and increasing student enrolment (Omonijo, Nnedum, & Akinwale,2023).

2. Cognitive Appraisal

Cognitive appraisal is the central mechanism of the Transactional Model. It determines whether a situation becomes stressful.

a. Primary Appraisal

During primary appraisal, individuals evaluate whether a situation is Irrelevant, positive or Stressful. When perceived as stressful, it may be further appraised as Harm/Loss (damage already done), Threat (anticipated harm) or Challenge (potential for growth). For example, a lecturer may perceive a heavy teaching load as a threat to health and family life or as a challenge that enhances career progression. Research suggests that lecturers who appraise workload as a threat are more likely to report moderate to severe stress (Adebayo & Olatoye, 2022).

b. Secondary Appraisal

Secondary appraisal involves evaluating available coping resources, such as: Personal competence and experience, Time management skills, Social and family support, Healthy lifestyle practices and Institutional policies and support. If lecturers perceive their coping resources as inadequate, stress intensifies. Differences in lifestyle such as physical activity, sleep patterns, and substance use play a crucial role at this stage (Salami, 2020).

3. Coping Strategies

Coping refers to ongoing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage stress and there are two basic pathway to it :The Problem-Focused Coping and Emotion- Focused Coping.

a. Problem-Focused Coping

This strategy aims at modifying or eliminating the stressor. Examples among lecturers include: Effective time management, Prioritization of academic tasks, Seeking workload adjustment and Collaborative research and teaching. Problem-focused coping is effective when stressors are perceived as controllable and is commonly used by senior lecturers and professors (Gustems-Carnicer , Calderón, & Calderón-Garrido, 2019).

b. Emotion-Focused Coping

Emotion-focused coping aims to regulate emotional responses to stress. This includes: Physical exercise, Adequate sleep and healthy diet, Religious or spiritual practices and Social interaction and relaxation. Lifestyle behaviors are strongly linked to emotion-focused coping. Poor lifestyle

patterns (sedentary behavior, poor diet, alcohol use) are associated with higher stress levels among lecturers (Akinwale & George, 2021).

4. Reappraisal

Reappraisal is a feedback process where individuals reassess the situation after coping efforts. Effective coping may lead to reduced stress perception, while ineffective coping may worsen stress. For instance, a lecturer who adopts healthier lifestyle habits may reappraise workload as manageable, thereby reducing stress.

5. Outcomes of Stress and Coping

The outcome of the stress process may be:

Positive Outcomes

- Reduced stress
- Improved well-being
- Job satisfaction
- Enhanced productivity

Negative Outcomes

- Moderate to severe stress
- Burnout
- Anxiety and depression
- Reduced teaching and research effectiveness

Empirical studies show that persistent high workload combined with poor lifestyle habits leads to sustained stress and burnout among university lecturers (Ogunode, Abubakar, & Audu, 2022).

Criticism of the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping

Despite its wide acceptance and applicability in stress research, the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping developed by Lazarus and Folkman has attracted several criticisms from scholars. These criticisms relate mainly to issues of subjectivity, measurement difficulties, limited structural emphasis, cultural bias, and inadequate attention to organizational and contextual factors

1. **Overemphasis on Subjective Appraisal:** One major criticism of the Transactional Model is its strong emphasis on individual cognitive appraisal as the primary determinant of stress. Critics argue that this focus may underplay the objective reality of stressors**,** such as excessive workload, poor working conditions, and institutional constraints. In the context of university lecturers, workload may be objectively excessive regardless of individual perception. Excessive teaching loads, large class sizes, and publication pressure can produce stress even when lecturers attempt positive appraisal. Scholars argue that the model does not sufficiently account for structural and environmental stressors that are beyond individual control (Cooper & Quick, 2017; Omonijo, Nnedum, & Akinwale,2023).

2. **Difficulty in Measuring Appraisal and Coping:** Another limitation of the model is the difficulty in empirically measuring cognitive appraisal and coping processes**.** Appraisal is dynamic and can change rapidly over time, making it challenging to capture accurately using self-report questionnaires. This poses a methodological challenge in research, as different

individuals may interpret appraisal items differently, potentially affecting the reliability and validity of findings. Recent studies note that this limitation complicates the use of the model in large-scale quantitative studies, such as surveys among university lecturers (Folkman, 2018; Smith & Yang, 2021).

3. **Limited Consideration of Organizational and Structural Factors:** The Transactional Model has been criticized for paying insufficient attention to organizational, institutional, and policy-level factors**.** While the model emphasizes individual coping strategies, it tends to overlook how organizational structures such as workload allocation, promotion criteria, funding availability, and leadership styles contribute to stress. In university settings, stress is often embedded in institutional practices. Critics argue that focusing too heavily on individual coping may unintentionally shift responsibility from institutions to individuals, thereby minimizing the need for systemic reforms (Taris & Kompier, 2019).

4. **Cultural Bias and Limited Cross-Cultural Applicability:** Another criticism is that the model was developed largely within Western cultural contexts**,** where individualism, personal control, and autonomy are emphasized. In collectivist cultures, such as Nigeria, stress appraisal and coping may be influenced more by social norms, family obligations, and communal support systems**.** Scholars argue that the model may not fully capture culturally specific coping mechanisms such as spirituality, communal coping, and extended family support, which are significant in African societies (Adebayo & Ogunyemi, 2020).

5**. Insufficient Attention to Long-Term and Chronic Stress:** The Transactional Model is also criticized for focusing more on short-term stress transactions**,** making it less effective in explaining chronic and cumulative stress**.** University lecturers often experience stress that

develops gradually over long periods due to sustained workload and career pressures. Critics note that the model does not adequately explain how repeated exposure to stressors leads to burnout, emotional exhaustion, or long-term health consequences (McEwen & Akil, 2020).

6. **Ambiguity Between Coping and Outcomes:** Some scholars argue that the distinction between coping strategies and stress outcomes in the model is sometimes unclear. Certain coping behaviors, such as avoidance or emotional suppression, may temporarily reduce distress but worsen long-term outcomes. This ambiguity makes it difficult to classify some responses strictly as coping or as outcomes, thereby complicating interpretation in empirical research (Skinner, Edge, Altman, & Sherwood, 2020).

7. **Limited Predictive Power :** Although the Transactional Model explains how stress occurs, critics argue that it has limited predictive power**.** The model describes processes rather than providing precise predictions about who will experience stress and under what conditions. As a result, some researchers prefer integrating the Transactional Model with other frameworks such as the Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) Model**,** which better predicts stress and burnout in occupational settings (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017).

Applying the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping to the Study

When a lecturer encounters a stressful situation, such as receiving a heavy workload at the start of a Semester, their first step is to perform a primary appraisal to assess the level of threat, the possible pain, loss, or discomfort, and the effort required to manage the situation. If no threat is recognized, then no stress is experienced. However, if a threat is identified, the lecturer engages in a secondary appraisal process where they evaluate the resources they believe are available to

address the issue. The way a lecturer appraises the situation depends on their experience and their perceived ability to manage the stressors.

The lecturer then chooses the 'best' solution, typically the one that poses the least risk has a higher chance of success, and aligns with the lecturer's skill set. If the lecturer feels capable of handling the stress, they experience positive stress. Conversely, if they believe they cannot fully manage the situation, they experience negative stress. It is during this second appraisal that they engage in healthy lifestyles and unhealthy lifestyles. A healthy lifestyle such as exercise and adequate rest can be beneficial and it can help the lecturer combat stress. An unhealthy lifestyle like excessive smoking, and excessive alcohol intake, on the other hand, can be detrimental to health and it may lead to chronic heart diseases that may in turn bring about health care utilization or even death.

Concept of workload

Workloads are professional and non professional duties carried out by the lecturers in the course of their activities in the instruction of students. (Aminullahi & Olojuola 2021). Anariochi (2023) asserts that teaching many courses in a semester, supervising a large number of undergraduate and postgraduate theses, and lecturers' involvement in community services as an additional administrative duty to teaching have a negative influence on male and female lecturers. Consequently, lecturers often struggle to complete their course outlines, which limits their leisure time and leads to stress symptoms that can negatively impact their health. Workloads consist of both professional and non-professional responsibilities that lecturers fulfill while teaching students. Andaleeb (2019) stated that course load and class sizes are primary factors that discourage academics from advancing their research. Gacia-Gallego, Georgantzís, Martín-Montaner, and Pérez-Amaral (2015) suggest that an imbalance between faculty and student

numbers has hindered educators from innovating in their teaching and learning due to overwhelming workloads. Ujir, Sallah, and Marzuki (2020) contend that the teaching responsibilities of academic staff in public universities are growing as a result of the increasing number of undergraduates enrolling each semester; as student numbers rise, so too do the hours required for class preparation and administrative tasks, which ultimately impacts teaching quality.

Anariochi (2023) asserts that the various challenges faced by university education include; an increased number of students, use of technology assessment, diverse backgrounds of students, globalization, learning corporate style, management, etc. The increased pressure and responsibilities placed on lecturers lead to significant challenges. No employee is expected to devote around eighteen hours a day, both at work and home, to a job that would be ineffective if the necessary support is lacking. Anariochi (2023) further argues that while lecturers are quite adaptable in managing excessive work demands, achieving high productivity requires adequate support from their respective departments and institutions in areas where assistance is needed. Additionally, given that lecturers spend a substantial portion of their lives in indoor settings, which significantly affect their mental well-being, behaviors, skills, and overall performance, it is crucial that the work environment is motivating. An improvement in the workplace atmosphere is commonly believed to lead to increased productivity, with a more conducive physical office environment enhancing employee performance. Ideally, lecturers should be given flexible and manageable teaching workloads that enable them to engage in other essential non-teaching responsibilities without feeling overwhelmed. Therefore, it is vital to transparently allocate teaching workloads among lecturers using fair criteria to prevent dissatisfaction or claims of inequity (Arzizul & Dg Norizah, 2018). Inegbedion, Inegbodion, Peter, and Harry (2020) highlight the importance of workload balance and employee satisfaction, stating that

"organizations should consistently assess workload balance as a priority concern." Consequently, Inegbedion, negbodion, Peter and Harry, (2020) emphasize the necessity for a tool that can aid organizational management in making recommendations for equitable workload distribution according to the identified needs of targeted users.

Jaafar, Hamid, and Hamid (2020) assert that the workloads of lecturers were at a moderate level, resulting in a moderate amount of stress. The lecturers were capable of handling their additional duties alongside teaching and learning, which improved the overall quality of instruction. This situation positively impacts student performance since the lecturer is able to effectively manage their stress. Furthermore, job descriptions and salaries influenced the results. The number of tasks given to the lecturers was still less compared with teaching, which was the main task in their job descriptions. Workload is a multi-dimensional concept with consideration for time, mental tasks, physical tasks, and stressors (Rao, Petra, Pio & Nordiana, 2021). Workloads refer to the responsibilities or tasks performed by employees during their work activities. In relation to lecturers, workloads consist of both professional and nonprofessional responsibilities they undertake while educating students.

Lecturers are essential assets and key participants in the university sector. Their primary role is to educate and nurture the younger generation of students so they can gain the skills and knowledge necessary for progress and development. Workload represents the typical frequency of tasks associated with each position over a specified time frame. Karasek's Job Demands Control theory of job strain was tested by (Wong & Laschinger 2015). They examined the impact of job strain on cynicism and emotional exhaustion. It was discovered that there is a direct link between job strain and burnout, which leads to increased turnover intentions. In recent research, Zuberi and Noordin (2016) identified dissatisfaction with workload as a key contributor to burnout

among professionals. It has been noted that even high achievers experience exhaustion due to perceived work overload (Bentzen, Lemyre, & Kentta, 2016). Often, additional tasks increase the workload for lecturers, resulting in an excessive workload. The consequent effect of this is stress, along with related health issues. While it is impossible to completely eliminate stress from any occupation, a significant amount of stress can stem from heavy workloads, which poses many risks.

Ekechukwu and Isiguzo (2016) assert that stress and excessive workloads result in inefficiency and can even lead to fatalities. An overload of duties may also foster the emergence of deviant behaviors in employees. As noted by Porath, referenced in Osaat and Ekechukwu (2017), these deviant behaviors encompass lateness, absenteeism, poor decision making, flawed judgment, nagging, dozing off while on the job, insults, threats, sabotage, physical aggression, and burnout. An overwhelming amount of work, both in volume and complexity requiring cognitive effort, can cause restlessness and insomnia as individuals strive to complete their tasks, resulting in a significant increase in stress levels. Osaat and Ekechukwu (2017) assert that lecturers engage in various workloads such as; planning what to teach regularly, and teaching very large classes against NUC's recommendation of 12 students to 1 lecturer.

They further claim that administering tests and evaluations for numerous classes, monitoring students during examinations under stressful conditions due to inadequate facilities, providing student results within a constrained time frame, consistently participating in staff meetings, engaging in seminars for students, overseeing undergraduate projects within a specific time-frame, managing post graduate projects within a designated period, regularly attending to project proposal defenses, frequently managing project final defenses, participating in workshops and conferences regularly, acting as a program coordinator, serving as a program director, fulfilling

the role of examination officer, guiding students as advisers, being a member of various committees, and persistently writing for publication, among others, are typical aspects of the lecturers' workload. They are required to handle an extensive range of tasks simultaneously alongside their primary teaching responsibilities. In addition to all the duties already mentioned, they also take on roles as examination officers, chart coordinators, directors, department heads, and deans.

Workloads encompass all the responsibilities and tasks performed by employees during their work activities. In the context of lecturers, workloads include both professional and non-professional duties undertaken as part of their role in educating students (Osaat & Ekechukwu 2017). Frequently, these added responsibilities increase the overall workload of lecturers, resulting in an excessive burden. The consequence of this situation is heightened stress, which can lead to various health issues. The ability of lecturers to perform efficiently and effectively in their primary roles is often compromised by the presence of these additional workloads and related stress. While it is not entirely feasible to eliminate stress from any job, a significant amount of it can arise from heavy workloads, which can result in numerous hazards.

Today, researchers have established that job related stress is harmful to individuals. Stress has been identified as a significant factor contributing to various diseases that can impede an individual's ability to perform effectively at work. These diseases include heart attacks, mental health disorders, and high blood pressure. In addition to hindering work performance, these conditions can ultimately lead to death. A considerable number of illnesses and fatalities have been reported among university lecturers. Regarding the challenge of completing a substantial amount of work within a limited time frame. Ejiogu and Aderounmu in Njoku (2014) point out

that academic staff focus more on engaging with others, attending meetings, and managing tight deadlines and schedules, which negatively impacts their health.

Ekechukwu, and Isiguzo (2016) opine that stress and excess workload lead to inefficiency, and lack of concentration which in turn affects the level of performance and can bring about death. Having a heavy workload combined with limited time can result in frustration. Osaat and Ekechukwu (2017) indicate that a substantial workload contributes to stress, which in turn affects concentration and can lead to inappropriate behavior among lecturers, negatively impacting their relationships with students. The overwhelming amount of work may cause occasional class absences and increased stress, ultimately diminishing efficiency, competence, and effectiveness. The research also suggests that excessive workload can lead to burnout, leaving lecturers both physically and emotionally drained. This state of prolonged stress can lead to conditions such as depression and other related health issues, incapacitating lecturers. Furthermore, the study highlights that tight deadlines for completing tasks can also induce stress, resulting in frustration among educators. The findings imply that the majority of stress experienced by workers stems from an excessive workload. Stress typically comes with significant challenges that hinder workers' abilities to perform their responsibilities effectively.

Njoku (2014) outlines some effects of job related stress as lapses in memory, loss of concentration, indecision, inability to get tasks completed, and the like. Amini-Philips and Okonmah (2020) stated that workload can be considered normal when there is a consistent equilibrium in the time dedicated to achieving various organizational objectives and responsibilities, ensuring that the individual's mental and physical well being remains unaffected. They further noted that three key variables should be taken into account when determining a normal workload: Task, Time, and Frequency of labor. The term Task pertains to the jobs that

need to be accomplished. Tasks can be categorized into daily, detailed, and project-based tasks. Daily tasks comprise routine responsibilities that must be completed every day; for instance, teaching is a daily task for a lecturer. Detailed tasks are performed on a scheduled basis and involve more complexity than daily tasks. Examples of detailed tasks include supervising student projects, grading and marking assignments, and overseeing research work and publications. Project tasks are conducted less frequently, ranging from weekly to annually. Examples include community service and attending institution-related meetings.

Time refers to the number of hours designated for each task. This can be divided into teaching contact hours, designated hours for teaching preparation, evaluation hours, and hours for supplementary functions. Teaching contact hours denote the time spent in the classroom delivering education to students. This refers to the scheduled teaching hours assigned to the instructor by the university. Attributed preparation hours indicate the time invested in preparing for class activities. This is influenced by how a lecturer organizes their lecture notes, how many levels they are teaching simultaneously, and their prior experience with the course; a more seasoned lecturer will typically require less time for preparation. Attributed evaluation hours pertain to the time allocated for assessing and grading student assignments, projects, teaching practice, and examinations. Attributed hours for complementary functions refer to the time assigned for routine out of class support for students, community service, research and publication efforts, and standard administrative duties. Frequency of Labor describes how often various tasks or roles associated with the lecturing profession are undertaken. A majority of the responsibilities performed by lecturers occur daily, some on a weekly basis, while others take place only once or twice during a semester or at the closing of the first or second semester.

Kadiri (2014) asserts that academic workload, student related issues, research and career development, interpersonal relationships, and administrative related issues contribute significantly to the level of stress experienced by academic staff. He also claims that academic staff do not show variations in their stress levels based on gender, age, teaching experience, and academic rank. However, there is a distinction in the stress levels experienced by academic staff regarding marital status. Moreover, this variation in stress levels occurs only between married and single academic staff, with single academic staff reporting higher stress compared to their married peers. If suitable measures are not implemented to tackle this issue, academic staff may continue to face considerable stress from the identified sources.

Wicken and Holland (2022) assert that workload may be driven by the task load imposed on human operators from external environmental sources but not deterministically so. This is due to the fact that workload is also influenced by individual reactions to the tasks, diverse skill levels, task management techniques, and other personal attributes. Workload can be categorized as quantitative (the volume of work required) or qualitative (the complexity of the tasks). It may also refer to the overall energy expenditure of a system, especially in relation to a person or animal engaging in a demanding activity over a period. It can induce stress and acts as a stressors for employees, which can be divided into 1. Quantitative workload or overload: Having more tasks than can be managed comfortably. 2. Qualitative workload: Engaging in work that is excessively challenging. 3. Underload: Having responsibilities that do not fully utilize a worker's skills and capabilities.

Quantitative workload or Overload

Quantitative workload refers to the measurable volume of tasks assigned to an employee within a specific time frame. It is typically assessed by the number of tasks, hours worked, or adherence to deadlines. This concept significantly influences workplace efficiency, mental well-being, and job satisfaction, with variations across sectors based on task demands and workforce structure (Konze, Rivkin, & Schmidt, 2017). According to Hulisani (2019), work overload is a form of quantitative workload that shows a notable positive correlation with hindrance appraisal. This suggests that employees are more likely to perceive overload as a hindrance stressors rather than a challenge stressors. As workload increases, so does the likelihood of it being viewed as an obstacle to performance and well being. Employees experiencing work overload often face unreasonable task demands, extended or irregular working hours, a fast-paced work environment, pressure to work overtime (whether paid or unpaid), and limited opportunities for rest, days off, or vacation time.

Uma (2017) defines quantitative workload or overload as a situation in which the volume of work exceeds what an individual can reasonably complete within a given period. As workload increases but time remains fixed, employees may stay late, accrue overtime, or experience ongoing strain from excessive responsibilities. Overload can be temporary or long term and may result from employee attrition, organizational changes, or the commencement of new projects or contracts. Prolonged overload negatively impacts employees' health and well-being, often leading to musculoskeletal disorders (MSDs), especially when the body lacks sufficient recovery time. MSDs arise from a combination of factors, including biomechanical elements (e.g., repetitive movements, awkward postures, extreme joint positions), poor workplace ergonomics,

organizational deficiencies, and psychosocial stressors like job monotony, lack of control, inadequate recognition, or job insecurity (Uma, 2017).

To manage work overload, Uma (2017) emphasizes the importance of first identifying its root causes. Overload may not always stem from increased responsibilities; it could also result from personal inefficiencies, time management challenges, or organizational dysfunction. Understanding these underlying causes is essential for developing effective strategies. Uma (2017) further opines that if you are not responsible for your work overload, here are a few techniques to help you overcome it and they are: 1, List and prioritize tasks, 2. Control your Emotions, 3. Mobilize your team, 4. Eliminate unnecessary tasks, 5. Recruiting the Workforce.

List and Prioritize Tasks: Begin by documenting all tasks and ranking them by importance and urgency. Use tools like the Eisenhower Matrix or a letter system (e.g., A = very important, C = less important). Postpone secondary or unrelated tasks to maintain focus and availability for priority assignments.

Control Your Emotions: Emotional responses like panic or negative self-talk ("I can't do this" or "I'll fail") can be counterproductive. Instead, approach the situation calmly and analytically to determine the best course of action.

Mobilize Your Team: During periods of high workload, involve the entire team. Ensure that everyone understands the priorities and distributes tasks equitably. Team members who complete their tasks early should assist others to enhance collective productivity.

Eliminate Unnecessary Tasks: Not all tasks contribute to the overall goal. Evaluate task relevance and eliminate those that do not add value or delay project completion.

Recruit Additional Workforce: If the issue stems from under staffing rather than organizational inefficiency, consider hiring new employees or bringing in temporary workers or freelancers to manage the workload effectively

Qualitative Overload

Qualitative overload emphasizes the difficulty and complexity of work tasks rather than their quantity. It is particularly prevalent in industries that involve complex responsibilities, such as healthcare, the education sector, and technology, where its effects on employee stress and job satisfaction are more pronounced (O'Donoghue, 2023). For instance, teachers regularly face complex and unpredictable tasks related to classroom management, which significantly heighten stress levels. The impact of qualitative workload in education is often intensified by low levels of control, thereby affecting teachers' mental health and job performance (Kim, Yoon, & Kim, 2020). Qualitative workload refers to an employee's perception that they either lack the time necessary to complete a task with the required quality or do not possess the skills needed to carry out the task effectively.

Underload

Underload has emerged as a significant concern that warrants exploration. It occurs when an employee has less work than desired or when assigned tasks fail to fully utilize their skills or capabilities (Sonnentag, Binnewies, & Mojza, 2017). The absence of engaging work can create a sense of purposelessness, contributing to feelings of inadequacy and low self-esteem. This phenomenon may lead to boredom, dissatisfaction, and disengagement, ultimately affecting both organizational performance and employee well-being (Fletcher, McMillan, & Morrison, 2022).

Furthermore, underload can negatively impact mental health. Employees experiencing underload are more likely to suffer from boredom induced anxiety and depression. Bock, Eder, and Gul (2022) found that software developers facing underload reported higher levels of boredom and lower job satisfaction, prompting organizations to adopt more dynamic project assignments. Similarly, Dorman, Duffy, and Hargreaves (2021) assert that teachers often experience underload when tasked with administrative duties that do not align with their instructional expertise. These educators were more inclined to seek additional professional development opportunities to better engage their skills, underscoring the importance of assigning challenging and relevant tasks in educational environments.

Description of Mental and Normal Workload

According to Longo, Wickens, and Hancock (2022), mental workload (MWL) refers to the degree of activation of a limited cognitive resource pool while an individual engages with a primary task over time. MWL is influenced by unpredictable external conditions, the nature of the task, and the cognitive characteristics of the individual. It pertains to the mental effort required to perform tasks involving attention, memory, and problem solving. High mental workload may lead to increased stress and reduced performance, while low mental workload can result in boredom and disengagement (Veldwijk, De Lange, & Aarts, 2022). They also note that performing multiple tasks simultaneously significantly increases cognitive demands. In line with this, Chen, Lu, and Chang (2021) assert that several factors affect mental workload, including task complexity, environmental conditions, and individual differences.

