

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background to the Study

Having a job has always been a crucial factor in the Nigerian society as individuals are identified by their occupation. A person's job reveals his/her personality and it influences the nature of the interaction he/she has with people. It largely determines the individual's social status, affiliation, economic status and self-concept, (Jimoh & Hammed, 2008). Jobs observably offer a lot of benefits to organisations, individuals and the society at large.

Job performance is an accomplishment of assigned duties in accordance with organisational guidelines subject to the normal constraints of appropriate utilisation of available resources. Expectedly, effective job performance should have positive effects on both an organisation and its employees. For the organisation, it is a means by which it ensures production, economic growth and survival. Similarly, effective job performance provides the employees with economic gains, security, social status, family and social prerogatives, medical benefits, recreational and educational opportunities (Adana, 2003).

Job performance has been of central concern in Industrial or Organizational Psychology for more than a century (Austin & Villanova, 2006). It is considered to be one of the most important constructs because of its role in the understanding of many functions that take place in the work environment (Austin & Villanova, 2006). This construct also helps to explain the value and utility that each employee adds to an organisation. However, organisations tend to focus more on predicting employees' job performance rather than understanding its dimensions. (Guion, 2008). Consequently, researchers had placed a greater emphasis on predictors of job performance rather than its criteria. Only in recent years are scholars refocusing attention on defining and understanding job performance as a criterion (Guion, 2008).

Job performance helps provide the understanding of what employee's behaviour or action constitute and how relevant they are to an organisation's goals (Campbell 1990). Campbell (op. cit) clarifies that job performance is not the consequences or results of an action but rather the action itself. Motowidlo, Borman and Schmidt (1997) advance a similar proposition, arguing that job performance is behaviour that can be evaluated in terms of the extent to which it contributes to organisational effectiveness. Notable, Viswesvaran and Ones (2000) introduce a more recent definition of job

performance as “scalable actions” behaviour and outcomes that employees engage in or bring about that are linked with and contribute to organisational goals. All the three definitions basically requires an observer to make a value judgement to the one being evaluated or behaviour that contributes to being assessed and the evaluator’s ability to accurately interpret the behaviour in relation to organisational goals .

Previously, job performance was viewed as a single construct but researchers now agree that job performance is a complicated multidimensional factor (Campbell, 1990). Several salient models that express this concept include a two-factor model that divides job performance into task and contextual dimensions (Borman & Motowidlo, 2003), an eight-factor model of job performance by (Campbell, 1990). These are: task specific behaviour, non-task specific, writing and oral communication, day to day effort, personal discipline, group or colleague assistant and cooperation, supervisory or leadership components, managerial and administrative performance.

Katz and Kahn (2008) introduce a two-factor model of job performance by separating job performance into factors made up of organisational behaviours that are prescribed to the actual task and a factor that is made up of behaviours that are considered discretionary. Campell (1990); Borman and Motowidlo, (2003); and Guion (2008) examined job performance from various dimensions, no matter how employee job performance is perceived, it is pertinent to note that highly committed employees are seen as very vital to the growth of any organisation and this account for the regular appraisal of the employee in an organisation.

Akinboye and Adeyemo (2002) note that several organisations are experiencing radical transformations and changes as a result of the need to meet the challenges of the rapidly changing and demanding work environment. For instance, a cursory look at most institutions of learning across the country will reveal that the level of job performance among lecturers in colleges of education seem to be very low. This trend, associated with the academic staff has been attributed to many factors within and outside the workplace. This phenomenon has an overwhelming effect on decision making, mode of lecturing, family commitments and motivation to work. Many factors, which include more commitment to the family at the expense of one’s job, have been seen as contributors to this trend. Rutter and Fielding (2002) observe that emotion in the workplace is positively associated with the overall performance in one’s job. Researchers have often argued that age, gender, educational level, marital status and length of service has an influence on job performance in the organization.

In any organisation, employees are engaged on the assumption that they should reposition themselves to the advantage of the organisation and should use their various intellectual capabilities for the attainment of the organisational goals. Job performance among lecturers in colleges of education across the country has been variously affected by heavy workload, working under pressure, large classes, delays and inadequate salaries, inadequate and ill equipped offices, lack of adequate infrastructure and poor funding. (Salami, 2006 ).

Also, colleges of education lecturers are not well paid as those in the universities, yet the colleges of education lecturers are expected to give academic leadership, conduct research and publish the outcomes in learned journals. Job performance can be evaluated in terms of the extent to which it contributes to organizational effectiveness. Observable, job stress tends to impact negatively on the mode of operation, performance of duties and function in one's job. Job stress has been conceptualised in different ways over the years. According to Kazmi, Amjad and Khan (2008) it is conceived as pressure from the environment, then later as a strain within the individual.