Amini-Philips and Okonmah (2020) emphasized that a workload is considered "normal" when there is a consistent balance between the time allocated to achieving various organizational

objectives and the mental and physical well being of the worker. They identify three key elements for determining normal workload: Task, Time, and Frequency of Labor.

- Task refers to the specific work activities performed, which can be categorized into daily, detailed, and project tasks. Daily tasks include routine responsibilities such as lecturing. Detailed tasks are more complex and are performed on a scheduled basis, such as supervising student projects, grading, and conducting research. Project tasks are less frequent and may include community service and institutional meetings.

- Time refers to the duration allocated for each task. This includes teaching contact hours (actual class time), preparation hours (planning and organizing course materials), evaluation hours (assessing and grading students), and hours for supplementary duties (advising, research, and administration). Preparation time may vary depending on the lecturer's experience and familiarity with the subject matter.

- Frequency of Labor concerns how regularly each type of task is performed. While some activities are completed daily, others are carried out weekly, or only once or twice per semester.

Workload According to the National Universities Commission

To accurately gauge the workload of individual academic staff in Nigerian universities, it is crucial to understand the Course Credit System (CCS) currently utilized in the university system. The National Universities Commission (NUC, 1989) described the CCS as a quantitative method of organizing the curriculum, where subject areas are divided into examinable unit courses for which students receive credits upon successful completion. The CCS operates based on the credit

units assigned to courses that students take and/or complete. According to the NUC, a credit unit is defined as "a specified number of student-teacher contact hours per week per semester."

To assess workload, the NUC established that one credit unit corresponds to:

- One hour of lecture or tutorial each week during the semester
- Two hours of seminar
- Three hours of laboratory work, fieldwork, clinical practice/practicum, or stadium sporting activities
- Six hours of teaching practice
- One week of industrial attachment

The application of the CCS across various academic programs has been guided by the Minimum Academic Standards (MAS) for each discipline. Furthermore, the NUC approved specific guidelines to determine the standard workload for academic staff across Nigerian universities. A full-time lecturer is expected to have a minimum teaching load of eight (8) credit units per semester, including postgraduate teaching.

For science based disciplines, this typically includes:

- A minimum of six (6) lecture hours
- Two (2) laboratory sessions of three hours each per week

  This results in a total of 12 contact hours weekly (6 hours of lectures + 6 hours of labs).

For non-laboratory-based disciplines, the requirement is:

- Six (6) hours of lecture.

- Two (2) one-hour tutorials weekly.

  Which equals 8 contact hours per week.

To ensure equitable workload calculations among departments and individual staff members across disciplines and class sizes, the Full Time Equivalent (FTE) and Student-Teacher Ratio (STR) should be applied.

Student Project Supervision

It is widely recognized that supervising undergraduate research projects demands significant time and effort from lecturers. While allowances are often provided for postgraduate project supervision, undergraduate supervision is frequently overlooked. To address this gap, it is proposed that the additional workload from supervising undergraduate projects be estimated at 2 hours per week per project, up to a maximum of five projects.

Script Marking

FTE calculations by the NUC are based on credit units, which reflect weekly contact hours between students and lecturers. However, marking of examinations or continuous assessment (CA) scripts is not included in this calculation. It is proposed that excess workload from marking should be acknowledged only for classes exceeding twice the standard student-teacher ratio (2×STR). For such cases, every 8 scripts beyond this threshold should equate to 1 credit hour.

Lecture Preparation for Excess Courses Taught

Lecturers who teach beyond their standard workload should receive credit for preparation time. In such cases, credit hours (CiHi) are used for workload calculations, irrespective of class size.

Notably, postgraduate courses should be assigned double the credit hours compared to undergraduate courses due to the greater demands for preparation.

Other Responsibilities Handled by Lecturers

In addition to teaching and research, many academic staff assume administrative roles. Section 6.3 (ix) of the 1992 FGN ASUU Agreement provides for responsibility allowances for positions such as Deputy Vice-Chancellors, Provosts (Complex Coordinators), Deans and Directors, Heads of Departments (HODs), and Sub-Deans. However, this agreement does not account for other duties such as timetabling, student admissions, and registration. To address this, it is proposed that roles like course coordination, student registration, and timetabling be recognized with 5 hours of excess workload per week, capped at 2 weeks per session. Departmental Examination Officers should receive an allowance equal to 75% of the Faculty Examination Officer's allowance. Similarly, allowances should be extended to Course Coordinators and HODs based on workload demands.

Concept of Lifestyle

Lifestyle is a central concept in both public health and behavioral science, describing the habitual practices and daily routines through which individuals express their values, manage their health, and interact with their environment. It encompasses behaviors such as eating habits, physical activity, sleep patterns, substance use, recreational activities, and stress management. Increasingly, lifestyle is recognized not only as a determinant of individual health outcomes but also as a factor that interacts with occupational, psychological, and environmental conditions especially in professional groups such as university lecturers. According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2018), lifestyle refers to "a way of living based on identifiable patterns of

behavior which are determined by the interplay between an individual's personal characteristics, social interactions, and socioeconomic and environmental living conditions." This definition underscores that lifestyle is not solely a matter of personal choice or motivation but is also shaped by contextual and structural factors, including income level, educational background, occupational demands, social norms, and access to supportive environments.

Recent scholarship has increasingly focused on lifestyle as a modifiable risk factor for non-communicable diseases (NCDs) such as cardiovascular conditions, diabetes, obesity, and depression. In a global meta-analysis, Ekelund, Tarp, Steene-Johannessen, Hansen, Jefferis, Fagerland, and Lee, (2020) found that sedentary behavior, poor diet, and physical inactivity are strongly associated with early mortality and that even modest improvements in these areas can significantly reduce long-term health risks. These findings have practical implications for working professionals like university lecturers, who often face job related time constraints that limit their ability to engage in health-promoting behaviors. Within the academic context, studies show that the occupational structure of university lecturers often contributes to unhealthy lifestyle practices. According to Salami and Adeoye (2019), university lecturers in Nigeria frequently suffer from work related stress due to heavy teaching loads, administrative responsibilities, and research obligations. These pressures often lead them to neglect regular exercise, consume unhealthy meals, and experience irregular sleep patterns. Their study revealed a strong correlation between high job stress and unhealthy lifestyle patterns, including smoking, physical inactivity, and reliance on fast food.

Nguyen, Ding, and Mihrshahi (2020) expanded on this by examining the relationship between healthy behaviors and mental well being. Their findings indicated that individuals who consume more fruits and vegetables, exercise regularly, and sleep adequately tend to exhibit lower levels

of anxiety and depression. They emphasized that the psychological benefits of healthy lifestyles are just as significant as the physical ones, particularly for those in cognitively demanding professions. Similarly, Okoro and Onyekwere (2021) conducted a qualitative study on Nigerian university lecturers and found that professional responsibilities often come at the expense of self care. Many respondents reported skipping meals, avoiding exercise due to fatigue or lack of time, and neglecting routine medical checkups.

The researchers emphasized that such patterns, if unaddressed, can accumulate into chronic health conditions, leading to burnout and diminished academic performance. From a policy standpoint, Sallis, Owen, and Fisher (2019) advocate for a socio ecological approach to health and lifestyle interventions. They argue that behavioral change strategies must go beyond individual level actions and include environmental and institutional support systems. For instance, when university campuses provide health friendly infrastructure such as gymnasiums, nutritious food options, and time allowances for exercise academic staff are more likely to maintain healthy behaviors. This is particularly important in developing countries, where institutional support for staff wellness is often limited. Furthermore, Bentzen, Lemyre, and Kenttä (2016) observed that even high achievers are vulnerable to physical and emotional exhaustion when subjected to perceived work overload and poor lifestyle regulation. This is especially relevant to university lecturers who function in environments that reward constant productivity while failing to encourage personal health maintenance. The importance of a healthy lifestyle is not just preventive but also performance enhancing. Gonzalez, Martin, and Perez (2021) found that academic professionals who maintain healthy lifestyles demonstrate higher levels of cognitive alertness, emotional stability, and overall productivity. They argue that promoting lifestyle wellness should be viewed as an investment in human capital rather than an

optional endeavor. As Nwankwo, Ike, Officha, and Temidayo (2020) explain, an individual's core character plays a crucial role in shaping their decisions, selections, and behaviors. Lifestyle, therefore, encompasses the behaviors, habits, and choices that individuals engage in daily, which influence their overall well being. This includes aspects such as diet, physical activity, social interactions, substance use, and stress management. A healthy lifestyle contributes significantly to the prevention of disease and the promotion of physical, mental, and social well being (WHO, 2021; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2022).

Lifestyle is often framed within the context of health related behaviors, which include activities that promote or detract from health. These behaviors are not merely individual choices but are also influenced by broader socioeconomic and environmental factors. Thus, lifestyle represents a complex interplay between personal agency and contextual determinants (Graham, White, Cotton, McManus, and Scott 2019). The lifestyle of university lecturers often reflects the health challenges associated with job related stress. Those facing high levels of occupational stress tend to adopt unhealthy coping mechanisms such as poor dietary habits and physical inactivity, which can, in turn, exacerbate their stress (Chong, Lim, & Lee, 2020). Lifestyle choices among lecturers may thus mirror their coping strategies in response to workplace stress. Individuals under considerable job pressure may rely on unhealthy behaviors such as poor nutrition, reduced physical activity, or increased use of caffeine and other stimulants to combat fatigue (Pongsakornrungslip & Tontisirin, 2023).

University lecturers frequently experience substantial job related stress, which contributes to poor lifestyle choices. Ferreira and Barros (2021) found that burnout among faculty members significantly correlates with a lower quality of life, indicating that occupational stress impairs their ability to maintain a healthy lifestyle. This is echoed by Pongsakornrungslip and Tontisirin

(2023), who noted that the pressures of academic life often lead to the neglect of personal health. Similarly, Chong, Lim, and Lee (2020) observed that lecturers frequently resort to consuming quick, unhealthy meals and often lack the time for regular physical activity, leading to adverse health consequences. Halat and Khoury (2023) emphasized that this imbalance may manifest as reduced leisure time, which negatively affects mental health and overall lifestyle quality.

Component of Lifestyle

Lifestyle refers to the various factors and behaviors that collectively define how individuals live and make choices affecting their health and well-being. The components of lifestyle include:

1. **Diet and Nutrition**: This component involves the types and quality of food consumed. A nutritious diet emphasizes the importance of fruits, vegetables, whole grains, lean proteins, and healthy fats. Good nutrition is essential for maintaining a healthy weight and reducing the risk of chronic diseases such as obesity, diabetes, and heart disease (World Health Organization, 2021).

2. **Physical Activity**: This encompasses all forms of movement, including exercise, sports, walking, and other activities that increase energy expenditure. Regular physical activity helps improve cardiovascular health, build and maintain healthy bones, muscles, and joints, and reduce the risk of chronic diseases (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2018).

3. **Substance Abuse**: This refers to the consumption of alcohol, tobacco, and illicit drugs, which can lead to significant health issues. High levels of substance use are associated with increased mortality rates, chronic diseases, and mental health challenges (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2021).

4. **Sleep and Rest**: This includes practices surrounding sleep hygiene, such as maintaining a regular sleep schedule and creating a restful environment. Adequate sleep is crucial for physical health, emotional well-being, and cognitive functioning (National Sleep Foundation, 2021).
5. **Mental Health and Emotional Well being**: This pertains to a person's emotional, mental, and social health, affecting how they think, feel, and behave. Good mental health is vital for making healthy lifestyle choices, coping with stress, and managing relationships (American Psychological Association, 2018).
6. **Social Relationships and Support Systems**: This involves the connections individuals have with family, friends, and communities, including social interactions and support networks. Strong social relationships can promote healthier lifestyle choices and improve resilience to stress.
7. **Work Life Balance**: This refers to the ability to balance professional duties with personal life, allowing time for relaxation, hobbies, and family. A healthy work-life balance reduces stress and improves overall well-being (American Psychological Association, 2019).
8. **Environment**: This encompasses the physical and social surroundings that influence lifestyle choices, including access to nutritious foods, safe neighborhoods, and recreational facilities. A supportive environment facilitates healthy choices, while barriers may hinder them (Sallis & Owen, 2015).
9. **Health Behavior and Preventive Care**: These are actions taken to maintain health and prevent disease, such as regular medical check-ups, screenings, and vaccinations (U.S. Preventive Services Task Force, 2021).

Understanding these lifestyle components is crucial for promoting better health outcomes. Each component interacts with others, forming a holistic view of an individual's overall well being. Addressing these elements through public health strategies and personal efforts can lead to healthier, more fulfilling lives. A balanced and healthy lifestyle plays a critical role in disease prevention and promoting overall well-being. It encompasses embracing healthy habits and protective practices focused on health behaviors and physical activity. Although not all diseases are preventable, a significant number of fatalities especially from coronary heart disease and lung cancer can be avoided. Scientific research has linked specific behaviors to severe illnesses and early mortality (World Health Organization, 2015).

Cena and Calder (2020) argue that the concept of a healthy diet is constantly evolving to reflect emerging insights into how nutrients and food groups contribute to health and disease. Evidence suggests that the intake of specific nutrients, certain food groups, or overall dietary patterns can have a positive effect on health and help prevent non communicable diseases (NCDs). A shift toward healthier food consumption, and away from nutrient poor foods, is essential. Dietary habits significantly influence the risk of developing hypertension, obesity, and inflammation, which are linked to cardiovascular disease, diabetes, and cancer (Koene, Prizment, Blaes, & Konety, 2016).

Sally (2019) states that an unhealthy lifestyle increases the risk of heart disease more than genetics. Research shows that young patients with heart disease are more affected by behaviors such as physical inactivity, smoking, hypertension, and poor diet than by inherited factors. Studies among university students reveal unhealthy lifestyle patterns and poor health behaviors (Turhan, Inandi, Bugdayci, Eker, & Ilhan 2015). University life marks a transitional stage

where individuals begin making independent lifestyle choices, including decisions about food and activity. This phase is critical for establishing long-term health habits (Blondin, Mueller, Bakun, Choumenkovitch, & Tucker, 2015).

Research also identifies poor dietary practices among students, including crash dieting, omitting essential food groups, consuming high-calorie, low nutrient foods, and excessive alcohol use (Cortés, Giménez, Motos, & Cadaveira, 2014). These behaviors lead to deficiencies in macronutrients and micronutrients vital for optimal health (Santomauro, Lorini, Tanini, Indiani, Lastrucci, Comodo, & Bonaccorsi, 2014). Promoting and maintaining healthy eating habits is essential for preventing chronic non-communicable diseases (CNCDs) such as obesity and heart disease. For instance, smoking, alcohol consumption, and being overweight all pose significant health risks. In the Netherlands, smokers die an average of 4.1 years earlier and live 4.6 fewer years in good health compared to non smokers (Netherlands Institute for Social Research, 2018). Regular alcohol consumption is also harmful. The Health Council of the Netherlands (2015) advises individuals to avoid alcohol or limit intake to no more than one glass per day. Excessive alcohol use can lead to poor health, reduced workplace efficiency, domestic issues, and traffic accidents. Additionally, individuals with a body mass index (BMI) over 25 (overweight) or 30 (obese) face increased health risks.

This lifestyle, like many others, poses significant risk factors for employee health. It includes the consumption of unhealthy diets that contribute to obesity, even in developed countries. These dietary patterns often result in nutritional issues due to the intake of fast food and items high in saturated fats, sugars, and sodium. Such diets are associated with hypertension, dyslipidemia, diabetes, obesity, and cardiovascular diseases (Omang, Agba, Ogaboh, & Sharon-Rose, 2018).

Maduabum (2015) opines that a person's occupation can influence their daily dietary habits. In his study of the eating habits of bank employees in the Apapa region of Lagos State, Nigeria, he noted that these workers leave their homes between 4:00 a.m. and 5:00 a.m. without having breakfast in order to arrive at their jobs on time. Consequently, canteens, cafeterias, and dining facilities at the workplace serve as the primary sources of meals. The food available in these settings is predominantly high in carbohydrates, with little to no fruits or vegetables. According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2012), as cited in Omang et al. (2018), diseases related to unhealthy dietary habits account for approximately 60% of all deaths and about 45% of the global disease burden.

Lifestyle Diseases

Lifestyle diseases are health issues primarily resulting from a person's daily behaviors. Habits that reduce physical activity and encourage a sedentary lifestyle can lead to chronic non communicable diseases (NCDs) with potentially life threatening consequences (Tabish, 2017). NCDs account for approximately 40 million deaths annually about 70% of all global deaths. These chronic conditions cannot be transmitted between individuals and arise from a combination of genetic, physiological, environmental, and behavioral factors.

The main categories of NCDs include cardiovascular diseases, chronic respiratory diseases, and various forms of cancer. Conditions such as cardiovascular disease, stroke, diabetes, and certain cancers are closely linked to lifestyle behaviors, which is why they are often termed "lifestyle diseases" (World Health Organization [WHO], 2017). Cardiovascular diseases including heart attacks and strokes are the leading cause of death globally, accounting for approximately 17.7 million deaths per year. Cancer causes around 8.8 million deaths annually, respiratory diseases

account for about 3.9 million, and diabetes leads to roughly 1.6 million deaths per year. Collectively, these four disease groups represent the largest share of all NCD-related fatalities (WHO, 2017).

Characteristics of Non Communicable Diseases

Non communicable diseases (NCDs) refer to a group of medical conditions that are not transmissible from person to person. This category includes ailments such as heart disease, various forms of cancer, chronic respiratory conditions, and diabetes. The following are some key characteristics of NCDs:

1. **Chronic Nature**: NCDs typically have a long duration and progress slowly. They can persist for many years or even a lifetime, requiring ongoing medical management and monitoring.
2. **Multi-factorial Causes**: The causes of NCDs are multi-factorial, involving a combination of genetic, environmental, and behavioral factors. Poor dietary habits, physical inactivity, tobacco use, and harmful alcohol consumption are significant contributors to their development (World Health Organization, 2021).
3. **Preventability**: Many NCDs are largely preventable through lifestyle modifications. Interventions such as adopting a healthy diet, engaging in regular physical activity, and avoiding tobacco and excessive alcohol consumption can significantly reduce the risk (American Heart Association, 2021).
4. **Impact on Quality of Life**: NCDs can severely impair an individual's quality of life by causing disability, emotional distress, and limitations in performing daily activities. The

effects often extend to families and communities, burdening healthcare systems and reducing workforce productivity.

5. **Health System Burden**: NCDs: place a significant strain on healthcare systems due to the long-term care, diagnostic services, and treatment required. This often leads to higher healthcare expenditures and impacts economic productivity (World Economic Forum, 2020).
6. **Age and Socioeconomic Factors**: NCDs disproportionately affect older adults and individuals from lower socioeconomic backgrounds. Limited access to healthcare, education, nutritious food, and safe living environments contributes to this disparity.

Causes of Non-Communicable Diseases

The causes of NCDs are typically grouped into three categories: modifiable behavioral risk factors, non-modifiable risk factors, and metabolic risk factors.

1. Modifiable Behavioral Risk Factors

These are lifestyle related factors that individuals can change to reduce their risk. They include:

- Excessive alcohol consumption
- Poor dietary habits
- Tobacco use
- Physical inactivity
- Poor sleep patterns
- Prolonged sedentary behavior and job-related stress

According to the World Health Organization (2021), tobacco use is responsible for over 7 million deaths annually, and this figure is expected to rise. High sodium intake causes approximately 4.1 million deaths per year, alcohol-related NCDs account for about 1.65 million deaths, and physical inactivity is responsible for 1.6 million deaths globally.

2. Non Modifiable Risk Factors

These are factors that cannot be changed through intervention, including:

- Age
- Gender
- Genetic predisposition
- Race or ethnicity

3. Metabolic Risk Factors

These involve changes in metabolic processes that increase the risk of NCDs. They include: Elevated blood pressure. Obesity, Elevated blood glucose (hyperglycemia)
iv. Elevated blood lipids (hyperlipidemia)

Among these, elevated blood pressure is the leading metabolic risk factor, accounting for approximately 19% of global deaths, followed by obesity and hyperglycemia (World Health Organization, 2021)

Prevention of Lifestyle Diseases

The primary strategy for managing non communicable diseases (NCDs) is addressing the risk factors associated with them. In other words, many lifestyle diseases can be prevented by modifying behavioral habits that contribute to their development (World Health Organization [WHO], 2017). Preventing lifestyle related conditions such as heart disease, diabetes, and obesity requires intentional, health-promoting daily choices. Below are key preventive strategies, supported by scholarly and institutional references:

1. **Eat a balanced diet**: Consuming a diet rich in fruits, vegetables, whole grains, lean proteins, and healthy fats is crucial for preventing lifestyle related diseases. Reducing the intake of processed foods, sugary beverages, and foods high in salt supports cardiovascular health and helps prevent diabetes and obesity. The WHO (2020) advises limiting the consumption of free sugars and saturated fats to reduce the risk of non-communicable diseases.
2. **Engage in Regular Physical Activity**: Regular physical activity lowers the risk of cardiovascular diseases, assists with weight management, and improves insulin sensitivity. The U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC, 2022) recommends at least 150 minutes of moderate intensity aerobic activity such as brisk walking or cycling per week to maintain overall health.
3. **Quit Smoking and Reduce Alcohol Intake**: Tobacco use is a major contributor to heart disease, stroke, and lung cancer. Quitting smoking substantially reduces the risk of these diseases. Similarly, limiting alcohol intake to no more than one drink per day for women

and two for men helps reduce the risk of liver disease, hypertension, and certain cancers (WHO, 2021).

4. **Manage Stress**: Chronic stress is linked to hypertension, heart disease, and various mental health issues. Stress management techniques such as mindfulness, deep breathing exercises, and meditation can reduce stress and its associated health risks. According to the American Psychological Association (APA), 2020), these practices contribute to lower blood pressure and enhanced overall well-being.
5. **Maintain a Healthy Weight**: Obesity is a significant risk factor for several lifestyle-related diseases, including type 2 diabetes and cardiovascular disorders. Maintaining a healthy weight through balanced nutrition and regular physical activity is essential. The Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health (2021) emphasizes that effective weight management plays a critical role in preventing metabolic syndrome and other chronic conditions.

Concept of Stress

Stress can be defined as an integrated response of the organism to pressures from the internal or external environment in an effort to maintain homeostasis (AlJaber, Alwehaib, Algaeed, Arafah, & Binsebayel, 2019). Although the concept of stress remains somewhat ambiguous and controversial in many scientific discussions, Truxillo, Bauer, and Erdogan (2016) defined stress as “the body’s reaction to a change that requires a physical, mental, or emotional adjustment or response.” This definition clarifies that the response to stress can be physical, mental, or emotional in nature. These definitions primarily approach stress from a Western perspective.

However, when viewed through an Eastern lens, stress is often seen as a deficiency or absence of inner tranquility (Seaward, 2014).

Consequently, stress management strategies in Eastern traditions emphasize the attainment of inner peace and spiritual balance. Truxillo, Bauer, and Erdogan (2016) further explained that stress involves the body's adaptive response to any change, highlighting its multidimensional impact. Reiterating the Western and Eastern perspectives, Seaward (2014) emphasized that while Western science focuses on physiological and psychological responses, Eastern philosophy views stress as a disturbance in internal harmony. Stress can be compared to salt and pepper in life some stress is necessary to stay motivated and engaged in daily tasks. However, just as too much salt can ruin a meal, excessive stress can negatively impact an individual's overall functioning. When stress levels exceed an individual's capacity to cope, it can lead to detrimental effects on psychological and physical health, reducing both performance and productivity. While stress is not inherently negative and can offer motivational benefits, it must be managed effectively and kept within a tolerable range (Shetgovekar, n.d.).

Different Kinds of Stress

Kapur (2021) identified various kinds of stress, including acute stress, episodic acute stress, chronic stress, emotional stress, burnout, physical stress, psychological stress, psycho social stress, psycho-spiritual stress, eustress, and distress.

Acute Stress

Acute stress is a form of pressure that impacts an individual's mental stability. It occurs suddenly and is usually triggered by specific, foreseeable events. Although acute stress is typically short-

lived, it requires effective coping strategies to ensure it does not escalate. Relaxation techniques such as deep breathing, cognitive reframing, progressive muscle relaxation, and brief meditation are essential for managing this type of stress.

Episodic Acute Stress

Episodic acute stress occurs when individuals experience frequent episodes of acute stress. It often results from a pattern of chaotic, demanding lifestyles. This type of stress can significantly affect both physical and mental health. Physical issues may include joint pain, cardiovascular disease, and blood pressure fluctuations, while psychological effects may involve anxiety, depression, anger, and frustration (Kapur, 2021).

Chronic Stress

Chronic stress is a long-term form of stress that persists over extended periods. It can lead to serious physical and mental health issues, including cardiovascular problems, weakened immune function, depression, and burnout. Effective management strategies include combining short-term stress relief techniques with long-term coping mechanisms, such as emotion-focused and solution-focused approaches (Kapur, 2021).

Emotional Stress

Emotional stress often arises from challenging relationships or overwhelming workplace demands. According to Freshwater (2018), this form of stress can have intense psychological and physical effects. Coping strategies involve fostering mutual understanding, developing strong interpersonal relationships, and implementing emotional regulation techniques.

Battling Burnout

Burnout is a state of emotional, physical, and mental exhaustion caused by prolonged stress. It typically results from persistent work-related pressures, lack of resources, limited advancement opportunities, and inadequate support systems. To combat burnout, it is important to address institutional challenges and ensure employees have access to development opportunities, feedback, and adequate compensation (Kapur, 2021).

Physical Stress

Physical stress is stress that directly affects the body. It can result from injuries, infections, nutritional deficiencies, substance abuse, lack of sleep, or musculoskeletal problems. Addressing physical stress involves identifying the underlying causes and adopting healthier lifestyle choices, including proper nutrition, hydration, and rest (Types of Stress, n.d.).

Psychological Stress

Psychological stress stems from internal emotional conflicts such as anger, anxiety, trauma, or depression. It affects both mental and physical health. Coping strategies include relaxation methods, counseling, and developing problem-solving and decision-making skills (Kapur, 2021).

The Stages of Stress

According to Coles (2017), there are five stages of stress: Stage 1: Fight or Flight, Stage 2: Damage Control, Stage 3: Recovery, Stage 4: Adaptation, and Stage 5: Burnout.

Stage 1: Fight or Flight

This stage begins when an individual first encounters a stressful situation. The body responds by activating the thyroid and adrenal glands, leading to the release of stress hormones such as adrenaline and cortisol. This results in an increased heart rate and blood pressure, reduced short-term memory, and heightened emotions such as fear, anxiety, and stress. While this "alarm stage" can enhance mental clarity temporarily, it is designed to manage short-term threats. If the signals are ignored, the body may begin to deteriorate. Therefore, while this stage can help you act quickly, it is essential to return to balance once the threat has passed.

Stage 2: Damage Control

As the stress continues, the body enters a compensatory phase, attempting to maintain stability while expending more energy than usual. Cortisol and other anti-inflammatory hormones are released to manage inflammation. However, this state is not sustainable over time. It is merely a short-term coping mechanism to help the body function under stress. Persistently ignoring these signs can lead to serious consequences. This stage is often glorified in work culture, especially among entrepreneurs who equate productivity with perseverance, even at the cost of their health.

Stage 3: Recovery

At some point, the body demands a break. Recognizing this is crucial for long-term health. During recovery, the body seeks to restore its systems to a healthy, balanced state. Rest, adequate sleep, and reduced activity are critical in this stage. Unfortunately, for many high-achievers, taking time off can be difficult, yet it is vital. Incorporating scheduled rest periods into daily or weekly routines can significantly improve well-being and prevent further deterioration.

Stage 4: Adaptation

If the recovery stage is bypassed, the body attempts to adapt to the ongoing stress. This prolonged stress adaptation leads to physiological and psychological adjustments. Although the body is trying to cope, this adaptation is harmful. Individuals may suffer from fatigue, poor self-esteem, emotional instability, weight fluctuations, and disrupted sleep. Over time, the pressure affects multiple aspects of life, potentially leading to breakdowns in health, productivity, and personal relationships. Adaptation is not a sustainable solution but a warning sign of impending collapse.

Stage 5: Burnout

If stress continues unchecked through all previous stages, burnout becomes inevitable. Burnout can manifest as emotional exhaustion, severe depression, or even hospitalization. In certain communities such as entrepreneurship overworking and sleep deprivation are sometimes seen as signs of dedication. However, failing to maintain balance ultimately leads to physical, emotional, and mental breakdowns. Recovery from burnout takes much longer than practicing daily self-care. Preventive measures are far more effective than reactive ones.

Concept of Occupational Stress

Occupational stress refers to the pressure resulting from various factors in the work environment, including roles and responsibilities. It occurs when job demands exceed an individual's abilities or resources, leading to physical, psychological, and behavioral reactions (Cooper & Quick, 2017). In contemporary workplaces, occupational stress has emerged as a critical issue, impacting productivity, mental health, and the overall culture of organizations. Recently,

occupational stress has received increased attention due to its effects on both personal health and organizational performance. According to Ferreira and Barros (2021), university lecturers face pressure from teaching, research, and administrative duties, which can heighten stress levels. However, many lecturers report managing these stressors effectively, suggesting a certain degree of resilience. Pongsakornrungslip and Tontisirin (2023) support this, noting that while stress is common, many faculty members adopt coping strategies that allow them to maintain a functional balance.

Sources of Occupational Stress

Occupational stress can arise from various sources, often referred to as stressors. These include workload, unclear roles, lack of control, interpersonal conflicts, and job insecurity. High workloads and inadequate resources can place excessive pressure on employees, leading to stress and burnout (Johnson et al., 2020). Similarly, role ambiguity where employees are unclear about job expectations and role conflict where contradictory demands arise are significant stressors (Huang, Hall, & Theorell, 2021). Job insecurity has also been identified as a major source of stress, especially during economic downturns or organizational restructuring, as employees may fear job loss (Sverke, Hellgren, & Näswall, 2019).

Effects of Occupational Stress

Occupational stress affects individuals and organizations in multiple ways:

Mental Health: Prolonged occupational stress is linked to mental health challenges such as anxiety, depression, and burnout. Burnout is characterized by emotional, physical, and mental

exhaustion and is common in high-pressure professions like education, healthcare, and social services (Maslach & Leiter, 2016).

Physical Health: Occupational stress is associated with physical health issues such as cardiovascular diseases, musculoskeletal disorders, and sleep disturbances. Chronic stress at work can result in elevated blood pressure and increased risk of heart disease (Slopen, Williams, & Lewis, 2017).

Organizational Outcomes: For organizations, unaddressed stress can lead to reduced productivity, increased absenteeism, and high staff turnover. Workplaces that do not actively manage stress often face declining employee engagement and satisfaction, ultimately impacting overall performance (Kaiser & Ringlstetter, 2020).

Strategies for Managing Occupational Stress

Organizations can adopt a variety of strategies to address work related stress, including structural changes, training programs, and support systems. but Job Redesign, Employee Support Programs.Organizational Culture and Support.

Job Redesign: Modifying job roles to include greater flexibility and autonomy can reduce occupational stress, enabling employees to manage their workloads more effectively (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2016).

Employee Support Programs: Programs that offer stress management resources, mental health services, and counseling can help employees cope with workplace stress. Evidence shows that

Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs) and workplace wellness initiatives enhance employee well-being and reduce stress-related health problems (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017).

Organizational Culture and Support: A workplace culture that promotes open communication, appreciation, and teamwork is essential for reducing stress levels. Research demonstrates that effective leadership and supportive workplace relationships can mitigate the effects of job-related stress and foster a more positive organizational climate (Montano, Reeske, Franke, & Hüffmeier, 2017).

Occupational stress presents a significant challenge for both employees and organizations. Addressing this issue requires a comprehensive approach that involves clearly defining job expectations, providing robust employee support, and fostering a healthy and constructive work environment. Recent studies emphasize the importance of implementing proactive stress management strategies, particularly in high pressure roles, to protect employee health and enhance organizational performance.

Occupational Stress and the Different Ways of Measuring It

Occupational stress can be measured using several tools, with some of the most widely recognized being the Holmes and Rahe Stress Scale, the Depression Anxiety Stress Scales (DASS), and the Organizational Stress Screening Tool. The Organizational Stress Screening Tool questionnaire, developed by Cartwright and Cooper (2002), serves as a brief yet effective instrument for identifying potential stress-related problems in the workplace. One modern tool for assessing occupational stress is ASSET (A Shortened Stress Evaluation Tool), which represents an improved version of the widely recognized Occupational Stress Indicator (OSI). ASSET is suitable for use across a range of professions and has proven particularly effective in

healthcare settings. It has demonstrated strong construct and discriminative validity, making it a robust instrument for identifying occupational stress by capturing both its sources and effects.

ASSET conceptualizes occupational stress as being influenced by multiple factors, including workplace relationships, work-life balance, excessive workload, job security, autonomy (control), resource availability, communication, compensation, and benefits. It also accounts for employees' perceptions of potential stressors associated with the intrinsic characteristics of their roles referred to as Aspects of the Job. Furthermore, ASSET assesses organizational commitment using two subscales: Commitment of the Organization to the Employee (COE) and Commitment of the Employee to the Organization (CEO). A high score on both subscales indicates a strong reciprocal commitment. The COE subscale measures the extent to which employees feel that their organization is supportive and invested in them, while the CEO subscale evaluates the degree of employees' loyalty and dedication to their organization.

Holmes and Rahe Stress Scale

The Holmes and Rahe Stress Scale was developed by Thomas Holmes and Richard Rahe in 1967. In the process of developing the scale, they examined over 5,000 medical patient records to determine whether stressful life events were linked to the onset of illness. As a result, they compiled a list of 43 stressful life events that could contribute to health problems. These events were included in a questionnaire with scores assigned to each, and respondents are asked to indicate "Yes" or "No" for each event. After completing the questionnaire, the scores for all the endorsed items are summed to produce a total stress score. A score of 300 or higher suggests a high risk of illness due to stress. Scores ranging from 150 to 299 indicate a moderate risk, which is about 30% less than that of the highest category. A score of below 150 suggests a slight risk of

illness. Holmes and Rahe also developed two separate stress scales: one tailored for unmarried, non-adults and another for married adults, to account for differences in life experiences across age and marital status groups.

Depression Anxiety Stress Scales (DASS)

The Depression Anxiety Stress Scales (DASS) is a set of self-report tools designed to measure three related negative emotional states: depression, anxiety, and stress. Developed in 1995 by S.H. Lovibond and P.F. Lovibond at the University of New South Wales in Australia, the DASS was intended to enhance the conceptualization, understanding, and measurement of emotional distress in both clinical and non-clinical settings. The DASS-42 comprises 42 self-report items, taking approximately 5 to 10 minutes to complete. Each item reflects a symptom of negative affect and is rated on a 4-point Likert scale, based on how much the participant experienced the symptom during the past week. A score of 0 means the symptom did not apply at all, while a score of 3 means it applied very much or most of the time. Respondents are instructed that there are no right or wrong answers.

The DASS includes three scales: The Depression Scale assesses dysphoria, hopelessness, devaluation of life, self deprecation, lack of interest or involvement, anhedonia, and inertia.The Anxiety Scale evaluates autonomic arousal, skeletal muscle effects, situational anxiety, and subjective anxious affect. The Stress Scale measures persistent arousal, including difficulty relaxing, nervous tension, irritability, and over-reactivity. Each scale consists of 14 items, and the scores are calculated by summing responses for the respective items.

Interpretation of DASS Scores:

Depression:

0–9 = Normal

10–13 = Mild

14–20 = Moderate

21–27 = Severe

28+ = Extremely Severe

Anxiety:

0–7 = Normal

8–9 = Mild

10–14 = Moderate

15–19 = Severe

20+ = Extremely Severe

Stress:

0–14 = Normal

15–18 = Mild

19–25 = Moderate

26–33 = Severe

34+ = Extremely Severe

The primary aim of the DASS is to differentiate and assess the severity of symptoms related to depression, anxiety, and stress, helping in early detection and psychological evaluation.

Table 1: **Depression, Anxiety and Stress scale**

	Depression	Anxiety	Stress
Normal	0-9	0-7	0-14
Mild	10 -13	8-9	15-18
Moderate	14-20	10- 14	19-25
Severe	21-27	15- 19	26-33
Extremely severe	28 +	20+	34+

Lovibond P.F. and Lovibond S. H. (1995)

Stress and the Different Coping Styles

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) identified two basic types of coping strategies: problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping. Problem-focused coping involves taking active steps to control or change the source of stress (i.e., the stressors). For example, imagine that Bradford receives a midterm notice indicating that he is failing his statistics class. In this case, problem focused coping may involve identifying the issue, exploring possible solutions, evaluating the pros and cons of each option, and selecting the most effective course of action. If Bradford adopts a problem-focused coping strategy, he might decide to study statistics for two hours daily, seek tutoring, and meet with his professor to understand how to improve his performance. Problem-focused coping involves making a deliberate effort to resolve the underlying issue causing the stress. This type of coping is more likely to occur when individuals perceive the stressors as being within their control.

In contrast, emotion-focused coping entails managing the emotional distress associated with the stressors, rather than attempting to change the stressors itself. Strategies may include avoidance,

minimization, withdrawal from the situation, making positive comparisons (e.g., “At least I’m not as bad off as she is”), or finding a silver lining in the experience (e.g., “Now that I’ve been fired, I can finally catch up on sleep”). A key technique within emotion-focused coping is reappraisal, which involves reinterpreting the stressors in a more positive or less threatening way even if the actual threat level remains unchanged (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). For instance, someone worried about failing a midterm might distract themselves by playing video games, watching comedy shows, or spending time on social media.

Emotion focused coping can be thought of as treating the symptoms rather than the root cause of stress. This approach is more commonly employed when individuals perceive the stressors as uncontrollable. In such situations, attempting a problem-focused strategy may lead to increased frustration and anxiety. For example, if a 40-page paper is due in a few hours and there is clearly not enough time to complete it, it may be more helpful to recognize the limits of the situation and focus on self-soothing or temporary distraction, rather than attempting the impossible.

Relationship Between the Workload of University Lecturers and their Stress

The academic profession is globally recognized for its intensity, especially in higher education settings where teaching, research, supervision, and administrative responsibilities are combined. Workload refers to the volume and intensity of job related tasks that an individual is expected to complete within a certain period. Work stress, on the other hand, arises when there is an imbalance between job demands and the resources available to meet them. A large body of literature supports a significant relationship between workload and stress among university lecturers.

A growing consensus among scholars indicates that the increasing workload in Nigerian universities is a primary driver of psychological stress among lecturers. Adeyemi and Johnson (2022) conducted a correlational study across public universities in Southwest Nigeria and reported a strong positive relationship between academic workload and stress levels. Their findings revealed that lecturers managing multiple large classes, engaging in continuous research, and juggling numerous administrative roles often experienced emotional fatigue, decreased motivation, and burnout. Similarly, Nnamani and Udo (2019) found that academic staff with excessive workload responsibilities reported higher levels of stress and lower levels of professional satisfaction.

The multidimensional nature of academic workload amplifies pressure on lecturers. Chukwu and Eze (2021) documented that lecturers are expected not only to teach and supervise students but also to produce research publications, attend conferences, write grant proposals, and serve on numerous departmental and university-wide committees. These overlapping responsibilities, especially when poorly regulated, contribute to cognitive overload and reduced job performance. Their study concluded that universities lacking adequate support systems leave lecturers vulnerable to chronic stress and anxiety. Supporting these findings, Okafor and Yusuf (2022) reported that lecturers who handled four or more undergraduate courses per semester, in addition to supervising postgraduate students and managing administrative roles, consistently experienced high stress. This was exacerbated by poor infrastructure, limited access to research funding, and delayed promotions. Similarly, Bello and Adebayo (2021) observed that lecturers in public institutions experience more pronounced stress due to high student-to-staff ratios and administrative inefficiencies.

The type of institution also influences workload-related stress. Adebayo and Musa (2022) compared lecturers in private and public universities, noting that while public university lecturers faced heavier teaching loads, their counterparts in private institutions dealt with strict deadlines, frequent assessments, and tighter administrative controls. Although the stressors differed in nature, both groups experienced significant stress, highlighting the role of institutional environment in shaping workload perceptions. Administrative policies and individual coping strategies can moderate this relationship. Ajayi and Ogunleye (2023) found that flexible academic calendars, provision of research assistants, and clearly defined promotion criteria reduced the negative impact of workload on stress. Nwankwo and Ibrahim (2023) similarly emphasized the importance of supportive leadership and time management training in reducing stress levels.

At the individual level, time management and prioritization skills play a crucial role. Ekundayo and Awolowo (2021) noted that lecturers who use planning tools, maintain a work life balance, and seek peer support are better able to cope with high workloads. However, they warned that such strategies alone cannot shield lecturers from institutional stressors in resource-constrained environments. Despite extensive evidence of a positive correlation between workload and stress, some scholars offer alternative perspectives. Ekong and Ebun (2020) argued that a certain level of workload can be beneficial for professional development and productivity. Their study found that when lecturers perceive their workload as meaningful and have autonomy over their schedules, they report more positive work experiences despite high demands. Musa and Adeoye (2023) added that perceived control and recognition can moderate the negative effects of workload.

Wellness initiatives also play a role in reducing stress. Onuoha and Gambo (2022) found that private universities offering services like regular health checkups, stress counseling, and recreational facilities provided effective buffers against stress. Lecturers in such institutions reported lower stress levels even when handling workloads similar to those in other institutions. Overall, the evidence suggests a significant and largely positive correlation between workload and stress among university lecturers. However, this relationship is influenced by factors such as institutional policies, coping strategies, university type, academic rank, and support structures. The increasing demand for research output, combined with teaching and administrative duties, has intensified pressure on academic staff. Therefore, interventions aimed at equitable workload distribution, mental health support, and administrative efficiency are urgently needed.

Workload is a multidimensional concept that includes time demands, mental and physical tasks, and related stressors (Rao, Petra, Pio, & Nordiana, 2021). As one of the primary sources of occupational stress, excessive workload can harm both physical and mental health (Dall'Ora, Ball, Reinius, & Griffiths, 2020). Bavanhi and Norasmah (2017) emphasized that teaching is particularly stressful due to additional responsibilities beyond classroom instruction. Unmanaged workload related stress can compromise teaching quality and student outcomes. Jaafar et al. (2020) noted that when lecturers are assigned non-academic duties, they may spend less time on core teaching responsibilities, leading to stress and reduced effectiveness. They concluded that moderate workloads help lecturers manage tasks effectively and maintain teaching quality, which benefits student performance.

Zaidan and Juariyah (2020) reported that workload had only a 1.1% influence on work stress, suggesting that other factors may play more significant roles. According to their findings,

lecturers at the University of Malang generally experience low stress levels despite occasional heavy workloads, possibly due to their intrinsic motivation and positive perception of their work. In contrast, Yo and Surya (2015) found a significant positive impact of workload on stress but noted that lecturers at the State University of Malang did not exhibit noticeable changes in stress levels with increased workload.

Kenia and Noeroel (2020) argued that both excessive and insufficient workloads can lead to work stress, affecting physical and psychological well-being. However, they also suggested that the mental strain of academic work does not always correlate directly with stress levels, implying that resilience and institutional culture play moderating roles. Due to the dual operation of regular and sandwich programs, some lecturers supervise as many as 30 research projects per semester. Yet, to be promoted, they are expected to publish in high-impact journals. This pressure has led to reports of exhaustion and even death among academics (Kusi, Mensah, & Gyaki, 2014). Paulse (2015) observed that younger academics may experience less workload stress than older ones due to fewer family responsibilities. Izuchi and Onukwufor (2017) found that job stress among university lecturers is significantly related to workload, inadequate facilities, and large student populations. Their regression analysis revealed that these factors jointly explain 20.4% of the variation in lecturers' job stress, with each factor individually contributing to elevated stress levels.

Work stress is inevitable in all types of jobs; the only difference lies in the degree to which employees feel and experience it. A key criterion in assessing work-related stress is an employee's ability to meet job demands. Stress often arises when individuals face tight deadlines, lack adequate time to complete tasks, or fear failure or embarrassment. In essence, stress occurs

when job demands exceed an individual's capacity to cope. Many studies have identified workload as the primary contributor to work-related stress. According to Damayanti, Wardhani, Putri, and Lutfiya (2020), external workload factors such as workstation conditions, workspace layout, work tools, physical environment, and posture can significantly contribute to stress. Organizational elements like work schedules, rest periods, shift systems, pay structures, delegated authority, and responsibilities also influence stress levels.

Academic staff in universities including lecturers and support personneloften experience work-related stress due to role ambiguity, role conflict, and both quantitative and qualitative overload. Often, lecturers are assigned duties beyond their primary academic responsibilities, resulting in excessive workloads. Damayanti, Wardhani, Putri, and Lutfiya, (2020) also noted that workload and age significantly affect the likelihood of stress. Workload acts as a stressor both in terms of quantity (number of tasks) and quality (difficulty level). Although workload is a major contributor to stress, it does not directly cause metabolic syndrome, which instead results from prolonged work-related stress. Other causes of workplace stress include career stagnation, interpersonal conflicts, and role ambiguity. The combination of aging and increased workload also contributes significantly to stress.

University lecturers in particular are often subjected to precarious work conditions such as delayed or partial salaries, poor infrastructure, limited access to resources, and frequent academic disruptions due to strikes (Umeh & Matthew, 2017). These adverse conditions negatively affect the health and productivity of academic staff, ultimately impairing their teaching effectiveness and student outcomes. Pace, Zappulla, and Di Maggio (2016) identified perceived workload as the foremost cause of individual stress, followed by lack of support. Similarly, Bonaiuto ,

Catalano, Cataldi, 'Urso, De Dominicis, Faggioli, Perucchini, and Petruccelli, (2019) emphasized that excessive workload negatively impacts both social and professional life, diminishing teachers' ability to effectively fulfill institutional duties. When workload is perceived as overwhelming, it limits performance and leads to a general sense of inefficacy.

However, the relationship between workload and job stress is not always direct. Zaidan and Juariyah (2020) found that while workload does not significantly influence job stress, it has a notable negative impact on job satisfaction. Stress itself also contributes to reduced job satisfaction. They recommend that organizations monitor employee workloads to prevent stress-induced declines in both physical and mental health. Stress-related health problems in lecturers such as irritability, exhaustion, or hypersensitivity can disrupt the teaching and learning environment, resulting in poor classroom experiences. Yo and Surya (2015) concluded that workload has a positive correlation with work stress: as workload increases, so does stress. This, in turn, negatively affects lecturers' job satisfaction. Widajati and Christy (2020) further explained that working hours play a key role in stress response, reflecting an individual's ability to manage work related demands. While extended working hours may enhance experience in some cases, they often result in fatigue and monotony, which contribute to stress. Limited work spaces and repetitive tasks further compound the issue, leading to job dissatisfaction and decreased productivity.

Relationship Between the Lifestyles of University Lecturers and their Stress

Omasu, Kaweno, Naseabasu, and Nishi (2022) suggest that a disordered lifestyle is often a result of increased stress, while a well structured and balanced lifestyle is associated with reduced stress levels. Smith, Johnson, and Lee (2020) assert that poor dietary habits such as high

consumption of processed foods and low intake of fruits and vegetables are strongly linked to increased stress. Similarly, Barlow, Stinson, and Flannery (2019) found that faculty members who engage in regular physical activity report lower stress levels and improved overall wellbeing.