Today, an acceptable definition of job stress is one that sees it as the interactions between the situation and the individual. It is the psychological and physical states that result when resources of an individual are not sufficient to cope with the demands and pressures of the job situation. Thus, job stress is more likely in some situations than others. According to Acholu (2005), "although much is known about job stress but there is no consensus or agreement as to the definition of the term among scientists".

According to Akinboye, Akinboye and Adeyemo (2002) job stress in the workplace has assumed increased importance and proportion. The pressure at work particularly the emphasis on enhanced productivity has exaggerated the amount of job stress being experienced by workers of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. According to them, while a moderate job stress at work may enhance work motivation, the terrific speed of modern work situations create dramatic changes at work and workers have to extend with this while working.

Ohaeri and Odejide (1991) view job stress as the biological response to events that threaten to overwhelm an individual's capacity to cope satisfactorily in the job environment. These psychologists have viewed job stress in three different ways: as a stimulus, as a response and as an ongoing interaction between an organism and its environment. According to them, job stress places strong demands on the workers' job

performance. These demands or situations are stressors. The presence of negative emotions is an important feature of the job stress response that affects the performance of duties and functions of lecturers in the course of carrying out their academic functions and responsibilities in colleges.

Lazarus (1973) believes that job stress should be considered a general rubric for a large collection of related problems, rather than a single narrow concept. He summarises job stress in the following way:

*Stress refers to a very broad class of problems differentiated from other problem job stress because it deals with any demand which taxes the system, whatever it is; a physiological system, a psychological system or a social system and the response of that system P.39.*

Lazarus (op cit) goes on to argue that the reaction depends on how the person interprets or appraises (consciously or unconsciously) the meaning and significance of a harmful, threatening or challenging event. Therefore, job stress is thought to occur from a misfit between the individual and his/her environment. He sees job stress as a disruption of the emotional stability of the individual that induces a state of disorganisation in personality and behaviour, a biological phenomenon experienced by every person regardless of his socio-economic status, occupation or age, and as the way an individual responds to conditions that scare, threatening, anger, bewilder or excite them (McGrath, 2006).

Stress in workplace is indispensable. It is an unavoidable aspect of human existence that entails physical, mental and emotional wear and tear brought about by incongruence between the requirement of the job and the capabilities, resources or needs of an employee to cope with job demands. Acholu (2005) affirms that stressors are found everywhere including home, work and social environment. They are events, people, thoughts, things or any stimulus that cause stress. It is important to note and emphasise that not all stressors are bad. Job stress can have both positive and negative effect.

The positive job stress according to Ngoka (2000) otherwise known as eustress is strengthening to an individual under certain conditions especially when it comes in moderate dosage which enables the individual to demonstrate the ability to cope with challenges successfully while negative job stress causes both physical and psychological disturbances of very serious nature. According to Ngoka (op cit), the

positive job stress is not often thought of when we say that an individual is under job stress. The impression normally given is that such an individual is experiencing excessive negative job stress or distress.

Job life is one of the important parts of our daily lives which cause a great deal of stress. Due to the competitive nature of the job environment, most people spend their time on job-related work purposes resulting into ignoring the stressor that are influencing their work and life. According to Ahsan, Abdullah, YongGunfic and Alam (2009), people are more worried about the outcome of their work. This can affect the way they treat other people and how they communicate with peers and students in institution of learning. Often lecturers are motivated to work if conducive working environment such as good office, with adequate and up to date facilities, reduced job load responsibilities, prompt payment of salary, promotion as at and when due, good working relationship and good mental health for their psychological well-being. These factors often energise workers to perform and enhance their capability to do at work.

Evidently in Nigerian institutions of learning, job performance and work motivation of lecturers are majorly influenced by job stress. Some of the life threatening, harmful and challenging situations stressful to lecturers well-being are often caused by economic instability, poor salary, religious intolerance, insecurity, sickness, permanent incapability and at times untimely, death.

Nigerian colleges of education are not immune to the emerging forces of job stress in the country. Despite the nations declaration of the importance of colleges of education system in national development and the roles it plays in satisfying manpower needs. Nwadiani and Ofoegbu (2001) affirms that there is growing evidence that there are really no universities, private, states or federal that will genuinely claim to enjoy the basic facilities of teaching, learning and research. This is equally true of the colleges of education system in Nigeria. Today, virtually all the necessary facilities and resources except students are in acute short supply (Nwadiani & Ofoegbu, 2001). These often expose lecturers to high levels of job stress that could force them to deviate from norms of their profession.