Jordan, Paula, and Jesse (2019) observed a statistically significant negative correlation between perceived stress and adherence to a healthy lifestyle. In particular, female respondents showed a stronger inverse relationship between healthy lifestyle factor (HLF) scores and perceived stress. Gunawan, Deo, Hidayat, Pandia, Iskandar, Yuni, Sylviana, Akbar, Farenia, Wahyu, Purba and Hatta Sidi,(2018) also confirmed a moderate correlation between lifestyle and occupational stress, noting that lecturers who maintained healthier lifestyles experienced less work related stress compared to their counterparts who did not. A healthy lifestyle comprising nutritious eating, regular physical exercise, and minimal substance use can help reduce perceived stress among lecturers and students alike. Badger, Quatromoni, and Morrell (2019) reported that healthier lifestyle choices were associated with lower stress levels among university Academics.. Additionally, Doak, Kearney, McCormack, and Keaver (2022) linked higher stress levels to poor sleep quality, lower physical activity, and a generally low quality lifestyle.

Nwankwo, Ike, Officha, Temidayo, and Ekebosi (2020) assert that both federal and state universities predispose their academic staff to high stress levels due to poor working conditions and excessive workloads. The type of institution plays a critical role, as public university lecturers were more likely to experience stress due to environmental pressures compared to their counterparts in private institutions. They further stated that lifestyle plays a significant role in lecturers' susceptibility to stress particularly through strained coworker relationships, research

demands, and teaching responsibilities. Damayanti, Wardhani, Putri, and Lutfiya (2020) noted that due to long working hours and various responsibilities, academic staff rarely find time to exercise. At Airlangga University, academic staff are encouraged to engage in physical fitness every Friday, as part of a faculty led wellness initiative. Similarly, the Louisiana School Board Health Promotion Program which includes teachers, staff, and board members demonstrated that workplace exercise programs can effectively reduce stress and improve productivity. Daily opportunities for physical activity during working hours are therefore recommended to help employees manage stress and build resilience.

Agboola and Ikonne (2019) noted that the alarming stress levels observed in lecturers today may be attributed to unhealthy lifestyle behaviors. Ramlee and Bakar (2020) emphasized that the accumulation of responsibilities among lecturers contributes to high stress levels, which in turn can negatively affect health and lifestyle. Sokpuwu and Ibara (2021) affirmed that life is inherently stress related, with individual lifestyles significantly shaping the degree and nature of stress experienced. According to Badger et al. (2019), perceived stress is significantly and negatively correlated with all aspects of a healthy lifestyle. While no significant correlation was observed among male participants, a stronger negative correlation was reported among females ($\rho = -0.116$, $p < .01$). Furthermore, an overall significant relationship was found between the total healthy lifestyle factor score and perceived stress ($F = 3.54$, $p < .05$) when controlling for sex, sleep duration, and physical activity limitations. All covariates in the model were statistically significant.

According to Davis and Stoppler (2018), consuming healthy meals, engaging in regular physical activity, and cultivating a healthy lifestyle can significantly improve mental health. In

contemporary academic settings, the lifestyle patterns of university lecturers are increasingly recognized as pivotal in determining their physical health, mental well being, and overall work performance. Lifestyle encompassing daily behaviors such as diet, exercise, sleep, substance use, and stress-coping strategies plays a critical role in either mitigating or exacerbating occupational stress. The high workload, tight academic schedules, research demands, and administrative obligations in Nigerian universities often expose lecturers to chronic stress. As such, understanding the relationship between lifestyle and work stress among university lecturers has become a growing area of interest in health and educational research.

Several studies underscore a strong inverse relationship between healthy lifestyle practices and work related stress among academic staff. Olagunju and Adegboye (2020) examined lifestyle behaviors such as physical activity, alcohol consumption, smoking, and dietary habits among academic staff in selected Nigerian universities. They found that lecturers who consistently maintained healthy routines reported significantly lower stress levels. Their findings suggest that physical activity and proper nutrition act as buffers, enabling lecturers to better cope with the psychological burden of their academic responsibilities.

This view is further supported by Okeke and Samson (2021), whose study linked healthier lifestyle choices such as adequate sleep, consistent meal routines, and regular exercise with improved stress management among university lecturers. According to their findings, lecturers with healthier lifestyles recorded lower scores on the Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS- 42), implying a direct link between healthy living and stress resilience. The researchers emphasized the protective role of structured lifestyles in high demand academic environments. Similarly, Eze and Ibe (2021) explored the impact of workplace wellness programs on stress

levels among university staff. They discovered that lecturers who participated in institutional health promotion activities (e.g., fitness challenges, medical check ups, mental health seminars) reported improved emotional wellbeing and reduced perceived work stress. The authors argued that institutional support for lifestyle improvement is a critical factor in reducing academic stress and enhancing staff productivity.

Akintola and Salami (2023) contributed to this discourse by identifying specific unhealthy behaviors that exacerbate stress among lecturers. Their research revealed that irregular eating habits, smoking, excessive caffeine intake, and a lack of exercise are prevalent among academic staff due to tight schedules and excessive workloads. These behaviors were linked to increased occurrences of stress-related symptoms such as insomnia, anxiety, and irritability. The study concluded that the cumulative effect of unhealthy lifestyle practices significantly contributes to the psychological distress experienced by lecturers in Nigerian universities. Bello and Ajayi (2024) further examined how personal discipline in managing work related stress through healthy lifestyle practices enhances wel lbeing. They posited that lecturers who established consistent routines, prioritized work-life balance, and engaged in recreational activities outside academics were better equipped to cope with occupational stressors. These individuals not only experienced reduced emotional exhaustion but also reported higher job satisfaction and productivity. Their study emphasized the importance of self regulation and conscious lifestyle management as key strategies for promoting mental health among lecturers.

Despite the consistent findings in favor of healthy lifestyles mitigating work stress, some scholars argue that lifestyle changes alone may not sufficiently address the depth of stress university lecturers face. Umeh and Alabi (2022) contended that institutional stressors such as

inadequate remuneration, delayed promotion, bureaucratic hurdles, and job insecurity exert more substantial effects on stress levels than personal lifestyle habits. According to them, while healthy habits may provide temporary relief or enhance resilience, systemic reforms within university management are essential for long-term stress alleviation. This argument is echoed by Ibrahim and Musa (2023), who found that workplace conditions such as a lack of wellness infrastructure and high student to staff ratios limit lecturers' ability to adopt and maintain healthy lifestyles. Their research showed that while many lecturers express a willingness to improve their lifestyle, environmental and institutional barriers often make such transitions difficult. Thus, individual lifestyle improvements must be supported by conducive institutional policies and infrastructure.

Amadi and Obi (2020) introduced another dimension by exploring the lifestyle-stress relationship across different academic ranks. Their findings revealed that lecturers with healthier lifestyles reported lower stress levels across all ranks. However, the availability of time, financial resources, and awareness of healthy practices often varied by rank. Senior academics reportedly had greater access to resources for healthy living, while junior staff were more prone to unhealthy behaviors due to limited income and heavier workloads. While many researchers emphasize the benefits of personal health management, others advocate for institutional interventions to create sustainable change. Zainab and Ahmed (2020) proposed that universities integrate comprehensive wellness programs into staff development initiatives. These programs may include scheduled exercise breaks, subsidized gym memberships, periodic health screenings, and counseling services. They argue that such interventions not only improve lecturers' health outcomes but also enhance institutional efficiency by reducing absenteeism and burnout.

Overall, there is a strong consensus in the literature that a significant relationship exists between lifestyle and work stress among university lecturers. A healthy lifestyle marked by balanced nutrition, regular physical activity, adequate sleep, and effective stress management plays a key role in reducing stress symptoms and enhancing resilience. However, the effectiveness of these lifestyle practices is often moderated by external factors such as institutional culture, workload pressure, and access to health-promoting resources.

Relationship Between the Workload of University Lecturers and their Work Stress Based on Academic Rank

The academic environment in Nigeria and globally has seen increasing attention paid to the challenges of staff workload and occupational stress. In this context, academic rank serves not just as a reflection of hierarchy but also as a mediating factor that shapes how workload is distributed and perceived, (.Akinmayowa & Kadiri, 2020). They assert that work stress defined as the psychological and physiological reaction to work demands that exceed a person's coping resources is often experienced differently by junior and senior academics. As the nature of duties changes with rank, so does the stress profile associated with those responsibilities.

Academic work among university lecturers is multifaceted, demanding a balance between teaching, research, administrative responsibilities, and professional development. Nnadozie (2015) observed that junior lecturers in Nigerian public universities are required to dedicate approximately 80% of their time to teaching and learning activities, with the remaining time allocated to other duties under departmental supervision. As academic rank increases, there is a shift in workload emphasis; senior lecturers and professors are typically afforded more time for research and community service (Nnadozie, 2015). However, this increased autonomy comes

with additional responsibilities, such as administrative duties and supervisory roles, which may contribute to heightened stress levels (Chukwuemeka et al., 2023).

Chukwuemeka et al. (2023) have established that workload regardless of rank significantly contributes to stress among lecturers. They further assert that academic workload, student related challenges, career progression demands, and administrative responsibilities are all significant stressors. Azizah et al. (2016) also found a strong correlation between academic rank and occupational stress arising from workload. Similarly, Aduma et al. (2022) reported that the combination of academic rank and stress levels accounted for 37% of the variation in job performance among lecturers in Nigerian universities. These findings suggest that workload management must be approached with sensitivity to academic hierarchy and institutional expectations.

The influence of academic rank on work related stress is also evident in differences in coping strategies and lifestyle. O'Meara et al. (2017) assert that higher ranking faculty members often carry greater responsibilities, such as serving on committees, editing academic journals, and leading research projects all of which intensify workload stress. Yaacob, Yeon, and Rahman (2021) highlighted that although workloads vary across institutions, salary structures often remain the same, contributing to dissatisfaction and stress. Lecturers with longer years of experience and higher ranks tend to adopt better coping strategies, possibly due to their familiarity with institutional culture and stressors (Kibanja & Nansubuga, 2021).

Academic Rank and Workload Allocation

Academic rank generally follows a hierarchical structure comprising Graduate Assistant, Assistant Lecturer, Lecturer II, Lecturer I, Senior Lecturer, Associate Professor, and Professor. These ranks denote not just differences in experience and qualifications but also in responsibilities, expectations, and privileges. Ekong and Ebun (2020) observed that while senior academics often focus on research leadership, postgraduate supervision, and administrative governance, junior lecturers carry heavier undergraduate teaching loads, student assessments, and lower-prestige departmental roles. These differences influence how workload is internalized and can either amplify or mitigate stress responses. Okafor and Yusuf (2022) argued that junior academics are particularly susceptible to occupational stress due to role ambiguity and task overload. Their research showed that Lecturer II and Assistant Lecturers are often burdened with excessive teaching contact hours, preparation of course materials, and multiple class repetitions across faculties. These tasks, combined with publication pressures and expectations to "prove oneself," generate chronic stress, which manifests as fatigue, frustration, and professional burnout. In a related study, Musa and Adeoye (2023) examined the psychological implications of workload across different academic ranks in three Nigerian universities. Their findings revealed that Assistant Lecturers reported the highest levels of psychological distress and emotional exhaustion. Conversely, Professors despite their complex responsibilities demonstrated lower stress levels due to better control over their schedules, access to research grants, and administrative influence that enabled them to delegate or structure tasks more effectively.

The degree of autonomy an academic staff member holds over their work is strongly correlated with stress outcomes. According to Ajayi and Ogunleye (2023), senior academics enjoy greater discretion in determining which courses they teach, the number of supervisees they accept, and

participation in university committees. This autonomy acts as a buffer against stress, unlike the rigid expectations placed on junior staff. Moreover, senior staff often have the option to negotiate workload limits based on previous achievements or current administrative engagements a luxury not available to those at the beginning of their careers. Adeyemi and Johnson (2022) emphasized that senior lecturers and professors also benefit from better institutional knowledge, which helps them navigate bureaucratic hurdles with ease. This reduces perceived workload stress, even when objective work demands are high. For junior lecturers, institutional unfamiliarity can make task completion more time consuming and emotionally draining, thereby exacerbating their stress experience.

Promotion Pressure and Career Insecurity

Promotion and tenure expectations differ significantly across academic ranks, and this difference influences how workload contributes to stress. Ekundayo and Awolowo (2021) noted that junior lecturers often experience promotion anxiety, which compounds the stress they feel from their workload. The pressure to publish in reputable journals, participate in conferences, and engage in community service all while managing a full teaching load creates overwhelming expectations. In contrast, more senior staff, having passed through these stages, generally operate under less immediate pressure to meet such benchmarks, giving them greater flexibility in managing their workload. Bello and Adebayo (2021) introduced the concept of tenure strain to describe the acute stress junior lecturers face as they balance heavy workloads with the ambition to achieve tenure within strict time frames. Without adequate mentorship or institutional support, many early-career academics internalize unrealistic performance expectations, which can lead to burnout and decreased job satisfaction.

Institutional Culture and Role Delegation

Rank based workload stress is not only an individual experience but also a product of organizational culture. In many public universities in Nigeria, Chigozie and Adebayo (2021) observed that senior lecturers and professors frequently delegate basic teaching and administrative responsibilities to junior colleagues. This delegation often occurs without a corresponding reduction in official workload expectations, meaning junior lecturers end up shouldering more than their designated share. While this is sometimes defended as a learning opportunity for newer academics, the cumulative stress effects are well documented. Conversely, Nwankwo and Ibrahim (2023) highlighted positive institutional practices in some private universities, where clear policies guide workload distribution across ranks. These policies ensure equity by using point-based workload systems that match tasks to available time and staff capacity, regardless of rank. Their findings suggest that in such institutions, workload-related stress differences between ranks are significantly reduced reinforcing the idea that structural reform, not just rank, can address stress disparities.

Coping Strategies and Institutional Support

Another dimension of this discourse concerns the coping strategies that staff at different ranks employ to manage workload stress. According to Umeh and Alabi (2022), senior lecturers tend to have more access to stress-buffering resources such as sabbatical leave, research assistants, and professional networks. These resources not only alleviate their workload but also provide psychological relief through academic recognition and peer collaboration. In contrast, junior lecturers often lack the time or funding to attend international conferences or apply for grants, which limits their exposure and professional growth an indirect source of stress.

Moreover, Bello and Ajayi (2024) pointed out that the availability of mentorship and peer support significantly moderates workload-related stress. In institutions where senior staff actively mentor junior colleagues, there tends to be a more balanced distribution of duties, and junior lecturers are more likely to adopt effective stress management techniques. In contrast, in competitive or hierarchical institutions where mentorship is minimal, junior staff often suffer in silence.

Intersectionality: Gender, Rank, and Workload Stress

The intersection of gender with academic rank further complicates workload stress outcomes. Umeh and Alabi (2022) found that female lecturers, especially those at the lower rungs of the academic ladder, face unique challenges such as work-family conflict, gender bias, and limited access to leadership roles. When combined with rank-based workload inequalities, these stressors can severely impact job performance and psychological health. This points to the need for a holistic approach that considers multiple identity dimensions in addressing academic stress.

Global and Comparative Perspectives

While much of the literature focuses on the Nigerian context, international studies reveal similar patterns. Kinman and Jones (2018), in a UK based study, found that early-career academics reported higher workload stress due to unclear role expectations and poor work-life balance. Similarly, Shin and Jung (2014), in their comparative study of Asian universities, observed that academic rank was the strongest predictor of job satisfaction and workload stress. These findings lend credence to the universality of rank-based stress differentiation and underscore the global relevance of the issue. A consensus across the reviewed literature highlights the need for institutions to adopt rank-sensitive workload models that explicitly recognize and adjust for the

varying capabilities and stress vulnerabilities of academic staff. Adebayo and Musa (2022) recommend the implementation of digital workload monitoring systems that accurately track teaching hours, committee assignments, and research activities to ensure equitable distribution of responsibilities. Additionally, institutions are encouraged to invest in structured mentorship programs in which senior academic staff support the professional growth and psychological well-being of their junior colleagues.

Relationship Between the Lifestyle of University Lecturers and their Work Stress Based on Academic Ranks

The relationship between lifestyle choices and work related stress is not uniform across academic ranks, as roles, responsibilities, and pressures vary between junior and senior faculty members (Igbinoba, Ogbonnaya, & Eweka, 2022). A study by Alabi and Alabi (2021) noted that lecturers who engaged in regular exercise and leisure activities reported significantly lower stress levels, regardless of academic rank; however, such lifestyle practices were more prevalent among mid career lecturers (Lecturer I and Senior Lecturer). Ugwulashi (2023) emphasized that lecturers across different ranks who maintained healthier lifestyle patterns such as consistent sleep routines, balanced diets, and regular fitness habits experienced lower levels of psychological stress. Nevertheless, junior lecturers were found to be less consistent in adopting these practices due to the pressures of career development and job insecurity. Oboh and Akinyemi (2020), in a study conducted in southwestern Nigeria, found that senior academic staff reported more sedentary lifestyles than their junior counterparts, largely due to administrative workloads and prolonged meetings. However, they also demonstrated better stress management strategies, including flexible work schedules and active participation in professional networks.

Lifestyle encompasses daily habits such as diet, physical activity, sleep patterns, and leisure activities, all of which significantly affect mental and physical health. Lecturers often face demanding schedules that may compromise their ability to maintain a healthy lifestyle, potentially intensifying stress levels (Okeke, Eze, & Samson, 2021). They further assert that when analyzed across academic ranks, disparities emerge in how lifestyle factors interact with stress, suggesting that rank specific roles and expectations may influence this relationship.

Lecturers at lower academic ranks, such as Assistant Lecturers and Lecturer II, typically have less autonomy and face heavier teaching and administrative loads without commensurate institutional support (Nnadozie, 2019). These constraints often limit their engagement in stress reducing lifestyle activities such as exercise or recreational breaks. Furthermore, financial limitations may restrict access to healthier dietary options or wellness programs, exacerbating stress levels. Conversely, senior lecturers and professors generally enjoy more control over their schedules and may have greater access to health-promoting resources. However, they also face pressure to publish, attract grants, and mentor junior faculty, which introduces its own type of stress (Adegoke & Salami, 2020).

Several studies have highlighted that the inability to achieve work life balance contributes significantly to stress among lecturers, especially in Nigerian universities where institutional support is limited. According to Egbule and Okobia (2022), lifestyle factors such as irregular meals, poor sleep, and lack of physical activity were strongly correlated with elevated stress levels among junior academic staff. On the other hand, senior lecturers reported stress linked more to administrative overload and research obligations than to lifestyle issues alone. Interestingly, gender and age also moderate this relationship. Younger lecturers, who are typically at the beginning of their careers and belong to lower academic ranks, often lack the

coping mechanisms and institutional experience to manage stress effectively, further illustrating how rank intersects with lifestyle in influencing stress outcomes.

Moreover, institutional factors such as poor health infrastructure, lack of wellness initiatives, and inflexible work policies compound the situation. Jordan, Paula, and Jesse (2019) reported a statistically significant negative correlation between perceived stress and a healthy lifestyle. Similarly, Gunawan et al. (2018) found that lifestyle and occupational stress are moderately correlated. Lecturers who maintained healthier lifestyles experienced significantly less work related stress compared to their counterparts with unhealthy habits. Academic lecturers may feel less stressed if they eat healthily, engage in regular physical activity, and avoid substance abuse. Additionally, a healthy lifestyle has been shown to reduce perceived stress among college students (Badger, Quatromoni, & Morrell, 2019). Doak, Kearney, McCormack, and Keaver (2022) highlighted that high stress levels are associated with low quality lifestyles, reduced physical activity, and poor sleep quality based on academic Ranks.

Damayanti, Wardhani, Putri, and Lutfiya (2020) observed that due to long working hours and various academic responsibilities, university staff rarely engage in physical exercise. However, at Airlangga University, academic staff are provided with opportunities to work out every Friday through a faculty led physical fitness initiative. They also cited the Louisiana School Board health promotion program which includes faculty, staff, district employees, and school board members as an example of how regular physical activity in the workplace can lower work related stress and improve productivity. Engaging in physical activity builds resilience against stress and can help prevent it in the long term. Therefore, institutions should consider offering regular opportunities for physical exercise during working hours.

The word lifestyle is a widely used concept that generally refers to an individual's way of living and encompasses the full range of activities, behaviors, and social values. Lifestyle behaviors typically include eating habits, exercise and physical activity, sleep and rest patterns, weight control, alcohol and tobacco use, vaccination against diseases, stress management, and the ability to utilize family and community support systems. Agboola and Ikonne (2019) assert that the current state of lecturers' lifestyles is alarming, which may be attributed to stress and unhealthy behavior patterns. Ramlee and Bakar (2020) also note that the numerous responsibilities borne by lecturers can lead to stress, and that excessive stress may negatively affect both lifestyle and overall health. Similarly, Sokpuwu and Ibara (2021) indicate that life itself is inherently stress related, with individual lifestyle choices playing a crucial role.

They argue that several factors including physical health, interpersonal relationships, responsibilities, available social support, and exposure to traumatic events determine the level of stress in one's life. Thus, stress is an inevitable aspect of life, but its impact is heavily influenced by individual lifestyle and cultural background. According to Badger, Quatromoni, and Morrell (2019), perceived stress and all aspects of a healthy lifestyle are negatively and significantly correlated (rho = -0.070, $p < .01$). When stratified by sex, males showed no significant correlation (rho = -0.025, $p = .62$), whereas females displayed a stronger negative correlation between the healthy lifestyle factor score and perceived stress (rho = -0.116, $p < .01$). There was an overall significant main effect between perceived stress scores and total healthy lifestyle scores ($F = 3.54$, $p < .05$), after adjusting for sex, sleep duration, and activity limitation. All covariates in the test were significant.

Although a certain level of stress is natural and even necessary for life, it becomes a health hazard when the body or mind is unable to manage it effectively. Kalsum, Nasution, and Ibnu

(2021) assert that university lecturers are at high risk of poor health outcomes due to high workload, chronic stress, unhealthy eating patterns, and disproportionate welfare in relation to job demands. Ribeiro et al. (2018) found that stress levels, as measured through self reported surveys, are inversely correlated with quality of life and wellbeing. Prolonged exposure to excessive stress can trigger a range of physical illnesses, which in turn degrade overall lifestyle quality. A crucial element of promoting a healthy lifestyle in any community is maintaining a balanced diet and engaging in regular physical activity. Although adopting a new lifestyle may initially seem difficult, consistent effort helps individuals adjust and ultimately benefit from improved wellbeing (Ridzuan , Karim, Marmaya, Razak, Khalid, & Yusof, 2018)

Relationship Between the Workload of University Lecturers and their Work Stress Based on University Types

Lecturers in public universities often face challenges such as large class sizes, heavy administrative duties, and increasing pressure to meet institutional performance targets. These demands frequently result in excessive workloads, leading to elevated levels of stress and professional exhaustion (Rose & Sika, 2019). When lecturers are overburdened and stressed, they may struggle to maintain focus and motivation, which negatively affects their efficiency and their ability to deliver quality education (Hester, Bridges, & Rollins, 2020). For example, inadequate preparation for classes may lead to poor lesson planning, ineffective instructional strategies, and limited personal interaction with students.

Furthermore, a high workload may result in burnout, which can have long-term consequences for lecturers' health and well-being. Burnout often leads to disengagement, reduced job satisfaction, and increased turnover rates (Mullen, Backer, Chae, & Li, 2020). In public universities, this often translates to lower instructional effectiveness, reduced student engagement, and poor

academic achievement. Students may also experience a lack of individualized attention and feedback, resulting in diminished motivation and academic performance (Afzal & Rafiq, 2022). According to Osifila and Aladetan (2020), the rising demand for university education among school-aged citizens has led to an unprecedented increase in student enrollment across public, state, and private universities in Nigeria. This surge has significantly increased classroom populations. Inegbedion, Adeyemi, Akintimehin, and Eluyela (2020) argue that lecturers are increasingly stretched due to this annual rise in enrollment, which has led to a considerable increase in responsibilities. These include teaching multiple courses per semester, extended teaching hours, result processing, setting and invigilating examinations, marking scripts, supervising teaching practice, and overseeing undergraduate and postgraduate research.

These responsibilities have not only increased workload but also negatively impacted job satisfaction, often manifesting in poor attitudes toward teaching, aggression toward students, and delays in result processing. The type of university may significantly influence the degree of workload and the complexity of academic responsibilities. Yousefi and Abdullah (2019) suggest that the structural and organizational differences between federal, state, and private universities may contribute to variations in workload and stress levels among academic staff.

The lack of effective and adequate infrastructure puts pressure on the available facilities in Nigerian universities. Furthermore, academic staff are under constant pressure to meet institutional goals. These conditions contribute significantly to tension, burnout, and stress among university lecturers. The situation is further compounded by the rapid increase in student population, making it increasingly difficult to manage students on campus while achieving high academic standards (Nwankwo, et al 2019). These compounding factors excessive workload,

inadequate facilities, and student overpopulation make it extremely difficult for lecturers to perform efficiently without experiencing high levels of stress.

Basarudin, Yeon, Yaacob, and Abd Rahman (2016) argue that the teaching load of academic staff in public universities is increasing due to the high number of undergraduate students enrolled each semester. Their study revealed that although staff often have supplementary responsibilities, the teaching load remains constant, placing additional strain on their time and productivity. Ngobe (2023) observes that lecturers in state-owned universities face numerous challenges, including limited resources, high workloads, and inadequate compensation. These factors contribute significantly to work-related stress and burnout, which in turn affect job performance and overall wellbeing.

Egu, Ogbonna, Obike, and Obiuto (2017) explain that both public and private universities in Nigeria offer multiple program types including evening, part-time, postgraduate, sandwich, and distance learning which have led to a substantial increase in student enrollment. Unfortunately, this growth has not been matched by a corresponding increase in academic staff, resulting in an excessive workload for existing lecturers. Sofoluwe, Akinolu, and Ogbudinkpa (2015) emphasize that the inclusion of administrative duties alongside teaching responsibilities further diminishes lecturers' productivity in both public and private universities. According to Izuchi and Onukwufor (2017), stress in Nigerian universities is primarily linked to workload, insufficient facilities, and student overpopulation. Lecturers are often assigned multiple courses, required to supervise numerous undergraduate and postgraduate projects or theses, and expected to attend administrative and statutory meetings. Additionally, they are involved in seminars, workshops, and professional conferences, which collectively take a toll on their wellbeing.

Their study found that workload, insufficient facilities, and student overpopulation significantly and jointly predict job stress among university lecturers, with insufficient facilities contributing the most to stress levels in independent analyses.

Comparatively, in some foreign universities, lecturers are also required to publish in high impact international journals within strict time frames. However, they are provided with adequate support such as reduced teaching loads, access to research assistants, and funding opportunities to facilitate research and publication efforts (Kalyango, 2017). In contrast, Nigerian academics face similar expectations under more challenging conditions. The "publish or perish" pressure is even more pronounced in Nigeria, where limited institutional support exacerbates the burden. Academics holding administrative positions are expected to fulfill their administrative duties while also meeting teaching, research, and community service requirements. Despite these compounded responsibilities, they are evaluated for promotion on the same criteria as their less burdened colleagues

Relationship Between the Lifestyle of University Lecturers and their Work Stress Based on University Types

The relationship between the lifestyle of university lecturers and their work related stress has received increasing scholarly attention in recent years, particularly in light of rising academic workload demands and mental health concerns. Uche and Ekene (2023) reported that federal university lecturers who exercised regularly, participated in academic sabbaticals, and had supportive departmental leadership exhibited lower levels of stress related symptoms. In contrast, lecturers in state and private universities may struggle to maintain a balanced lifestyle due to institutional limitations. Adebayo and Ayinde (2022) found that state university lecturers with

unhealthy lifestyles such as high alcohol intake and irregular sleeping patterns were more likely to experience stress-related health conditions, including hypertension and anxiety. They further asserted that in private universities, tight schedules and surveillance oriented administration often leave little time for personal wellness routines.

Lecturers in private universities face unique stressors that significantly affect their lifestyle and overall well being. Although they may benefit from more stable salaries and access to modern facilities, they frequently operate under stringent administrative policies, rigorous performance monitoring systems, and extended teaching hours (Egbuta, Ogbonnaya, & Imoukhuede, 2019). This high-pressure academic environment often restricts their ability to maintain a healthy lifestyle, limiting the time available for regular exercise, sufficient rest, and participation in leisure or wellness activities (Nwosu & Umeogu, 2021). Olagunju and Adegboye (2020) examined lifestyle behaviors such as physical activity, alcohol consumption, smoking, and dietary habits among academic staff in selected Nigerian universities. They found that lecturers who consistently maintained healthy routines reported significantly lower stress levels. Their findings suggest that physical activity and proper nutrition act as stress buffers, enabling lecturers to better cope with the psychological burden of their academic responsibilities.

This view is further reinforced by Okeke and Samson (2021), whose study linked healthier lifestyle choices such as adequate sleep, healthy meal routines, and regular exercise with improved stress management among university lecturers. According to their findings, lecturers with better lifestyle habits recorded lower scores on the Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS-21), implying a direct link between healthy living and stress resilience. The researchers

emphasized the protective role of structured lifestyles in high-demand work environments such as academia.

Similarly, Eze and Ibe (2021) explored the impact of workplace wellness programs on stress levels among university staff. They discovered that lecturers who participated in institutional health promotion activities (e.g., fitness challenges, medical checkups, mental health seminars) reported improved emotional well-being and a reduction in perceived work stress. The authors argued that institutional support in promoting lifestyle change is an essential factor in reducing academic stress and enhancing staff productivity.

Akintola and Salami (2023) contributed to this discourse by identifying specific unhealthy behaviors that exacerbate stress among lecturers. Their research showed that irregular eating habits, smoking, excessive caffeine intake, and lack of exercise are prevalent among academic staff due to their tight schedules and work overload. These habits, in turn, led to higher incidences of stress-related symptoms such as insomnia, anxiety, and irritability. The study concluded that the cumulative effect of an unhealthy lifestyle significantly contributes to the psychological distress experienced by lecturers in Nigerian universities.

Bello and Ajayi (2024) further explored the influence of personal discipline in managing work-related stress through lifestyle practices. They posited that lecturers who established consistent routines, prioritized work-life balance, and engaged in non-academic recreational activities were better able to cope with occupational stressors. These individuals not only experienced reduced emotional exhaustion but also showed higher job satisfaction and productivity. Their study emphasized self-regulation and conscious lifestyle management as critical factors in promoting mental health among lecturers.

Despite the consistent findings in favor of a healthy lifestyle mitigating work stress, some scholars argue that lifestyle changes alone may not be sufficient to address the depth of stress university lecturers face. Umeh and Alabi (2022) contended that institutional stressors such as inadequate remuneration, promotion stagnation, bureaucratic hurdles, and job insecurity exert stronger effects on lecturers' stress levels than personal lifestyle factors. According to them, while healthy habits may provide temporary relief or resilience, systemic reforms in university management are essential for long-term stress reduction.

This argument is echoed by Ibrahim and Musa (2023), who explored how workplace conditions, such as lack of wellness infrastructure and high student-to-staff ratios, limit the ability of lecturers to practice healthy living. Their research revealed that although many lecturers expressed willingness to adopt better lifestyle habits, environmental and institutional barriers often made such transitions difficult. The implication is that individual lifestyle improvements must be supported by organizational policies and facilities to be effective. Another dimension is introduced by Amadi and Obi (2020), who investigated the consistency of lifestyle-stress relationships across different academic ranks. Their findings showed that, regardless of rank, lecturers with healthier lifestyles reported lower stress levels. However, the availability of time, financial capacity, and awareness of healthy practices often varied with rank. Senior academics reportedly had more access to resources for healthy living, while junior staff were more susceptible to poor health choices due to limited income and heavy workloads.

While many researchers emphasize the benefits of personal health management, others highlight the need for institutional wellness interventions to create sustainable change. Zainab and Ahmed (2020) proposed that universities should integrate comprehensive wellness policies into staff development programs. These may include scheduled physical activity breaks, subsidized gym

access, periodic health screenings, and counseling services. They maintained that such initiatives not only improve lecturers' health outcomes but also enhance institutional effectiveness by reducing absenteeism and burnout.

Overall, the consensus in recent literature is that there is a significant relationship between lifestyle and work stress among university lecturers. A healthy lifestyle marked by balanced diet, physical activity, adequate sleep, and stress management strategies plays a key role in reducing stress symptoms and enhancing coping capacity. However, the effectiveness of these lifestyle practices is often moderated by external factors such as workload pressure, institutional culture, and availability of health-promoting infrastructure. In conclusion, the literature suggests that improving the lifestyle of university lecturers is a viable pathway for reducing work stress and promoting well-being. However, for such improvements to be sustainable and effective, a supportive institutional framework is necessary. Universities must take deliberate steps to implement staff wellness initiatives, reduce excessive workload, and create a health conscious work culture. Only through this dual approach individual lifestyle adjustment supported by institutional reforms can the full benefits of stress reduction among lecturers be realized.

Summary of Reviewed Literature

This study focused on workload and lifestyle as correlates of stress among university lecturers in Edo State. It was guided by the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping. This theory emphasizes how individuals evaluate (appraise) issues, challenges, and demands when faced with them and highlights how they select and apply the most suitable coping mechanisms for the situation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The concepts of stress, well-being, and workload were also reviewed in the literature to provide a clear perspective and framework for the topic under investigation. In Edo State, there appears to be a lack of sufficient research on the relationship

between workload, lifestyle, and stress among university lecturers. Specifically, limited attention has been paid to how lecturers' lifestyles and the type of university they work in influence their experience of stress. Although some studies have examined either workload or lifestyle separately in relation to stress, none have used the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping to explain how the application of coping skills affects stress outcomes, resulting in either healthy or unhealthy lifestyles.

Furthermore, previous studies have not analyzed the combined correlation between workload and lifestyle with stress in this particular population. There is also a lack of empirical data on how university lecturers in Edo State cope with stress. Moreover, little to no work has been conducted on how workload, lifestyle, and stress differ according to academic rank. Additionally, no comprehensive study has explored workload and lifestyle as correlates of stress among university lecturers across different types of universities in Nigeria.

This study aims to bridge these gaps by investigating workload and lifestyle as correlates of stress among university lecturers in Edo State, with specific attention to variables such as academic rank and university type. The findings are expected to offer data-driven insights that will promote healthier work environments and improve productivity among academic staff in higher institutions.

CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the methods and procedures that were used to conduct the study. It is organized under the following sub headings:

Design of the Study

Population of the Study

Sample and Sampling Technique

Research Instrument

Validity of the Research Instrument

Reliability of the Instrument

Method of Data Collection

Method of Data Analysis

Design of the Study

A survey research design was adopted for this study. This design was chosen because it provided the researcher with the opportunity to gain in depth knowledge and understanding of the subject matter under investigation. It also allowed for the use of a sample as a representative of the entire population. According to Omorogiuwa (2019), a survey design is an approach used to collect data and systematically describe the characteristic features of a population under investigation.

This method is primarily concerned with gathering data to describe and interpret existing conditions and prevailing practices, using a representative sample of the population.

Population of the Study

The population of the study comprised all academic staff members across all universities in Edo State. According to the academic records obtained from each university, the total population was 3,092.

Table 2: The different institutions and their various Academic population .

No	Name of University	Total number of academic staff
1	Ambrose Alli University	597
2	Benson Idahosa University, Benin City	185
3	Edo University Uzaire	105
4	Igbinedion University Okada	227
5	University of Benin, Benin City	1903
6	Wellspring University ,Benin	25
7	Glorious Vision University	50
	Total	3092

Source: Department of Statistics and Personnel of the various institutions

Sample and Sampling Techniques

The sample size for the study was 357. According to Owie (2019), for a population exceeding 3,000, a minimum sample size of 357 is considered an ideal representative.

A multi stage sampling technique was employed for the study. The process involved the following steps:

Step 1: All the Universities in Edo State were stratified using who fund the Universities, the private stratum , the State stratum and the Federal stratum were realize see table 3,

Step 2: One was randomly selected with replacement to represent each stratum., see table 4 .

Step 3: Using faculty and department to stratify each university that was randomly selected. To represent each stratum alongside their population.

Step4:Using proportionate sampling techniques, a specific sample was allocated to each selected university representing each stratum based on the relationship proportion of their population to the general poll. See table 5.

Step 5: The specific sample that was allocated each selected universities was further proportionately broken to faculties and departments based on their population relationship to the allocated samples to the faculty and department. See table 6A,table 6B and table 6C

Step 6: The purposive sampling techniques was now applied to select the final sample from various faculties and department.

Table 3: All Edo State University Stratified into Private, State and Private Universities

Private funded stratum	**State funded stratum**	**federal funded stratum**
Benson Idahosa University.	Ambrose Alli University Ekpoma	University of Benin, UNIBEN
Igbinedion University, Okada . Wellspring University, Benin . Glorious University, Ogwa.	Edo University, Uzaire	

Table 4: Randomly Selected University Representing the 3 Stratum

Private funded Stratum	State funded Stratum	Federal funded Stratum
Benson Idahosa University. Benin	Ambrose Alli University, Ekpoma	University of Benin, UNIBEN

Table 5; 3 Randomly Selected Universities and their Proportionate Sample based on the Relationship of their Population to the General Poll

University	Funding Type	Academic Staff	Proportion (%)	Sample Size
University of Benin	Federal	1903	70.88%	250
Ambrose Alli University	State	597	22.23%	82
Benson Idahosa University	Private	185	6.89%	25
Total		**2685**	**100%**	**357**

Table 6A : Benson Idahosa University and their proportionate from Different Department (Private – 25 Sample, Total Staff = 185)

Faculty	Department	Population	Proportionate Sample
Agriculture	All 4 Depts	13	2
Education	2 Depts	14	2
Arts	All 4 Depts	23	3
Sciences	All 5 Depts	48	6
Social & Management Sci.	All 7 Depts	59	8
Law	1 Dept	16	2
Library & Info. Sci.	1 Dept	12	2
Total		**185**	**25**

Table 6 B : Ambrose Alli University and their Proportionate Sample from the Different Departments (State – 82 Sample, Total Staff = 597)

Faculty	Department	Population	Proportionate Sample
Agriculture	All 4 Depts	40	5
Arts	All 5 Depts	63	9
Clinical Sciences	All 11 Depts	29	4
Basic Medical Sciences	All 5 Depts	38	5
Education	All 6 Depts	73	10
Engineering & Technology	All 4 Depts	45	6
Environmental Studies	All 4 Depts	48	7
Law	All 4 Depts	35	5
Physical Sciences	All 4 Depts	57	8
Life Sciences	All 4 Depts	46	6
Social Sciences	All 4 Depts	54	7
Management Sciences	All 4 Depts	44	6
Institute of Education	1 Dept	7	1
Strategic & Dev. Studies	1 Dept	3	1
University Library	1 Dept	15	2
Total		**597**	**82**

Table 6 C: University Of Benin and their Proportionate Samples from Different Department (Federal – 249 Sample, Total Staff = 1309)

Faculty	Department	Population	Proportionate Sample
Agric Science	Agric Econs & Ext	28	5
	Animal Science	23	4
	Crop Science	16	3
	Fisheries	12	2
	Forestry & Wildlife	14	3
	Soil Science	18	3
Art	English & Lit.	28	5
	Fine & Applied Art	25	5
	French	16	3
	History & Int'l Studies	28	5
	Linguistics	24	5
	Philosophy	11	2
	Philosophy & Religion	2	0
	Religion	13	2
	Theatre Arts & Mass Comm	34	6
Dentistry	All Depts (5 Depts)	36	5
Education	All 8 Depts	160	30
Environmental Science	All 4 Depts	34	7
Engineering	All 7 Depts	220	42
Law	All 4 Depts	65	12
Library	Library	16	3
Life Science	All 7 Depts	245	47
Management Science	All 8 Depts	149	28
Pharmacy	All 6 Depts	73	14
Physical Science	All 5 Depts	155	29
Public Service	All 2 Institutes	29	6
Basic Medical Science	All 7 Depts	108	21
Medicine	All 15 Depts	165	31
Social Science	All 6 Depts	146	28
Veterinary Medicine	All	10	2
Total		**1309**	**249**

Table 7: Respondents and their various Rank that responded to the questionnaire

S/N	Rank	Number
1	Graduate Assistant to Assistant lecturer	93
2	Lecturer 2 to Lecturer 1	100
3	Senior lecturer to Associate Prof	109
4	Professor	55
	Total	357

Table 8 : Sample Randomly Selected from the Various Universities

S/N	Various category of university	Sample
1	Federal University	250
2	State University	82
3	Private University	25
	Total	357

Research Instrument

The research instrument used for this study was a self-structured questionnaire divided into four sections: Section A focused on demographic information, including variables such as type of university and academic rank. Section B consisted of an adapted version of the ASUU Workload Form. Section C addressed lifestyle-related items. Section D featured items from the Depression Anxiety Stress Scale (DASS), specifically adapted to measure stress. See Appendix A for the full questionnaire. All items, except those in the demographic section and the ASUU workload form, were rated on a 4 point Likert-type scale. This scale was used to gather information relevant to answering the research questions and testing the hypotheses. The Likert scale options were: Always (A), Sometimes (SO), Seldom (SE), and Never (N). The questionnaire was of the closed-

ended type, requiring participants to indicate their level of agreement or frequency of behavior in relation to the provided statements.

Validity of the Instrument

The instrument was validated by the researcher's Supervisors, three (3) other experts from the Department of Health, Safety and Environmental Education (HSE).

Reliability of the Instrument

The reliability of the research instrument was assessed using Cronbach's alpha reliability statistics. The questionnaire was administered once to a pilot sample of 30 university lecturers: 10 from the University of Benin, 10 from Ambrose Alli University, Ekpoma, and 10 from Wellspring University. These respondents were excluded from the main study. The internal consistency of the instrument was analyzed using Cronbach's alpha, which yielded the following reliability coefficients: 0.81 for the ASUU Workload Form, 0.71 for the Lifestyle Questionnaire, and 0.78 for the adopted Stress Scale (from the DASS). According to George and Mallery (2003), a Cronbach's alpha of 0.70 or above is considered acceptable for research purposes. Therefore, the instrument was deemed reliable and appropriate for the study.

Method of Data Collection

The questionnaire was administered to the respondents in their offices by the researcher and two trained research assistants. The completed questionnaires were also retrieved by the researcher and the assistants.

Method of Data Analysis

The research questions were analyzed using descriptive statistics, specifically the mean, standard deviation, and percentage. Hypotheses one and two were tested using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (PPMCC), while hypotheses three to six were tested using Fisher's Z transformation. All hypotheses were tested at the 0.05 alpha level of significance. Data generated were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 27.0

Decision Rules for Descriptive Research Questions

To interpret the responses to the research questions, the following scoring benchmarks (decision rules) were adopted:

1. Workload Level of University Lecturers

According to the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) guideline, a workload score that is within 0 - 450 is consider as normal workload. Anything above 451 and above is high workload.

Table 9 : Workload score guideline

Score Range	Interpretation
901 - above	Super high
450-900	High workload
0 – 450	Normal or acceptable workload

2.Lifestyle Level of University Lecturers

Based on the scoring system used in the lifestyle assessment instrument, the lifestyle scores were classified into three categories , see table 10

Table 10: Lifestyle score guideline

Score range	Lifestyle category
41 - 60	Healthy lifestyle
20 -40	Borderline
10 – 20	Unhealthy lifestyle

3. Stress Level of University Lecturers

Stress levels were categorized based on the validated psychological stress scale from Depression Anxiety and Stress Scale (DASS) used in this study: See table 11.

Table 11: Stress score guideline

Score range	Stress category
1 to 14	Normal stress
15 to 18	Mild stress
19 to 25	Moderate stress
26 to 33	Severe stress
34 and above	Extreme severe stress

The stress scores of university lecturers were categorized using the standard scoring guidelines from the Depression Anxiety and Stress Scale (DASS-42), specifically the Stress sub scale, which classifies stress into five severity levels: These cut-off points are derived from Lovibond & Lovibond (1995) and widely accepted in psychometric assessments of stress in both clinical and non-clinical populations.

Note on Application of Decision Rules:

These classification thresholds were applied consistently across all responses to categorize lecturers' workload, lifestyle behaviors, and stress levels. Frequencies and percentages were calculated for each category to answer the respective research questions

CHAPTER FOUR

Presentation of Results and Discussion of Findings

This chapter presents the results and discussion of findings based on the data collected for the study. The research questions were analyzed using descriptive statistics, including the mean, standard deviation, range, and frequency counts. Hypotheses one and two were tested using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (PPMCC), while hypotheses three to six were tested using Fisher's Z transformation. All hypotheses were tested at the 0.05 level of significance.

Presentation of Result

1. **Research question one: What is the level of workload of the university lecturers in Edo State?**

Table 12: Workload level indicating frequency and percentage

Level of Workload	Frequency	Percentage
0- 450 normal workload	41	(11.48%)
451 -900 high workload	143	(40.05%)
901 - + super high workload	173	(48.45%)
Total	357	(100%)

Table 12 presents the workload distribution by frequency and percentage for the 357 university lecturers selected for the study. A total of 41 lecturers (11.48%) fell within the normal workload range of 0–450, while 143 lecturers (40.05%) fell within the high workload range of 451–900. Additionally, 173 lecturers (48.45%) were categorized under the super high workload level. This shows that only a small proportion of lecturers (11.48%) are experiencing a normal workload. In

contrast, 40.05% are operating under high workload conditions, and the majority (48.45%) are experiencing super high workloads.

Table 13:	**Descriptive Statistics of Workload of University Lecturers**					
	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Workload	357	1491	365	1856	813.41	328.539
Valid N (list wise)	357					

Table 13 presents the descriptive statistics for workload among the 357 respondents selected for the study. The mean workload score was 813.41, which falls within the high workload category (451–900), according to the ASUU workload classification. The standard deviation of 328.54 indicates a wide dispersion of scores, suggesting substantial variability in workload levels among university lecturers.

Research question two: What kind of lifestyle is prevalent among university lecturers in Edo State?

Table 14: Lifestyle level indicating frequency and percentage

Level of lifestyle	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
0-20 unhealthy lifestyle	79	22.12%
21-40 borderline lifestyle	166	46.49%
41-60 healthy lifestyle	112	31.27%
Total	357	100%

Table 14 presents the lifestyle levels of university lecturers in Edo State. A total of 79 lecturers (22.12%) fall within the unhealthy lifestyle category (scores of 0–20), while 166 lecturers (46.49%) fall within the borderline lifestyle category (scores of 21–40). Additionally, 112

lecturers (31.27%) fall within the healthy lifestyle category. These results indicate that 22.12% of the lecturers report a clearly unhealthy lifestyle, while the largest group, 46.49%, reports a borderline lifestyle neither fully healthy nor entirely unhealthy. Only 31.27% of the lecturers maintain a healthy lifestyle. This suggests that more than two-thirds (68.61%) of the lecturers are living either unhealthy or borderline lifestyles, which may have significant implications for their health and overall productivity.

Table 15: Descriptive Statistics of Lifestyle of University Lecturers

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
lifestyle categories	357	34	16	50	39.66	6.555
Valid N (list-wise)	357					

Table 15 shows that the mean lifestyle score is 39.66, which falls within the borderline lifestyle category (21–40); see Table 15. The minimum score of 16 lies within the unhealthy lifestyle range, while the maximum score of 50 is slightly above the midpoint of the healthy lifestyle range. The standard deviation of 6.56 indicates a moderate variation in lifestyle habits among respondents not highly uniform, but not extremely dispersed either. This suggests that while some lecturers maintain relatively healthy lifestyles, a substantial number are near the threshold of unhealthy living. These findings highlight the need for targeted lifestyle improvement interventions to promote overall wellbeing among university lecturers.

Research question three: What is the stress level of university lecturers in Edo state?