According to Tella, Ayeni and Popoola (2007) motivation is a basic psychological process. According to them, a data based comprehensively on analysis revealed that competitiveness problems appear to be largely motivational in nature. Luthans (1998) asserts that motivation is the process that arouses, energises, directs and sustains behaviour and performance. That is, the process of stimulating people to

action and to achieve a desired task. Tella, Ayeni and Popoola (2007) opine that one of the processes of stimulating people is to employ effective intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to makes workers more satisfied and committed to their jobs which in turn will enhance job performance.

Job performance according to Kazmi, Amjad and Khan (2008) is the result of three factors working together; skill, effort and nature of work conditions. Skills include knowledge, abilities and competencies an employee brings to the job. Effort is the degree of motivation the employee puts forth towards getting the job done while the nature of work conditions is the degree of accommodation of these conditions in facilitating the employee's productivity. Effective job performance according to Jimoh (2008) has positive effects on both an organisation and its employees. According to him, for the organisation it is a means by which it ensures production, economic growth and survival. Job performance has been of central concern in every organisation. It helps provide the understanding of what behaviour constitutes (Campbell, 1990).

Stress inducing factors in colleges of education include lack of instructional resources, poor interpersonal relationship among academic staff, between students and the administration, waves of student campus militancy and unmanageable students' population. This usually may makes lecturers to be unproductive and thus, has negative impact on their psychological well-being which may adversely affect their job performance.

The number of colleges of education in Nigeria has increased tremendously in the past few years (federal, state and privately owned). Due to the increasing number, Colleges of Education academic staff may face more problems on their job as the management is contending with more competitive pressure.

Almost all colleges of education are now setting new goals to compete with other higher institutions. Also, in this 21<sup>st</sup> century, colleges of education are being repositioned to meet educational standards worldwide. This may cause lecturers to face series of job stress and this could affect their job performance. In spite of plethora of literature on dynamics of job performance among workers; few studies are on job performance among lecturers in colleges of education. Most existing studies focused on university lecturers.

Determinants of job performance of lecturers in colleges of education are becoming unclear to the stakeholders. This may be one of the reasons why the

Nigerian government accords low recognition to the colleges of education. This informs the gradual upgrading of these colleges to university status. It is therefore necessary to examine the extent to which some factors predict job performance among Nigerian colleges of education lecturers. There are few empirical evidence to show that demographic variables (age, gender, length of service, educational qualification and marital status) have a major influence on job performance, there is need to examine and determine the actual level of perceived job stress and lack of work motivation among lecturers in colleges of education, this is a research gap this study hopes to fill in colleges of education in Nigeria, if even marginally.

The findings of Jimoh and Hammed (2008) reveal that age, gender and marital status predict job performance of lecturers in institutions of learning This study intends to examine the combinatorial effect of job stress, work motivation, age, gender, educational status and marital status on the job performance of lecturers in the colleges of education. Factors affecting job performance are endless. This is a rare opportunity to investigate the linear relationship among the carefully selected aforementioned psycho demographic variables and job performance as it will bridge the gap between theory and practice.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

The primary function of academic staff is to assist students acquire knowledge and skill. Hence they often embark on full time and part time teaching programmes to assist adults and youth attain their educational objectives. The desire to help extend education and skills shows lecturers' commitment to educational objective. It is however observed that lecturers in colleges of education are expected to perform at a high level in the areas of curriculum without the basic facilities for teaching, learning and research. Though the expectation is appropriate, it is difficult for lecturers to manage the challenging and diverse needs of students with resource inadequacy in colleges of education system.

It has been commonly assumed that lecturers in colleges of education are job stressed due to excessive involvement in various full and part-time teaching, running to meet production of course materials, administrative functions etc. These often impede performance of their primary function of teaching, research, community service and administrative service to the institutions. Also, lack of adequate work motivation coupled with age at work, gender stereotype, and length of service and marital status of employees affect job performance.

The main purpose of establishing colleges of education in the nation's educational sector is to fill the existing gap – to train and produce manpower required for primary and junior secondary schools. This constitutes the major bedrock of the educational system and a cursory look at Nigeria educational system, especially colleges of education, reveals dwindling performance among lecturers. This arises due to series of problems such as inadequate funding, excessive workload, lack of motivation, qualities of students admitted to the school, age-related problems, gender biases, poor condition of service and other related issues. These problems have continued to plague colleges of education in the country, thereby making it difficult to function optimally to meet desired objectives and goals of these institutions.