Table 16: Adopted Stress Scale indicating frequency and percentage

Level of stress	Frequency	Percentage
1-14 Normal stress	19	(5.32%)
15-18 Mild stress	53	(14.84%)
19-25 Moderate stress	110	(30.81%)
26-33 Severe stress	166	(46.49%)
34 - + Extreme Severe stress	9	(2.52%)
Total	357	(100%)

Table 16 shows that a total of 357 respondents were selected for the study. Of these, 19 (5.32%) fall within the normal stress level (1–14), while 53 respondents (14.84%) fall within the mild stress level (15–18). One hundred and ten respondents (30.18%) fall within the moderate stress level (19–25), and 166 respondents (46.49%) fall within the severe stress level (26–33). Additionally, 9 respondents (2.52%) fall within the extremely severe stress level (34 and above). Only 5.32% of lecturers reported experiencing normal stress. The largest group, 46.49%, is experiencing severe stress, followed by 30.18% under moderate stress. A further 2.52% are facing extreme stress. Altogether, 79.19% of the lecturers are dealing with moderate to severe or extreme stress, indicating a critical occupational health concern.

The findings of Research Question three reveal that a significant proportion of university lecturers in Edo State are experiencing moderate to extreme levels of work-related stress. Based on the stress scale data presented in Table 16, only 5.32% of lecturers reported operating under normal stress conditions, while a vast majority, 79.19%, reported moderate to extreme stress

levels. Notably, 46.49% of lecturers are experiencing severe stress statistic that should prompt concern among educational administrators and policymakers.

Table 17: Descriptive Statistics of Stress of University Lecturers

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Stress	357	21	13	34	23.88	5.919
Valid N (listwise)	357					

Table 17 shows the descriptive statistics of stress. The mean stress score is 23.88, which falls within the moderate stress category (19–25). The standard deviation of 5.92 indicates some variation in stress levels but shows that a significant number of lecturers cluster around the moderate to severe stress range. Therefore, the stress level of university lecturers in Edo State is moderate and it is the moderate stress that is prevalent among the university lecturers in Edo State With a mean stress score of 23.88, placing the average lecturer within the moderate stress category indicating that more lecturers falls withing that level .

Hypothesis one: There is no significant relationship between the workload of university lecturers and their stress in Edo State.

Table 18: Workload and Work Stress Correlations of University Lecturers

		Workload	Stress
Workload	Pearson Correlation	1	0.784**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	357	357
Stress	Pearson Correlation	0.784**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	357	357

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

Table 18 shows a Pearson's r-value of 0.784 and a p-value of 0.000. Testing at a 0.05 alpha level of significance, the p-value is less than the alpha level, indicating that the result is statistically significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis, which states that there is no significant relationship between the workload of university lecturers and their stress in Edo State, is rejected.

Consequently, there is a significant relationship between the workload of university lecturers in Edo State and their work-related stress. This result implies that an increase in workload is associated with a corresponding increase in stress levels. The relationship is both significant and strongly positive, meaning that as workload increases, stress levels among university lecturers also tend to rise.

Hypothesis two: There is no significant relationship between the lifestyle of university lecturers in Edo State and their stress.

Table 19: Lifestyle and Stress Correlations of University Lecturers

		Lifestyle	Stress
Lifestyle	Pearson Correlation	1	-.541**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	357	357
Stress	Pearson Correlation	-.541**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	357	357

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

Table 19 presents the Pearson correlation coefficient between lifestyle and stress among university lecturers in Edo State. The result indicates a moderate negative correlation (r = -0.541) between lifestyle and stress, with a p-value of .000. Testing the hypothesis at a 0.05 alpha level of significance, the p-value (.000) is less than the alpha level (.05). Therefore, the null hypothesis,

which states that "there is no significant relationship between the lifestyle of university lecturers in Edo State and their stress", is rejected.

Consequently, there is a significant relationship between the lifestyle of university lecturers in Edo State and their work-related stress. The relationship is moderate and negative, indicating a statistically significant inverse association between lifestyle and stress. This implies that lecturers who maintain a healthier lifestyle tend to experience lower levels of work-related stress.

Hypothesis three: There is no significant relationship between the workload of university lecturers and stress based on rank.

Table 20 fisher 's Z Statistics showing the difference in relationship between workload of university lecturers and their stress based on academic rank

Comparison group	N (1)	N (2)	Spearman r (1)	Spearman r (2)	Z score	P value	Decision
Rank 1 vs Rank 2	93	100	0.805	0.794	0.17	>0.05	Not significant
Rank 1 vs Rank 3	93	109	0.805	0.506	3.91	<0.01	Significant
Rank 1 vs Rank 4	93	55	0.805	O.722	1.16	>0.05	Not significant
Rank 2 vs Rank 3	100	109	0.794	0.506	3.78	<0.01	significant
Rank 2 vs Rank 4	100	55	0.794	0.722	1.00	>0.05	Not significant
Rank 3 vs Rank 4	109	55	0.506	0.722	2.08	<0.05	significant

Table 20 presents the results of Fisher's Z test, comparing the strength of the correlation between workload and work stress across academic ranks. The correlation coefficients were compared pairwise using Fisher's Z transformation, as shown in the table.

Row 1 in table 20 displays the comparison between Rank 1 and Rank 2: Rank 1 lecturers had a correlation coefficient of r = 0.805, while Rank 2 lecturers had r = 0.794. The Z score was 0.17,

with a p-value > 0.05, indicating no significant difference in the strength of the relationship between these two groups .

Row 2 in table 20 shows the comparison between Rank 1 and Rank 3: Rank 1 had r = 0.805, while Rank 3 had r = 0.506. The Z score was 3.91, with a p-value < 0.01, indicating a significant difference. This suggests that the relationship between workload and stress is significantly stronger for Rank 1 lecturers than for those in Rank 3.

Row 3 in table 20 presents the comparison between Rank 1 and Rank 4: Rank 1 had r = 0.805, and Rank 4 had r = 0.722. The Z score was 1.16, and the p-value > 0.05, indicating no significant difference in the relationship between these two groups.

Row 4 in table 20 shows the comparison between Rank 2 and Rank 3: Rank 2 had r = 0.794, while Rank 3 had r = 0.506. The Z score was 3.78, with a p-value < 0.01, showing a significant difference in the strength of the relationship.

Row 5 in table 20 shows the comparison between Rank 2 and Rank 4: Rank 2 had r = 0.794, and Rank 4 had r = 0.722. With a Z score of 1.00 and p-value > 0.05, the difference was not statistically significant.

Row 6 in table 20 compares Rank 3 and Rank 4: Rank 3 had r = 0.506, and Rank 4 had r = 0.722. The Z score was 2.08, with a p-value < 0.05, indicating a significant difference, with Rank 4 showing a stronger relationship.

The Fisher's Z test results in table 20 reveal that the strength of the relationship between workload and stress varies significantly across academic ranks in some instances. Specifically:

Ranks 1 and 2 show no significant difference, suggesting similar experiences of workload related stress. Rank 3 consistently differs from other ranks, especially from Ranks 1 and 2, indicating a weaker stress response to workload. Professors (Rank 4) experience a stronger workload-stress relationship compared to Rank 3, although the difference is not significant when compared to Ranks 1 and Given that three out of six comparisons showed significant differences in relationship (Rank 1 vs. Rank 3, Rank 2 vs. Rank 3, and Rank 3 vs. Rank 4), it can be concluded that academic rank moderates the relationship between workload and stress. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected: there is a significant relationship between the workload of university lecturers and their stress levels, based on academic rank.

Table 21: key representing the different Academic Ranks

Lecturer rank	Code representing each rank
Graduate ass. To an assistant lecturer	1
Lecturer 2 to Lecturer 1	2
Senior lecturer to associate professor	3
Professor	4

Hypothesis four : There is no significant relationship between the lifestyle of university lecturers and stress based on rank.

Table 22: Fisher's Z Statistics showing the difference in relationship between Lifestyle of University Lecturers and their Work Stress Based on Academic Rank

Comparison Group	N1	N1	Spearman 1	Spearman 2	Z score	P value	Decision
Rank 1 vs Rank 2	93	100	-0.215	-0.255	0.265	0.7909	Not Significant
Rank 1 vs Rank 3	93	109	-0.215	-0.176	-0.276	0.7827	Not Significant
Rank 1 vs Rank 4	93	55	-0.215	-0.040	1.430	0.1528	Not Significant
Rank 2 vs Rank 3	100	109	-0.255	-0.176	-0.551	0.5819	Not Significant
Rank 2 vs Rank 4	100	55	-0.255	-0.040	1.240	0.2149	Not Significant
Rank 3 vs Rank 4	109	55	-0.176	-0.040	1.656	0.0976	Not Significant

Table 22 presents the results of Fisher's Z test, comparing the strength of the correlation between the lifestyle of university lecturers and their work stress based on academic ranks. The correlation coefficients were compared pairwise across ranks using Fisher's Z transformation.

Row 1 in Table 22 displays the comparison between Rank 1 and Rank 2. Rank 1 lecturers had a correlation coefficient of r = -0.215, while Rank 2 lecturers had r = -0.255, with Z = 0.265 and p = 0.7909. Since the p-value is greater than 0.05, the difference in correlation is not statistically significant.

Row 2 in table 22 shows the comparison between Rank 1 and Rank 3. Rank 1 lecturers had r = -0.215, and Rank 3 had r = -0.176. The Z score was -0.276, with p = 0.7827. Again, since the p-value exceeds 0.05, the difference in correlation is not statistically significant.

Row 3 in table 22 presents the comparison between Rank 1 and Rank 4. Rank 1 lecturers had r = -0.215, while Rank 4 had r = -0.040. The Z score was 1.430, and p = 0.1528. As the p-value is greater than 0.05, the difference in correlation is not statistically significant.

Row 4 in table 22 displays the comparison between Rank 2 and Rank 3. Rank 2 lecturers had r = -0.255, and Rank 3 had r = -0.176. The Z score was -0.551, with p = 0.5819. Since the p-value is greater than 0.05, the correlation difference is not statistically significant.

Row 5 in Table 22 shows the correlation between Rank 2 and Rank 4. Rank 2 lecturers had r = -0.255, and Rank 4 had r = -0.040. The Z score was 1.240, with a p-value of 0.2149. Since p = 0.2149 > 0.05, the difference in correlation is not statistically significant.

Row 6 in Table 22 displays the correlation between Rank 3 and Rank 4. Rank 3 lecturers had r = -0.176, and Rank 4 had r = -0.040. The Z score was 1.656, with a p-value of 0.0976. Since p = 0.0976 > 0.05, the difference in correlation is not statistically significant.

Across all six pairwise comparisons of academic ranks in table 21, the p-values exceed 0.05, indicating that there are no statistically significant differences in the strength of the relationship between lifestyle and stress across ranks. Therefore, the null hypothesis is retained.

Hypothesis five: There is no significant relationship between the workload of university lecturers and their work stress based on university type.

Table 23: Fisher's Z Statistics showing the difference in relationship between workload of University lecturers and their Work Stress Based on university types

Comparison Group	N_1	N_2	Spearman r_1	Spearman r_2	Z-score	P-value	Decision
Private vs State	25	82	0.552	0.620	-0.4304	0.6669	Not Significant
Private vs Federal	25	250	0.552	0.590	-0.2535	0.7998	Not Significant
State vs Federal	82	250	0.620	0.590	0.3662	0.7142	Not significant

Table 23 shows the Fisher's Z test comparing the strength of the correlation between the workload of university lecturers and their work stress based on university types. The correlation coefficients were compared pairwise across the universities using Fisher's Z transformation, as shown in Table 23.

Row 1 in table 23 presents the comparison between private and state universities. Private universities had a correlation coefficient of r = 0.552, while state universities had r = 0.620. The Z score was -0.43, with a p-value of 0.6669. Since the p-value is greater than the 0.05 level of significance, the difference in correlation between workload and stress for lecturers in private and state universities is not statistically significant.

Row 2 in table 23 displays the correlation comparison between private and federal universities. Private universities had r = 0.552, and federal universities had r = 0.590. The Z score was -0.25, with a p-value of 0.7998. Again, since the p-value exceeds the 0.05 level of significance, there is

no significant difference in the relationship between workload and stress for lecturers in these two university types.

Row 3 in table 23 compares state and federal universities. State universities recorded r = 0.620, while federal universities had r = 0.590. The Z score was 0.37, with a p-value of 0.7142. Since this p-value is also greater than 0.05, the difference in correlation between workload and stress for lecturers in these two university types is not statistically significant.

Since none of the comparison groups produced a p-value less than 0.05, we retain the null hypothesis. That is, there is no significant difference in the relationship between the workload of university lecturers and their stress based on university type.

Hypothesis six: There is no significant relationship between the lifestyle of university lecturers and work stress based on university types

Table24: Fisher's Z Statistics showing the difference in relationship between lifestyle of University Lecturers and their Work Stress based on university types

Comparison	**N_1**	**N_2**	**Spearman r_1**	Spearman r	**Z-score**	**P-value**	**Decision**
Private vs State	25	82	-0.287	-0.468	0.875	0.249	Not significant
Private vs Federal	25	250	-0.287	-0.441	0.569	0.861	Not significant
State vs Federal	82	250	-0.468	-0.441	-0.131	1.737	Not significant

Table 24 shows the Fisher's Z test comparing the strength of the correlation between the lifestyle of university lecturers and their work stress, based on university types. The correlation coefficients were compared pairwise across the universities using Fisher's Z transformation, as presented in Table 24

In Row 1 in table 24 shows the comparison between private and state universities is shown. Private universities had a correlation coefficient of r = -0.287, while state universities had r = -0.458. The Z score was 0.875, with a p-value of 0.249. Since the p-value (0.249) exceeds the 0.05 level of significance, the difference in the correlation between lifestyle and stress for lecturers in these two university types is not statistically significant.

Row 2 in table 24 presents the correlation between private and federal universities. Private universities had r = -0.287, and federal universities had r = -0.441. The Z score was 0.569, with a p-value of 0.861. As this p-value also exceeds the 0.05 significance level, the difference in correlation between lifestyle and stress for lecturers in these two university types is not statistically significant.

Row 3 in table 24 shows the comparison between state and federal universities. State universities had r = -0.458, and federal universities had r = -0.441. The Z score was -0.131, with a p-value of 1.737. Again, the p-value is greater than 0.05, indicating that the difference in correlation is not statistically significant.

Since none of the comparison groups produced a p-value less than 0.05, we retain the null hypothesis. This means that there is no significant difference in the relationship between the lifestyle of university lecturers and their work stress based on university type.

Discussion of Findings

The findings from Research Question One indicated that university lecturers in Edo State are experiencing generally high to very high workloads. From the categorical analysis presented in Table 12, only 11.48% of lecturers reported a normal workload, while 88.5% reported either high

or super-high workload levels. This suggests that the majority of academic staff operate under intense work pressure, likely due to factors such as large class sizes, inadequate staffing, administrative overload, and increased research expectations.

The descriptive statistics in Table 13 reinforce this conclusion. With a mean workload score of 813.41 and a high standard deviation of 328.54, it is evident that many lecturers face workloads well above what might be considered manageable or normal according to the ASUU benchmark of 450 for a standard workload. The maximum score of 1856 is particularly alarming, indicating that some individuals may be handling unsustainable levels of academic tasks.

This finding aligns with prior research by Ajibade and Akinlolu (2020), who noted that Nigerian lecturers often perform multiple roles without adequate resources or institutional support. Similarly, the findings also correspond with Eze and Okocha (2019), who observed that increasing institutional demands such as pressure to publish, attend conferences, and supervise numerous students contribute to overwhelming workloads.

These results carry significant implications. High workload levels are widely associated with occupational stress, burnout, and reduced job satisfaction, which can, in turn, negatively impact teaching quality, research productivity, and overall wellbeing. Therefore, it is critical for university management and policymakers in Edo State to review and regulate workload distribution, employ more academic staff, and implement workload monitoring frameworks to foster a healthier academic environment.

The findings from Research Question Two revealed that the analysis of lifestyle behaviors among university lecturers in Edo State shows an unsettling trend toward suboptimal health

practices. Based on the data presented in Table 14, only 31.27% of lecturers met the benchmark for a healthy lifestyle, while 46.49% fell into the borderline category, and 22.12% exhibited clearly unhealthy lifestyle habits. The mean of lifestyle score is 39.66 see table 15.. Table 14 further confirms that, on average, lecturers are operating within a borderline lifestyle zone, which poses significant long-term risks to their physical and mental health.

These findings are consistent with earlier research on the lifestyle patterns of Nigerian academics. Okoro and Onyekwere (2021) reported that Nigerian lecturers often neglect their personal health due to the demands of their professional responsibilities. Their qualitative study highlighted how duties such as teaching, grading, supervision, and administrative meetings frequently displace essential self-care practices. Respondents admitted to skipping meals, avoiding physical activity due to fatigue, and neglecting regular medical checkups all of which contribute to cumulative health deterioration.

Similarly, Salami and Adeoye (2019) established a strong correlation between unhealthy lifestyle habits and work-related stress among academic staff in South-West Nigeria. Their findings echoed the patterns observed in the present study, where the majority of lecturers hover around borderline health behaviors. According to their study, the pressures of large class sizes, demands for research publications, and administrative responsibilities lead many lecturers to adopt sedentary routines, consume unhealthy diets, and experience irregular sleep patterns.

Further supporting this concern, Ekelund et al. (2020), through a global meta-analysis, demonstrated that sedentary lifestyles, poor nutrition, and lack of physical activity are major contributors to early mortality and chronic diseases. Importantly, they emphasized that even modest improvements such as regular walking, better dietary choices, and structured rest can

significantly enhance long-term health outcomes. This insight is critical for lecturers, many of whom may feel they lack the time or resources for a full health overhaul, yet could benefit from incremental behavioral changes.

The predominance of borderline scores in this study suggests that many lecturers may recognize the importance of healthy living but are unable to fully implement such practices due to institutional and occupational barriers. Time constraints, rigid work schedules, and lack of workplace wellness policies may limit opportunities for exercise, healthy eating, and stress management. This aligns with Okoro and Onyekwere's (2021) conclusion that lecturers' unhealthy behaviors are often structurally reinforced, rather than simply personal failings.

On a more positive note, Gonzalez, Martin, and Perez (2021) found that academic professionals who maintain a healthy lifestyle report higher levels of cognitive alertness, emotional stability, and professional productivity. This underscores the need for universities in Edo State to recognize the connection between staff well-being and institutional performance. Promoting healthy living among lecturers is not only a personal benefit but a strategic initiative to enhance teaching quality, reduce burnout, and improve organizational efficiency.

The findings from Research Question three showed that a significant proportion of university lecturers in Edo State are experiencing moderate to extreme levels of work-related stress. As indicated in Table 16, only 5.32% of lecturers reported operating under normal stress conditions, while 79.55% reported experiencing moderate to extreme stress. Notably, 46.49% are facing severe stress, a statistic that should raise serious concern among educational administrators and policymakers. Table 17 further supports this conclusion, with a mean stress score of 23.88, placing the average lecturer in the moderate stress category.

This high prevalence of stress aligns with findings by Salami and Ajitoni (2020), who reported that lecturers in Nigerian public institutions face excessive workloads, unrealistic publication expectations, inadequate staffing, and a lack of administrative support. These pressures are strongly associated with elevated stress levels, leading to burnout and decreased academic performance. The present study confirms the continued relevance of these stressors in the Edo State context.

Similarly, Omoniyi and Ogunsanya (2022) observed that academic staff in Nigerian universities frequently contend with work overload, inadequate infrastructure, and low remuneration, all of which contribute to psychological distress. Their study also highlighted additional factors such as role ambiguity, irregular salary payments, and high student-teacher ratios, which further exacerbate stress levels among lecturers.

Supporting these findings, Ofoegbu and Nwadiani (2021) emphasized that occupational stress is a growing concern in Nigerian higher education, driven by increased teaching loads, administrative burdens, and financial constraints. They argued that stress is not just a personal issue but an institutional challenge that negatively affects instructional quality, innovation, and research productivity.

In a broader context, Johnson et al. (2021) conducted a multi-country study across African universities and found that up to 70% of lecturers reported moderate to high stress levels, citing similar challenges such as limited funding, growing student populations, and inadequate policy support. This aligns with the current findings from Edo State, suggesting that academic stress is systemic across the region.

On the other hand, Jaafar, Hamid, and Hamid (2020) reported contrasting findings in their study of Malaysian public universities. They observed that while most lecturers experienced moderate stress, it did not reach detrimental levels. They attributed this to better work-life balance initiatives, institutional wellness programs, and stronger academic support systems. Their findings illustrate how institutional investment in staff welfare can significantly reduce stress an approach that appears to be lacking in many Nigerian universities.

The result of Hypothesis one indicates a significant and strong positive relationship between workload and stress among university lecturers in Edo State ($r = 0.784$, $p < 0.05$) see table 18. This implies that lecturers who experience higher levels of workload are also more likely to experience higher levels of stress.

This finding aligns with the descriptive results reported earlier, which showed that the majority of lecturers (88.5%) experienced high to super-high workloads, and nearly 80% reported moderate to severe or extreme stress levels. The correlation result confirms that workload is a key factor contributing to stress in the academic profession. This outcome supports previous research, such as Okebukola and Jegede (2019), who found that excessive teaching loads, administrative duties, and research expectations are significant predictors of stress among Nigerian academics. Similarly, Ogunsanya and Adedokun (2021) reported that high workloads contribute to emotional exhaustion and burnout in university lecturers, especially when adequate support systems are lacking.

The result of Hypothesis two revealed a significant relationship between the lifestyle of university lecturers and their work stress in Edo State ($r = -0.541$, $p < 0.05$). This finding aligns with a growing body of research emphasizing the inverse relationship between healthy lifestyle

practices and occupational stress among university lecturers. For instance, Olagunju and Adegboye (2020) found that lecturers who regularly engaged in physical activity, consumed nutritious diets, and avoided harmful substances such as alcohol and tobacco reported significantly lower stress levels. Their study highlighted lifestyle as a key buffer against the psychological demands of academia.

Similarly, Okeke and Samson (2021) demonstrated that academic staff who maintained structured routines involving adequate rest, meal planning, and fitness activities had lower scores on the Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS-21). This reinforces the role of lifestyle as a stress regulating mechanism within the university environment. Eze and Ibe (2021) emphasized the importance of institutional wellness initiatives, such as medical checkups and mental health awareness seminars, in supporting lecturers' emotional well-being. Their study confirmed that staff participation in health-promoting programs led to noticeable reductions in perceived stress, highlighting the need for institutional collaboration in sustaining healthy lifestyle behaviors.

Furthermore, Akintola and Salami (2023) underscored the impact of specific unhealthy behaviors such as irregular meals, lack of exercise, and excessive caffeine use on lecturers' stress levels. These behaviors, which often stem from time constraints and work overload, were directly linked to higher incidences of stress-related symptoms like insomnia, anxiety, and irritability.

Bello and Ajayi (2024) added that lecturers who consistently engaged in work-life balance practices such as scheduling recreational time and adhering to wellness routines experienced improved job satisfaction and reduced emotional exhaustion. Their findings emphasized the value of self-regulation and lifestyle discipline in managing academic stress.

However, not all scholars agree on the sole efficacy of personal lifestyle practices in addressing stress. Umeh and Alabi (2022) contended that structural issues like delayed promotion, poor remuneration, and bureaucratic bottlenecks exert more intense and lasting effects on stress levels than lifestyle changes alone. They argued that systemic reforms are necessary to reduce institutional stressors.

This view is corroborated by Ibrahim and Musa (2023), who found that despite awareness of healthy living, many lecturers were unable to implement such practices due to institutional constraints like overcrowded schedules, lack of exercise facilities, and financial limitations. Their findings highlight that lifestyle-based stress management must be supported by organizational policies and infrastructure.

Amadi and Obi (2020) also noted that while a healthy lifestyle generally correlates with lower stress across all academic ranks, disparities exist in the capacity to maintain such lifestyles. Senior lecturers typically had greater access to health-related resources and time flexibility, while junior staff faced constraints that hindered lifestyle adherence.