Thus, this study investigated the job stress, work motivation and demographic variables as predictors of job performance among colleges of education lecturers in Southwestern Nigeria.

### **1.3 Objectives of the Study**

The broad objective is to determine the extent to which job stress, motivation and pertinent demographic variables will predict job performance among lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria.

The specific objectives are to:

- (i) determine the relationship among job stress, work motivation and demographic variables as predictors of job performance of lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria.
- (ii) establish if there is joint and relative contributions of each of the independent variable, (job stress, work motivation and demographic variables) to the prediction of job performance of lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria.
- (iii) establish which of the indices of job performance is mostly affected by the independent variables and why as well as determine if other factors apart from the variables under investigation can enhance job performance of lecturers in colleges of education.

### **1.4 Research Questions**

This study will attempt to provide answers to the following research questions:

1. What is the relationship among job stress, work motivation, demographic variables and job performance of lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria?



2. To what extent does the combination of these variables {job stress, work motivation and demographic variables) predict job performance among colleges of education lecturers in Southwestern Nigeria?
3. What is the relative contribution of each of the variables (job stress, work motivation and demographic variables] to job performance among colleges of education lecturers in Southwestern Nigeria?

### **1.5 Significance of the Study**

In an organisation, it is believed that people have to be understood to know how to perform effectively. To this end, how they perform, relate and behave depend largely on a series of factors, which either contributes positively or negatively to the job performance in such an organisation. The study should hopefully help institutions, organisations and individuals alike to optimise workers' job performance.

The expected findings should equip personnel in colleges of education (lecturers) with modalities of how to improve job performance and thus minimise the prevalent problem of low job performance among the staff which may arise from job stress, work motivation and demographic traits of the individual.

The expectation is that the results from the study will assist Nigeria authorities, policymakers and stakeholders in our institutions is better understand the significant influence of these constructs on workers' job performance. Educationists, psychologists, social workers and other stakeholders in related fields will be exposed to possible strategies when faced with the problems of low job performance in organisations.

Hopefully, the study output should contribute to improved awareness and understanding of the adverse effects of job stress and provide empirical evidence of its negative effect on health, wellbeing and job performance of lecturers in colleges of education.

This study findings should expectedly help to inform and assist the management in colleges of education, educational planners, policymakers and other stakeholders identify the negative influence of job stress on lecturers in the colleges of education system. The overall research should sufficiently equip all stakeholders in tertiary education on improved job performance-related problems in colleges of education with strategies to cope better.

### **1.6 Scope of the Study**

The study will investigate the relationship among job stress, work motivation

and demographic variables as predictors of job performance of lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria. It will focus on colleges of education lecturers across the states of the Southwestern Nigeria. Eleven colleges of education will be covered for the study and these are, Adeyemi College of Education, Ondo State; College of Education, Ikere Ekiti, Ekiti State; Federal College of Education (Special), Oyo; Emmanuel Alayande College of Education, Oyo; Federal College of Education, Osiele, Abeokuta, Ogun State; Tai Solarin College of Education, Imun Ijebu Ogun State; Adeniran Ogunsanya College of Education, Otto-Ijanikin, Lagos State; Federal College of Education (Technical) Akoka, Lagos State; Michael Otedola College of Primary Education Noforija, Epe, Lagos State; College of Education, Ilesha, Osun State; Osun State College of Education, Ila Orangun, Osun State. This study will be restricted to only lecturers in the colleges in the selected states in Southwestern Nigeria. This study is further restricted to academic staff that must have spent nothing less than three years in the employment of the selected colleges of education.

### **1.7 Operational Definition of Terms**

The following terms are operationally defined as used in this research work:

**Demographic Variables:** These are age, gender, educational qualifications, marital status and length of service of lecturers in colleges of education.

**Job Performance:** This refers to the tasks (teaching, administrative, research and community services) academic staff undertake.

**Job Stress:** This refers to the physiological or psychological response to negative psychological or environmental factors at work that academic staff in colleges of education perceive as tasking or disturbing and threatening to their individual health or well-being.

**Job Status:** This refers to classification of the colleges of education lecturers according to rank or position.

**Work Motivation:** This refers to any energizer that reward, strengthens and encourage job performance of an academic staff.

**Colleges of Education Lecturers:** These are the academic staff that engages in teaching, research, community service and administrative duties in the various colleges of education in southwestern Nigeria.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter examines the review of literature and theories on the fundamental issues and variables of this research topic. This chapter also provides a guide to the collection of relevant information and an appropriate framework of reference for the findings of the research.