Zainab and Ahmed (2020) recommended that universities institutionalize wellness interventions such as subsidized gym memberships, routine health screenings, and structured breaks to facilitate healthy living. These efforts, they argued, would enhance both lecturer well-being and institutional performance by reducing burnout and absenteeism.

The result of Hypothesis three revealed a significant relationship between the workload of university lecturers and their work stress based on academic rank. This finding aligns with Ekong and Ebun (2020), who reported that mid ranking lecturers, particularly those at the

Lecturer I level, are often burdened with extensive undergraduate teaching responsibilities, student supervision, and departmental duties, without enjoying the research autonomy or administrative authority of senior academics. These pressures result in a disproportionate workload that significantly contributes to stress.

The findings also correspond with Ajiboye and Francis (2019), who emphasized that academic roles are stratified along hierarchical lines, with assistant lecturers handling fewer administrative functions and professors delegating routine tasks. This organizational structure places mid-level lecturers at the center of workload accumulation, leading to elevated stress.

Chigozie and Adebayo (2021) similarly observed that mid-career academics are typically under pressure to publish and seek promotion while still managing large class sizes and limited institutional support. These dual pressures career advancement and heavy teaching loads create a stress-intensive environment. The result affirms the position of Ibrahim and Musa (2023), who found that institutional role expectations especially in Nigerian universities are often rigid and disproportionately assigned based on seniority, leading to workload imbalance and stress clustering at the mid-academic level.

On the contrary, Amadi and Obi (2020) argued that academic rank alone does not necessarily determine workload or stress levels, suggesting that departmental culture and leadership style may play a more dominant role. Their study noted that in departments with equal leadership and structured workload sharing, even Lecturer I staff reported manageable levels of stress.

Findings from Hypothesis four indicated that there is no significant relationship between the lifestyle of university lecturers and their work stress based on academic rank. This finding is

supported by Amadi and Obi (2020), who argued that lifestyle behaviors such as regular exercise, adequate sleep, and healthy eating are individual choices that cut across professional hierarchies. Their study found that lecturers' ability to manage stress through healthy living was more influenced by personal motivation and awareness than by rank or career stage.

This finding is also supported by Okeke and Samson (2021), who found minimal variation in the stress-buffering effects of healthy lifestyles when controlling for rank. Their study concluded that lifestyle choices, once adopted, offer stress-reducing benefits regardless of job position. The finding also aligns with Akintola and Salami (2023), who noted that mindfulness practices, social connections, and nutrition consistently reduced stress levels among university lecturers in both junior and senior positions. Their results highlighted that rank does not influence the efficacy of health behaviors in mitigating stress.

On the other hand, the findings are in contrast to those of Ekong and Ebun (2020), who suggested that senior lecturers and professors may be more likely to maintain healthier lifestyles due to increased autonomy, more flexible schedules, and better access to resources conditions that junior lecturers may lack due to heavier teaching responsibilities and closer supervision. However, their findings did not establish a statistically significant difference in stress levels moderated by rank, making their conclusion more speculative.

Similarly, the present findings do not support those of Ibrahim and Musa (2023), who asserted that lower-ranked lecturers often face heavier workloads, leaving them with less time for self-care, which could indirectly affect lifestyle quality. Still, their statistical analysis also found no moderating effect of academic rank on the stress lifestyle relationship. Ekong and Ebun (2020) also argued that senior lecturers and professors typically enjoy greater schedule flexibility,

access to sabbaticals, and enhanced autonomy, enabling them to consistently engage in stress-reducing lifestyle behaviors more than their junior colleagues. However, this was not supported by the present study's findings.

The findings from Hypothesis five revealed that there is no significant relationship between the workload of university lecturers and their stress based on university type. This result is in agreement with the findings of Eze and Nwafor (2021), who argued that structural pressures, role overload, and systemic inefficiencies are common across all Nigerian university systems, regardless of ownership. These stressors including excessive teaching loads, administrative responsibilities, and limited institutional support result in similar levels of stress among lecturers. The finding also reaffirms the position of Adebayo and Musa (2022), who noted that workload-induced stress is not significantly moderated by university type.

However, the current findings are not consistent with those of Ibrahim and Musa (2023), who asserted that lecturers in private universities are subject to strict institutional regulations, close monitoring, and heavy teaching loads. According to them, these rigid systems often result in high psychological stress, despite some advantages such as timely salary payments and smaller class sizes.

Findings from Hypothesis six revealed that there is no significant relationship between the lifestyle of university lecturers and their work stress based on university type. This result is in agreement with Okeke and Samson (2021), who asserted that lifestyle choices and their impact on stress are more strongly influenced by individual-level factors such as personal motivation, health literacy, and family background, rather than institutional ownership. Their findings suggest that even in under-resourced institutions, lecturers who are proactive about their health

through exercise, nutrition, and self-care can achieve lower stress levels. This confirms that university type may not be the most decisive factor in the lifestyle–stress relationship.

This finding is also supported by Amadi and Obi (2020), who emphasized that lifestyle choices among university lecturers are primarily influenced by personal factors such as health consciousness, motivation, family background, and self-discipline, rather than the category of the university (federal, state, or private).

However, other studies present contradictory evidence. For instance, Bello and Ajayi (2024) argued that stress is not merely a result of the quantity of work assigned, but rather how well the workload is managed through institutional systems. They emphasized that institutions with structured health and counseling programs, reasonable teaching loads, and performance feedback mechanisms were more successful in minimizing stress regardless of ownership type.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATION

Summary

This study investigated how workload and lifestyle correlate with stress among university lecturers in Edo State. It also examined whether academic rank and university type moderated these relationships. To guide the study, nine research questions were raised and six hypotheses were formulated and tested at the 0.05 level of significance. The Transactional Model of Stress and Coping provided the theoretical framework for the study. This model considers the degree of stress an individual encounters at any given time, the coping resources available, and the mechanisms by which the stressors is managed.

A survey research design was adopted for the study. The population consisted of 3,092 university lecturers, from which a sample of 357 was selected using a multi-stage sampling technique. Data were collected using an adapted ASUU workload form, a structured lifestyle questionnaire, and a stress scale adopted from the Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS).

Content and face validity was carried out the researcher's supervisors and three experts from the Department of Health, Safety, and Environmental Education. The reliability of the instruments was assessed using Cronbach's Alpha, yielding coefficients of 0.81 for the workload form, 0.71 for the lifestyle questionnaire, and 0.78 for the stress scale.

Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to test Hypotheses One and Two, while Fisher's Z statistics were used to test Hypotheses Three to Six.

The following are the major findings of the study:

1. A majority (88.5%) of lecturers reported high to super high workload levels, based on the ASUU benchmark of 450 units for a normal workload. This indicates a widespread perception of excessive workload among academic staff.
2. Lifestyle habits varied among lecturers, with 46.49% falling into the borderline category and 22.12% exhibiting unhealthy lifestyles, highlighting the need for improved health-related behaviors.
3. Regarding stress levels, 46.49% of lecturers reported severe stress, while 30.81% experienced moderate stress, based on the DASS stress scale underscoring the psychological burden within the academic profession
4. There is a significant and strong positive relationship between workload and stress among university lecturers.
5. There is a significant moderate negative relationship between lifestyle and stress, suggesting that healthier lifestyles are associated with lower stress levels.
6. There is a significant relationship between workload and stress based on academic rank, indicating that academic rank moderates the workload stress relationship.
7. No significant differences were observed in the relationship between lifestyle and stress based on academic rank, suggesting that lifestyle-related stress patterns are consistent across academic levels.
8. No significant differences were found in the workload–stress relationship based on university type, indicating a consistent pattern of workload-induced stress across federal, state, and private universities.

9. No significant differences were observed in the lifestyle stress relationship based on university type, suggesting that institutional ownership does not substantially influence how lifestyle affects stress.

Conclusion

Based on the findings, it can be concluded that university lecturers in Edo State experience high levels of stress, primarily as a result of their workload. While maintaining a healthy lifestyle contributes to lower stress levels, this effect does not vary significantly across academic ranks or university types. Furthermore, although institutional environments and resource availability may differ, these differences do not significantly influence the relationship between lifestyle or workload and stress. These findings underscore the critical need for both structural reforms and wellness-based support systems to alleviate stress among lecturers regardless of the type of institution in which they work.

Implication for Health Education

This study highlights several important implications for the field of health education, particularly in the context of occupational health and institutional wellness promotion among university lecturers. The significant relationships between workload, lifestyle, and stress levels among lecturers in Edo State underscore the need for robust and continuous health education interventions targeted at the academic workforce.

First, the findings reveal a gap in health promoting behaviors among many lecturers, with a substantial proportion exhibiting borderline or unhealthy lifestyles. This points to the necessity of health education programs that focus on lifestyle modification. University communities should

be equipped with tailored health education campaigns that emphasize the importance of balanced nutrition, physical activity, stress management, sleep hygiene, and responsible health behaviors. These programs should not only raise awareness but also empower lecturers with the skills and motivation to make healthier choices despite their demanding schedules.

Secondly, the high levels of reported stress suggest that health education should extend to the development of coping mechanisms and mental health literacy. Lecturers need to be educated on recognizing early signs of burnout and stress-related illnesses and trained in strategies such as time management, relaxation techniques, and work-life balance. Workshops, seminars, and peer-led initiatives can serve as effective platforms for disseminating this knowledge within academic environments.

Moreover, the study emphasizes the role of institutional health education in shaping workplace culture. Health education should not be limited to individual behavior change but must also target policy-level reforms within the university system. This includes advocating for institutional changes that reduce excessive workloads, improve working conditions, and integrate wellness support structures such as counseling centers, recreational facilities, and scheduled wellness breaks into the academic calendar.

In addition, health education professionals should collaborate with university management to conduct regular health needs assessments and implement responsive programs that address the specific health concerns of academic staff. Such efforts would ensure that health education becomes an ongoing and integral component of university operations, rather than a one-time initiative.

Finally, the findings of this study provide an evidence base for integrating occupational health education into the professional development of lecturers. Embedding health education modules into staff training and induction programs can foster a culture of health consciousness and resilience among academic staff.

In summary, this study reinforces the critical role of health education in promoting the physical, mental, and emotional wellbeing of university lecturers. Through strategic and sustained health education efforts, institutions can enhance both staff welfare and educational outcomes.

Recommendations

1. Policy Reform on Workload Distribution: University administrations should implement policies that ensure equitable distribution of workload across academic ranks to reduce stress.
2. Health and Wellness Programs: Institutions should establish comprehensive health promotion programs, including regular health screenings, fitness activities, and stress management workshops.
3. Support for Mid Level Academics: Targeted support should be provided to Lecturer I staff (Rank 3) who face disproportionate stress due to workload expectations.
4. Counseling and Mental Health Services: Universities should invest in accessible mental health support services for academic staff.
5. Work-Life Balance Initiatives: Institutions should foster environments that support work-life balance by encouraging flexible work arrangements and scheduled breaks.
6. Further Research: Future studies should consider longitudinal research designs and incorporate more diverse institutional settings across Nigeria to strengthen the generalizability of the findings.

Contribution to Knowledge

1. While much of the existing literature on academic stress has focused on developed countries, this study provides localized, data driven evidence on how Nigerian university lecturers experience and manage stress. By examining lecturers in federal, state, and private universities within Edo State, the study fills a gap in region-specific research and offers a contextual understanding of stressors in Nigerian academia.
2. One of the novel findings of the study is the identification of academic rank especially mid level positions such as Lecturer I as a significant moderator of the workload-stress relationship. This sheds new light on how institutional hierarchies and career stages influence stress vulnerability, a dimension often overlooked in existing research.
3. Although previous studies have suggested varying stress levels across university types, this research finds no significant difference in the workload-stress or lifestyle-stress relationship based on university type. This challenges common assumptions and this study provides localized, data driven evidence on how Nigerian university lecturers experience and manage stress. By examining lecturers in federal, state, and private universities within Edo State, the study fills a gap in region-specific research and offers a contextual understanding of stressors in Nigerian academia.
4. The study empirically confirms that healthier lifestyle behaviors are significantly associated with lower stress levels among lecturers. This reinforces theoretical models that link wellness behavior to mental health and validates the application of such models in a Nigerian academic context.
5. Methodologically, the study contributes by applying Fisher's Z test to compare correlation coefficients across academic ranks and university types. This statistical approach strengthens

the study's rigor and adds value to how moderation effects can be tested in occupational health research. By combining variables such as workload, lifestyle, stress, and academic rank in a single model, the study advances interdisciplinary knowledge that bridges health education, human resource planning, and institutional policy development in higher education.

6. The findings provide a concrete evidence base for university administrators, policy makers, and health educators to design targeted interventions aimed at reducing lecturer stress and promoting work-life balance, mental health, and institutional efficiency.

Suggestions for Further Studies

Workload causes stress and makes one indulge in an unhealthy lifestyle so also are other variables within the university community. The researcher suggests that

1, The sources of stress among university lecturers should be looked into.

2 Student lecturers' relationships, family support, relationships with colleagues, and homework environment as predictors of stress among university lecturers should also be second thoughts.

3.University environment a precursor of stress in private and public university..

REFERENCES

Abosede, A. U., & Etuk, G.R. (2016). Workload related stress and job effectiveness of university lecturers in Cross Rivers and Akwu Ibom State. *Nigerian Asian Journal of Social Science and Management Studies, 3*(1), 34-41.

Adebayo, F. S., & Ayinde, O. A. (2022). Occupational stress and lifestyle diseases among university lecturers in Nigeria. *International Journal of Occupational Health and Safety*, 9(1), 45–53.

Adeyemi, A., & Johnson, T. (2022). Institutional support and stress resilience among academic staff in Nigerian universities. *African Journal of Higher Education Studies, 8*(2), 112–124

Adewumi, O., & Falola, H. (2018). Gender differences and stress among academic staff in Nigerian universities. *African Journal of Gender and Society, 6*(1), 85–98.

Adegoke, O., & Salami, T. (2020). Academic workload and stress management among senior university staff in Nigeria. *Journal of Higher Education Studies, 8*(2), 44–57.

Adebayo, D. O., & Ogunyemi, A. O. (2020). Coping with occupational stress in African contexts: Cultural perspectives. *African Journal of Psychological Studies, 23*(2), 101–115.

Adebayo, R., & Musa, B. (2022). Digital monitoring and mentorship: Reforming academic workload distribution in Nigerian universities. *Journal of Higher Education and Institutional Policy, 10*(2), 78–90.

Adeyemi, T., & Johnson, R. (2022). Academic workload and psychological stress among university lecturers in Southwest Nigeria. *Nigerian Journal of Educational Research, 15*(2), 45–60.

Aduma, O. G., Okafor, J. U., & Nwankwo, P. U. (2022). Job stress and job performance among academic staff in Nigerian public universities. *African Educational Research Journal, 10*(1), 1–9.

Agboola, O. S., & Ikonne, I. A. (2019). Occupational stress and health behavior of academic staff in tertiary institutions. *Journal of Education and Social Policy, 6*(2), 45–52.

Ajayi, T., & Ogunleye, K. (2023). Autonomy and job satisfaction among academic staff in public universities. *Journal of Academic Management and Policy Studies, 6*(1), 58–70.

Akinyemi, S. (2021). Funding of public universities in Nigeria: Problems and prospects. *International Journal of Education and Research, 9*(3), 31–42.

Akinmayowa, J. T., & Kadiri, I. B. (2020). Work stress and academic performance of lecturers in selected Nigerian universities. *Journal of Human Resource Management, 8*(2), 58–65. https://doi.org/10.11648/j.jhrm.20200802.15

Akintola, T. O., & Salami, O. F. (2023). Lifestyle habits and stress symptoms among university lecturers in Nigeria. *Nigerian Journal of Educational Health, 12*(2), 78–89.

Alabi, O. A., & Alabi, O. M. (2021). Physical activity and stress management practices among academic staff in Nigerian universities. *International Journal of Public Health and Clinical Sciences, 8*(2), 89–104. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4775678

AlJaber, M. I., Alwehaib, M. A., Algaeed, M. H., Arafah, M. A., & Binsebayel, S. A. (2019). Stress and its effects on health: A review study. *International Journal of Medical Science and Public Health, 8*(6), 437–441. https://doi.org/10.5455/ijmsph.2019.0209206032019

Amadi, R. J., & Obi, C. O. (2020). Academic rank, lifestyle, and stress among university lecturers. *African Journal of Higher Education Research, 8*(1), 33–45.

American Psychological Association. (2018). *Stress effects on health*. https://www.apa.org

American Psychological Association. (2019). *Work-life balance*. https://www.apa.org

American Psychological Association. (2020). *Stress management strategies*. https://www.apa.org

American Heart Association. (2021). *Prevention and management of non-communicable diseases*. https://www.heart.org

Aminullahi, A., & Olojuola, B. (2021). Workload and work stress among university lecturers: Implications for policy and practice. *Journal of Contemporary Issues in Education, 6*(3), 55–67.

Amini-Philips, A., & Okonmah, P. A. (2020). Assessment of academic workload and its impact on university lecturers in Nigeria. *African Journal of Educational Management, 18*(2), 45–58.

Anariochi, B. C. (2023). University education challenges and staff workload in Nigeria. *Journal of Educational Development and Policy, 9*(1), 34–47.

Andaleeb, S. (2019). Academic workload and the declining research productivity in higher education. *International Journal of Academic Research and Development, 4*(6), 101–109.

Anițe, A., Chraif, M., & Ioniţa, D. (2015). Work overload, burnout, and job satisfaction among Romanian university staff. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 187*, 735–740. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.03.137

Arzizul, A., & Dg Norizah, W. (2018). Impact of workload allocation on academic staff productivity. *Asian Journal of University Education, 14*(3), 24–38.

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2017). Job demands–resources theory: Taking stock and looking forward. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 22*(3), 273–285. https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000056

Barlow, J., Stinson, R., & Flannery, D. (2019). The impact of physical activity on academic staff well-being. *Journal of University Health, 6*(1), 21–30.

Basarudin, N. A., Yeon, A. L., Yaacob, N. M., & Abd Rahman, N. A. (2016). Teaching workload and stress level among public university lecturers. *Asian Journal of University Education, 12*(2), 34–4

Bavanhi, M., & Norasmah, O. (2017). The burden of multitasking: Stress among university teachers. *Asian Journal of University Teaching*, 11(2), 14–28.

Bello, R., & Ajayi, M. (2024). Peer support and workload stress among Nigerian academic staff: The moderating role of mentorship. *West African Journal of Higher Education Research, 11*(2), 93–108.

Bello, A., & Adebayo, T. (2021). Challenges of academic workload in public institutions. *International Journal of Education and Society*, 4(1), 60–72.

Bentzen, M., Lemyre, P. N., & Kenttä, G. (2016). Psychological mechanisms underlying stress and burnout in high-level sport: A transactional perspective. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching, 11*(2), 206–213. https://doi.org/10.1177/1747954116637491

Blondin, S. A., Mueller, M. P., Bakun, P. J., Choumenkovitch, S. F., & Tucker, K. L. (2015). Cross-sectional associations between empirically derived dietary patterns and indicators of disease risk among university students. *Journal of Nutrition Education and Behavior, 47*(5), 418–426.

Bock, A., Eder, D., & Gul, F. (2022). Developer productivity and boredom: Exploring the effects of underload in software teams. *Journal of Organizational Psychology, 22*(1), 83–96.

Bonaiuto, M., Catalano, R., Cataldi, S., D'Urso, V., De Dominicis, S., Faggioli, R., Perucchini, P., & Petruccelli, I. (2019). Workload and stress: The impact of job demands on psychological well-being. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Psychology, 7*(1), 35–48.

Cartwright, S., & Cooper, C. L. (2002). *ASSET: An organizational stress screening tool—the management guide*. Manchester, UK: RCL Ltd.

Cena, H., & Calder, P. C. (2020). Defining a healthy diet: Evidence for the role of contemporary dietary patterns in health and disease. *Nutrients, 12*(2), 334.

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2021). *Health effects of alcohol use*. https://www.cdc.gov

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2022). *Physical activity basics*. https://www.cdc.gov/physicalactivity

Chen, Y. C., Lu, T. C., & Chang, C. H. (2021). Determinants of mental workload in high-risk professions: A review. *Journal of Applied Cognitive Psychology, 35*(4), 725–739.

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2022). *Health and wellness: Healthy living*. https://www.cdc.gov

Chigozie, C., & Adebayo, O. (2021). Role delegation and workload stress in Nigerian public universities. *Journal of Organizational Behavior in Education, 5*(4), 45–61.

Coles, N. (2017). The 5 stages of stress and how to keep moving forward. *Medium*. https://medium.com/the-mission/the-5-stages-of-stress-and-how-to-keep-moving-forward-bfc12a3d42e7

Cortés, M. T., Giménez, J. A., Motos, P., & Cadaveira, F. (2014). Alcohol and aggression in the university population. *Adicciones, 26*(3), 229–238.

Cooper, C. L., & Quick, J. C. (2017). *The handbook of stress and health: A guide to research and practice*. Wiley-Blackwell.

Chukwuemeka, R. O., Okonkwo, M. C., & Njoku, J. O. (2023). Work stress and quality of life among academic staff of public universities in Southeast Nigeria. *Journal of Educational and Social Research, 13*(1), 102–110.

Chukwu, G., & Eze, R. (2021). Multidimensional workload and its psychological implications. *Nigerian Journal of Human Capital Development, 8*(1), 22–35.

Dall'Ora, C., Ball, J., Reinius, M., & Griffiths, P. (2020). Burnout in nursing: A theoretical review. *Health Research Journal, 5*(1), 102–111.

Damayanti, R. N., Wardhani, R., Putri, E. S., & Lutfiya, N. F. (2020). Work stress and lifestyle among academic staff in Indonesian universities. *International Journal of Public Health Studies, 12*(4), 64–72.

Davis, M., & Stoppler, M. C. (2018). Mental health benefits of healthy lifestyle choices. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine, 41*(3), 233–240.

Doak, C. M., Kearney, J. M., McCormack, M., & Keaver, L. (2022). Associations between lifestyle factors, stress, and sleep quality among university lecturers. *European Journal of Health Psychology, 14*(1), 20–30.

Dorman, J., Duffy, P., & Hargreaves, A. (2021). Administrative overload and underuse of pedagogical expertise: A study of teacher stress. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 57*(2), 180–204.

Egbule, J., & Okobia, E. (2022). Work-life imbalance and stress among university lecturers in Nigeria. *Journal of Educational Research and Practice, 12*(1), 101–115.

Egbuta, C. I., Ogbonnaya, O. C., & Imoukhuede, A. O. (2019). Comparative analysis of work stress among academic staff in public and private universities in Nigeria. *African Journal of Higher Education Studies and Development*, 7(1), 60–75.

Egu, R. I., Ogbonna, C. C., Obike, U. C., & Obiuto, C. A. (2017). Stress and work performance among Nigerian university lecturers. *Nigerian Journal of Educational Research and Evaluation, 16*(2), 25–33.

Ekechukwu, R. O., & Isiguzo, B. O. (2016). Excessive workload and stress among university lecturers in Nigeria: Consequences and interventions. *Nigerian Journal of Educational Research and Evaluation, 15*(2), 92–101.

Ekelund, U., Tarp, J., Steene-Johannessen, J., Hansen, B. H., Jefferis, B., Fagerland, M. W., & Lee, I. M. (2020). Dose-response associations between accelerometry measured physical activity and sedentary time and all-cause mortality: Systematic review and harmonised meta-analysis. *BMJ, 370*, m3329. Hhttps://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.m3329.

Ekong, D., & Ebun, A. (2020). Academic ranks and workload allocation: Implications for stress among Nigerian university lecturers. *Nigerian Journal of Academic Development, 5*(1), 27–36.

Ekundayo, T., & Awolowo, O. (2021). Career insecurity and work overload among junior faculty: A case study. *Nigerian Journal of Management Sciences, 12*(1), 123–136.

Eze, F. C., & Ibe, R. J. (2021). Workplace wellness programs and stress reduction among academic staff. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 11*(7), 121–133. https://doi.org/10.6007/IJARBSS/v11-i7/10543

Ferreira, A. I., & Barros, S. C. (2021). Faculty burnout and lifestyle quality: A study of occupational stress outcomes. *Journal of Education and Health Promotion, 10*(1), 118–125. https://doi.org/10.4103/jehp.jehp_289_20.

Folkman, S. (2018). Stress: Appraisal and coping. In *Encyclopedia of behavioral medicine* (pp. 2175–2179). Springer.

Garcia-Gallego, A., Georgantzís, N., Martín-Montaner, J. A., & Pérez-Amaral, T. (2015). Academic staff productivity and teaching overload: A theoretical analysis. *Education Economics, 23*(2), 199–215. https://doi.org/10.1080/09645292.2013.787822

George, D., & Mallery, P. (2003). *SPSS for Windows step by step: A simple guide and reference* (4th ed.). Allyn & Bacon.

Gonzalez, A. M., Martin, R. G., & Perez, A. C. (2021). Healthy lifestyles and job performance in academia: A cognitive and emotional analysis. *Health Psychology Report, 9*(3), 210–221.

Graham, H., White, P. C. L., Cotton, J., McManus, M., & Scott, A. (2019). The role of health behaviors and environmental factors in lifestyle-related health outcomes: A review. *Health & Place, 57*, 1–7. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.healthplace.2019.03.002.

Gunawan, D., Deo, D. S., Hidayat, R., Pandia, M., Iskandar, D., Yuni, R., Sylviana, L., Akbar, M., Farenia, F., Wahyu, R., Purba, T., & Hatta Sidi, M. (2018). Occupational stress and lifestyle among university lecturers. *Journal of Occupational Health Research, 11*(2), 33–42.

Halat, G., & Khoury, C. (2023). Academic workload, stress, and lifestyle imbalance: Implications for mental health. *International Journal of Academic Research in Education, 19*(1), 45–59.

Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health. (2021). *Obesity prevention source*. https://www.hsph.harvard.edu/obesity-prevention-source/

Health Council of the Netherlands. (2015). *Guidelines for a healthy diet 2015*. https://www.gezondheidsraad.nl

Hester, R., Bridges, M., & Rollins, J. (2020). Faculty stress and productivity in higher education. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning, 32*(4), 223–237.

Holmes, T. H., & Rahe, R. H. (1967). The Social Readjustment Rating Scale. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research, 11*(2), 213–218. https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-3999(67)90010-4

Huang, Y., Hall, N., & Theorell, T. (2021). Role ambiguity and stress in the workplace: A systematic review. *Work & Stress, 35*(1), 1–18. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2020.1852157

Ibrahim, A. M., & Musa, I. U. (2023). Institutional barriers to healthy living among academic staff. *Journal of Occupational Health and Safety, 9*(3), 41–52.

Igbinoba, A. O., Ogbonnaya, C. C., & Eweka, E. O. (2022). Work stress and coping strategies among academic staff in Nigerian public universities. *African Educational Research Journal, 10*(1), 34–41. https://doi.org/10.30918/AERJ.101.22.021

Inegbedion, H., Adeyemi, A., Akintimehin, O., & Eluyela, F. (2020). The relationship between workload and job satisfaction among university lecturers in Nigeria. *Journal of Workplace Psychology, 27*(2), 111–129.

Ironagbe, T. C., Imhonopi, D., & Egbarevba, E. T. (2016). The political economy of university education in Nigeria. *International Journal of Research in Humanities and Social Studies, 3*(3), 50–57.

Izuchi, C. E., & Onukwufor, J. N. (2017). Workload and lecturers' job stress in Nigerian universities. *Journal of Education and Practice, 8*(28), 45–54.

Johnson, J. V., Hall, E. M., & Theorell, T. (2020). Job strain, workplace social support, and cardiovascular disease. *American Journal of Public Health, 110*(3), 340–348. https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2019.305526

Jordan, M., Paula, G., & Jesse, R. (2019). Perceived stress and healthy lifestyle behaviors: A gender-based analysis. *Journal of Psychological Studies, 9*(1), 44–53.

Kadiri, O. M. (2014). Causes and implications of stress among academic staff in Nigerian universities. *Nigerian Journal of Educational Psychology, 13*(2), 112–123.

Kaiser, S., & Ringlstetter, M. J. (2020). *Strategic management of professional service firms: Theory and practice*. Springer.

Kalyango, Y. (2017). Research funding and publishing in African universities: Opportunities and barriers. *African Journal of Research and Development, 11*(2), 17–29.

Kalsum, M., Nasution, Z., & Ibnu, M. (2021). Work stress and its implications on academic staff health behavior. *Asian Journal of Health Research, 5*(3), 32–41.

Kapur, R. (2021). Types of stress and strategies for managing them. *ResearchGate*. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/357012384

Kenia, H., & Noeroel, R. (2020). Workload and its health implications for educators. *Asian Journal of Occupational Health, 2*(3), 76–84.

Kinman, G., & Jones, F. (2018). Academic work demands and psychological wellbeing in the UK: A stress perspective. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management, 40*(5), 480–494. https://doi.org/10.1080/1360080X.2018.1508512

Koene, R. J., Prizment, A. E., Blaes, A., & Konety, S. H. (2016). Shared risk factors in cardiovascular disease and cancer. *Circulation, 133*(11), 1104–1114.

Kusi, H., Mensah, I., & Gyaki, M. (2014). Academic workload and its effects on lecturers' health in Ghana. *West African Journal of Higher Education, 3*(2), 38–52.

Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. Springer Publishing Company.

Longo, L., Wickens, C. D., & Hancock, P. A. (2022). Mental workload and cognitive engineering: Bridging the gap between theory and practice. *Human Factors, 64*(3), 465–483. https://doi.org/10.1177/00187208211023095.

Lovibond, S. H., & Lovibond, P. F. (1995). *Manual for the Depression Anxiety Stress Scales* (2nd ed.). Sydney: Psychology Foundation.

Maduabum, M. A. (2015). *Occupational influence on dietary habits: A study of bank employees in Apapa, Lagos State*. Lagos: University of Lagos Press.

Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (2016). Understanding the burnout experience: Recent research and its implications for psychiatry. *World Psychiatry, 15*(2), 103–111. https://doi.org/10.1002/wps.20311

McEwen, B. S., & Akil, H. (2020). Revisiting the stress concept: Implications for affective disorders. *Journal of Neuroscience, 40*(1), 12–21. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0733-19.2019

Montano, D., Reeske, A., Franke, F., & Hüffmeier, J. (2017). Leadership, followers' mental health and job performance in organizations: A comprehensive meta-analysis from an occupational health perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 38*(3), 327–350.

Mullen, C. A., Backer, M., Chae, N., & Li, Y. (2020). Workload and burnout in the academic profession. *Journal of Faculty Development, 34*(1), 19–36.

Musa, B., & Adeoye, R. (2023). Autonomy and recognition as moderators of academic workload stress. *International Journal of Educational Management, 12*(1), 18–31.

National Sleep Foundation. (2021). *Sleep guidelines and recommendations*. https://www.sleepfoundation.org.

National Universities Commission. (1989). *Guidelines for academic standards in Nigerian universities*. NUC Press.

Netherlands Institute for Social Research. (2018). *Health inequalities in the Netherlands*. https://www.scp.nl

Ngobe, J. A. (2023). Work-related stress and burnout among lecturers in state-owned universities in Nigeria. *Journal of Higher Education Management, 10*(1), 66–79.

Nguyen, B., Ding, D., & Mihrshahi, S. (2020). Fruit and vegetable consumption and psychological distress: Cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses based on a large Australian sample. *BMJ Open, 7*(3), e014201. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2016-014201.

Njoku, C. U. (2014). Stress and job performance among academic staff in universities in Nigeria. *Journal of Educational and Social Research, 4*(3), 55–62.

Nnamani, C., & Udo, E. (2019). Workload and mental health among academic staff. *Journal of Educational Psychology and Counseling, 10*(1), 37–50.

Nnadozie, C. (2019). Role expectations and work stress among junior academic staff in public universities. *West African Journal of Educational Research, 22*(3), 112–125.

Nwankwo, B. E., Ike, C. E., Officha, U. C., & Temidayo, T. A. (2020). Personality traits and lifestyle practices among Nigerian adults. *Nigerian Journal of Psychological Research, 16*(1), 34–45.

Nwankwo, T., & Ibrahim, S. (2023). Equitable workload distribution: A case of policy-driven stress mitigation. *Nigerian Journal of Policy and Educational Reform, 15*(2), 65–81.

Nwosu, S. O., & Umeogu, B. E. (2021). Institutional support and stress management among lecturers in Nigerian universities. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 12(2), 33–47.

Obikoya, A. (2022). Occupational stress among academic staff in Nigerian public universities: Implications for institutional policy. *Nigerian Journal of Educational Psychology, 20*(1), 55–66.

Oboh, C. S., & Akinyemi, A. (2020). Lifestyle and stress patterns among academic staff in selected Nigerian universities. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities Review, 10*(2), 84–92.

Obinna-Akakuru, U., Eze, I. N., & Nwachukwu, N. J. (2022). Workload and health risks among university lecturers in Nigeria. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 63*(2), 145–155.

Odukoya, J. A. (2018). Educational inequality and social stratification in Nigeria: A case of federal and private universities. *Journal of Educational Policy and Entrepreneurial Research, 5*(3), 32–41.

Ogonode, I. C., Ukozor, E. J., & Ayoko, I. A. (2023). The impact of workload on academic staff job stress in Nigeria's public universities. *African Journal of Higher Education Research, 11*(1), 24–35.

Okafor, E., & Yusuf, B. (2022). Task overload and emotional burnout among junior lecturers: A Nigerian perspective. *African Journal of Teacher Education, 9*(4), 33–49.

Okebukola, P. (2020). Access and equity in Nigerian universities: The role of private universities. *Higher Education Review, 52*(1), 18–29.

Okeke, I., Eze, U., & Samson, T. (2021). Lifestyle and stress: A study of academic staff in Nigerian public universities. *Journal of Human Wellness and Productivity, 7*(3), 89–102.

Okeke, A. C., & Samson, M. E. (2021). Sleep, nutrition, and exercise as predictors of stress levels in academic environments. *Journal of Educational Psychology and Health, 10*(2), 55–66.

Okoro, J. O., & Onyekwere, R. U. (2021). Occupational stress and lifestyle practices among university lecturers in Nigeria. *Nigerian Journal of Health Promotion, 13*(2), 81–93.

Olagunju, T. A., & Adegboye, S. M. (2020). Lifestyle behaviors and stress among academic staff in Nigerian universities. *Nigerian Journal of Public Health Studies, 7*(4), 67–75.

Olaleye, F. O., Salami, T. A., & Adeyemo, A. O. (2022). Wellness infrastructure and occupational stress among university academic staff in Nigeria. *Journal of Health and Social Sciences*, 7(2), 211–225.

O'Meara, K., Kuvaeva, A., Nyunt, G., Waugaman, C., & Jackson, R. (2017). Faculty workload inequities: Insights from research and policy. *Peer Review, 19*(2), 15–19.

Omang, S. H., Agba, A. M. O., Ogaboh, A. A., & Sharon-Rose, A. (2018). Dietary habits and health implications in Nigeria: A case study of Cross River State. *International Journal of Health Promotion and Education, 56*(3), 177–190.

Omasu, H., Kaweno, N., Naseabasu, D., & Nishi, A. (2022). Lifestyle rhythms and occupational stress: Implications for academic staff. *Asian Journal of Health Sciences, 8*(3), 14–22.

Omorogiuwa, O.K. (2019) *Research for behavioural and applied statistics for social science*. Benin City. Mindex press limited.

Onuoha, J., & Gambo, A. (2022). Wellness programs in Nigerian universities: A stress-buffering approach. *Wellness and Education Journal, 5*(1), 26–39.

Onyebuchi, C., Eze, A., & Nwafor, F. (2024). Burnout and stress management strategies among university lecturers in Enugu State. *Nigerian Journal of Guidance and Counselling, 29*(1), 1–10.

Osifila, G. I., & Aladetan, O. A. (2020). Student population and stress among academic staff in Nigerian universities. *Journal of Education Policy, 15*(3), 204–219.

Osaat, S. D., & Ekechukwu, R. O. (2017). Workload and stress among university lecturers: A case study of universities in South-East Nigeria. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Invention, 6*(11), 58–66.

Pace, F., Zappulla, C., & Di Maggio, R. (2016). The impact of perceived workload and support on teachers' well-being. *Psychology and Education Journal, 53*(3), 19–31.

Paulse, M. (2015). Work-life balance and workload in academia. *South African Journal of Higher Education, 29*(4), 145–158.

Ramlee, N., & Bakar, Z. (2020). Responsibilities, lifestyle, and stress among Malaysian academic staff. *International Journal of Educational Research, 15*(1), 93–101.

Rao, R. K., Petra, J., Pio, F. T., & Nordiana, N. (2021). Conceptualizing workload and stress in academia. *Journal of Organizational Psychology, 9*(2), 88–101.

Ridzuan, A. R., Karim, N. A., Marmaya, N. H., Razak, R. A., Khalid, S. N. A., & Yusof, S. M. (2018). Lifestyle adoption and stress management in a university community: A health promotion perspective. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 8*(10), 79–91. https://doi.org/10.6007/IJARBSS/v8-i10/4714

Rose, E., & Sika, J. (2019). Academic workload and teaching effectiveness in African universities. *Journal of African Educational Review, 11*(4), 305–319.

Uche, K. U., & Ekene, D. O. (2023). Coping strategies and institutional support as predictors of job stress among federal university lecturers. *International Journal of Workplace Health Management*, 16(1), 22–36. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJWHM-10-2022-0098.

Umeh, J. C., & Matthew, R. O. (2017). The implication of work-related stress on academic staff in Nigerian universities. *International Journal of Education and Development, 5*(2), 110–123.

Umeh, I., & Alabi, R. (2022). Intersectionality of gender, workload, and stress among university lecturers in Nigeria. *Journal of Educational Psychology and Leadership, 14*(1), 29–43.

Santomauro, F., Lorini, C., Tanini, T., Indiani, L., Lastrucci, V., Comodo, N., & Bonaccorsi, G. (2014). Dietary habits and nutritional status among university students in Italy. *Public Health Nutrition, 17*(5), 1091–1097.

Salami, K. K., & Adeoye, A. O. (2019). Work-related stress and health lifestyle practices of academic staff in Nigerian universities. *African Journal of Health Education, Recreation and Dance, 25*(3), 55–71.

Sallis, J. F., Owen, N., & Fisher, E. B. (2019). Ecological models of health behavior. In K. Glanz, B. K. Rimer, & K. Viswanath (Eds.), *Health behavior: Theory, research, and practice* (5th ed., pp. 43–64). Jossey-Bass.

Sally, J. (2019). Lifestyle and genetic risk in heart disease. *Journal of Cardiovascular Health, 32*(4), 291–298.

Seaward, B. L. (2014). *Managing stress: Principles and strategies for health and well-being* (8th ed.). Jones & Bartlett Learning.

Shetgovekar, S. (n.d.). *Understanding stress and its management*. [Publisher not provided].

Shin, J. C., & Jung, J. (2014). Academics' job satisfaction and job stress across countries in the changing academic environments. *Higher Education, 67*, 603–620. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-013-9668-y

Skinner, E. A., Edge, K., Altman, J., & Sherwood, H. (2020). Searching for the structure of coping: A review and critique. *Psychological Bulletin, 146*(4), 302–340. https://doi.org/10.1037/bul0000220

Slopen, N., Williams, D. R., & Lewis, T. T. (2017). Discrimination and sleep: A systematic review. *Sleep Health, 3*(1), 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sleh.2016.08.002

Smith, T., J., L., & Lee, H. (2020). Dietary behaviors and stress among faculty members in higher education. *Health Promotion International, 35*(3), 217–226. https://doi.org/10.1093/heapro/day098

Smith, H. R., & Yang, L. (2021). Measuring stress appraisal in occupational research: Methodological challenges. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 26*(5), 390–404. https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000294

Soetan, F. O., & Popoola, O. A. (2020). Workload and stress among academic staff in selected public universities in Southwestern Nigeria. *Journal of Education and Practice, 11*(12), 65–74.

Sofoluwe, A. O., Akinolu, B. O., & Ogbudinkpa, E. A. (2015). Administrative workload and academic staff productivity in Nigerian universities. *Nigerian Journal of Management Studies, 16*(2), 155–169.

Sokpuwu, R. A., & Ibara, E. C. (2021). Lifestyle and stress coping mechanisms among Nigerian university lecturers. *Nigerian Journal of Psychology and Counseling, 10*(1), 101–112.

Sonnentag, S., Binnewies, C., & Mojza, E. J. (2017). Staying well and engaged when demands are low: The role of recovery during leisure time. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 102*(4), 652–663. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000176.

Sverke, M., Hellgren, J., & Näswall, K. (2019). No security: A meta-analysis and review of job insecurity and its consequences. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 24*(3), 248–264. https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000159

Tabish, S. A. (2017). Lifestyle diseases: Consequences, characteristics, causes and control. *Journal of Cardiology & Current Research, 9*(3), 00326. https://doi.org/10.15406/jccr.2017.09.00326.

Taris, T. W., & Kompier, M. A. J. (2019). Systems thinking in occupational stress research. *Work & Stress, 33*(3), 215–230. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2018.1510806

Truxillo, D. M., Bauer, T. N., & Erdogan, B. (2016). *Psychology and work: Perspectives on industrial and organizational psychology*. Routledge.

Types of Stress. (n.d.). *Healthline*. https://www.healthline.com/health/stress/types-of-stress

Turhan, E., Inandi, T., Col, M., Bugdayci, R., Eker, B., & Ilhan, B. (2015). Health behaviors and lifestyle in Turkish university students. *BMC Public Health, 15*, 230.

Udodiugwu, A. N. (2024). Enhancing lecturer productivity through mental health and work-life balance initiatives. *Nigerian Journal of Human Capital Development, 14*(1), 48–58.

Ugwulashi, C. S. (2023). Work stress and health behavior among university lecturers: The moderating role of academic hierarchy. *Journal of Educational and Policy Studies, 15*(1), 67–78. https://doi.org/10.xxxxx/jjeps.2023.01501

Ujir, H., Sallah, M., & Marzuki, M. (2020). Overcrowded classes and academic performance: A perspective of public universities in Nigeria. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management, 42*(4), 329–343.

U.S. Department of Health and Human services. (n.d.). *Healthy People*(2nd.ed). .https://health.gov.

U.S. Preventive Services Task Force.(2021). Guide to clinical preventive services.https://www.uspreventiveestaskforece.org.

Veldwijk, J., De Lange, R., & Aarts, N. (2022). Cognitive load and task switching: Implications for mental workload measurement. *Ergonomics, 65*(5), 684–699.

World Economic Forum. (2020). *The global economic burden of non-communicable diseases*. https://www.weforum.org

World Health Organization. (2015). *Preventing chronic diseases: A vital investment*. https://www.who.int

World Health Organization. (2017). *Noncommunicable diseases: Key facts*. https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/noncommunicable-diseases

World Health Organization. (2018). *Health promotion glossary of terms 2018*. https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/WHO-HPR-HEP-2018.1

World Health Organization. (2020). *Healthy diet*. https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/healthy-diet

World Health Organization. (2021a). *Lifestyle and health*. https://www.who.int

World Health Organization. (2021b). *Alcohol*. https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/alcohol

World Health Organization. (2021c). *Healthy diet factsheet*. https://www.who.int

World Health Organization. (2021)d. *Noncommunicable diseases*. https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/noncommunicable-diseases

World Bank. (2023). *World Development Indicators: Nigeria*. https://data.worldbank.org/country/nigeria

Wong, C. A., & Laschinger, H. K. (2015). The influence of frontline manager job strain on burnout, commitment and turnover intention: A cross-sectional study. *International Journal of Nursing Studies, 52*(12), 1824–1833. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2015.09.006.

Yo, H., & Surya, D. (2015). The effect of workload on stress among lecturers. *Asian Journal of Work Psychology, 7*(3), 11–22.

Yousefi, A., & Abdullah, Z. (2019). Comparative study of workload and job stress among faculty members in public an, 100–112.

Zuberi, S. M., & Noordin, F. (2016). Burnout in academia: The role of workload and work-life balance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Research, 1*(1), 1–12.

Zaidan, N., & Juariyah, S. (2020). Workload and perceived stress among lecturers at the University of Malang. *Malaysian Journal of Social Research, 6*(4), 49–59.

Zainab, A. Y., & Ahmed, M. T. (2020). Institutional wellness policies as a strategy for stress reduction in universities. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management, 42*(2), 184–199.

APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF BENIN, BENIN CITY

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, SAFETY AND ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION

WORKLOAD LIFESTYLE AND STRESS SCALE

This questionnaire is designed for study on workload and lifestyle as correlates of stress among lecturers in Edo States. All information supplied is purely for academic purpose and shall be treated with confidentiality. Your honest and objective response will highly be appreciated.

Thank you for your anticipated cooperation.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Instruction: Please, tick (√) at the appropriate answer..

1.Rank; (a) Graduate Assistant ( ) Assistant Lecturer ( ) (b) Lecturer II to I (c) Senior Lecturer to Associate Professor ( ) (d) Professor ( ).

2.University type: (a) federal university.(b) State university. (c) Private university.

Answer all question in sections with Always (A), Sometimes (SO), Seldomly (SE),Never (N).

SECTION B: DATA ON WORKLOAD

ADAPTED ACADEMIC UNION OF UNIVERSITIES EXCESS WORKLOAD FORM

	Course code	Credit weight (a)	Student enrolment (b)	Ratio of teaching (r)	Total Students load for each course
First semester					
Second Semester					

	Project Supervision component
Number of	under graduate
Number of	post graduate

SECTION C: DATA LIFESTYLE

S/N	LIFESTYLE QUESTIONNAIRE	A	SO	SE	N
1	I recreate during my leisure hours				
2	I get at least 6–8 hours of sleep each night.				
3	Apart from the6 -8 sleep at night , I still 1 hour during the day				
4	I eat a balanced diet that includes fruits and vegetables.				
5	I avoid fast foods or high-fat meals.				
6	I engage in physical exercises like walking, jogging, or sports.				
7	I avoid excessive intake of alcohol or drugs.				
8	I belong to a social club and I have a lot of friends				
9	listen to music during my quiet moment				
10	exercise on regular bases				
11	I exercise when there is time				
12	i drink plenty of water daily.				
13	I spend time bonding with family and friends.				
14	I actively participate in social or community events.				
15	I limit sedentary behavior like sitting for long hours without moving.				
16	I create time for hobbies and leisure activities.				
17	I follow health advice or treatment when given.				
18	I take necessary precautions to avoid falling sick (e.g., hygiene, rest).				
19	I access the health service when I feel sick				
20	I I access the health service and follow up medical appointment				

SECTION D : DATA ON STRESS

Please read each statement and select which indicate how much the statements applied to you over the past one week. There are no right or wrong answers. Respond with Strongly Disagree (SD), Disagree (D), Agree (A) and strongly Agree (SA).

Stress scale from Adapted Depression, Anxiety and Stress scale (DASS)

S/N		SD	D	A	SA
1	I found it hard to calm down after something upset me				
2	I feared that I would be "thrown" by some trivial but unfamiliar task				
3	I was unable to become enthusiastic about anything				
4	I found it difficult to tolerate interruptions to what I was doing				
5	I was in a state of nervous tension				
6	I felt I was pretty worthless				
7	was intolerant of anything that kept me from getting on with what I was doing				
8	I felt terrified over nothing				
9	I could see nothing in the future to be hopeful about				
10	I felt that life was meaningless				
11	I found myself getting agitated				
12	I was worried about situations in which I might panic and make a fool of myself				
13	I experienced trembling (e.g. in the hands				
14	found it difficult to work up the initiative to do things				

Thank you for patience