Literature was reviewed on the following headings:

- i. Job Performance
- ii. Job Stress
- iii. Work Motivation
- iv. Demographic Factors
- v. Empirical Studies
- vi. Theoretical Framework
- vii. Appraisal of Literature
- viii. Research Hypotheses

#### 2.1.1 Job Performance

Job performance is a commonly used, yet poorly defined concept in industrial and organisational psychology. It commonly refers to whether a person performs his or her job well or not. Despite the confusion over how it should be precisely defined, performance is an extremely important criterion that relates to organisational outcomes and success. The most commonly accepted definition of job performance comes from the work of Campbell (1990). He describes it as an individual level variable meaning performance is something a single person does. This differs from more encompassing constructs such as organisational performance or national performance which are higher level variables. There are several key features to Campbell's (op cit) conceptualisation of job performance which help to clarify what job performance means. He defines performance as a behaviour. It is something done by the employee. This concept differentiates performance from outcomes. Outcomes are the results of an individual's performance and other influences. In other words, there are more factors that determine outcomes than just an employee's behaviour and actions.

Campbell (op cit) allows for exceptions when defining performance as behaviour. For instance, he clarifies that performance does not have to be a directly observable action of an individual. It can consist of mental productions such as

answers or decisions. Performance needs to be under individual's control, regardless of whether the performance of interest is mental or behavioural.

Individual performance is a core concept within work and organisational psychology. Organisations need highly performing individuals in order to meet their goal, deliver product, and services they specialise in and finally to achieve competitive advantage.

Performance is also important for the individuals. Accomplishing tasks and performing at a high level can be a source of satisfaction with feelings of mastery and pride. Low performance and unachieved goals might be experienced as dissatisfaction or even as a personal failure.

Moreover, performance if recognised by others within an organisation is often rewarded by financial and other benefits. It is a major, although not the only prerequisite for future career development and success. Although there might be exceptions, for high performers get promoted more easily within an organisation and generally have better career opportunities than low performers (Vanscotter, Mowidlo & Cross, 2000). According to McCloy, Oppler and Sagger (1993), performance is doing what the organisation hires one to do and do well. Thus performance does not define by the action itself but by the judgmental goals and evaluative processes. Recent efforts to bring order to research on job performance distinguish two broad types of performance:

### **2.1.2 Task Performance and Contextual performance**

Borman and Motowidlo (1993) distinguish between task performance and contextual performance. Task performance refers to an individual's proficiency with which he/she performs activities which contribute to the organisation's technical core. This contribution can be both direct (in the case of production workers) and indirect (in the case of managers or staff personnel). Contextual performance refers to activities which do not contribute to technical core but support the social and psychological environment in which organisational goals are pursued. Contextual performance includes not only behaviours such as helping co-workers or being a reliable member of organisation, but also making suggestions about how to improve work procedures.

According to Hedge (2000), task performance involves activities such as selling at retail level, operating a production machine in a manufacturing plant, teaching in a school, performing surgery in a hospital and cashing cheque in a bank and it also refers to the behaviours that directly helps or hinders organization to transform raw materials

into finished goods and services. Hedges (op. cit) contextual performance refers to behaviour that helps or hinders organisational effectiveness through its effects on the psychological, social and organisational context of work. It involves activities such as volunteering to carry out tasks that are not formally part of the job, persisting with extra effort when necessary to complete tasks successfully, helping and cooperating with others, following organisational rules and procedures even when they are not personally convenient endorsing, supporting and defending organisational objectives.

Owolabi (2007) conceives performance as relationship between some volume of output and a specific volume of input. He claims that performance does not mean or indicate how hard an individual have worked. Oguntowora (1972) defines job performance as the relationship between the output generated by an individual, production or service systems and the input to create this output. In effect, the efficient use of resources like labour, capital, raw material, energy and information in the production of various goods and services increase job performance. Mescon (1988) defines job performance as the unit of output divided by the unit of input. He further says that the relative efficiency of organisation is referred to as performance, since the term is defined according to the ratio of input to output, which will affect management skills, interpersonal skills, predictors of procedural knowledge, skills gain, abilities, personality interests, education, training, experience, aptitude-treatment, interactions, motivation, choice to perform, level of effort, and persistence of effort. He assumes that there are interactions between the three types of performance determinants.

### **2.1.3 Predictor of Job Performance**

According to Motowidlo and Van Scatter (1994) virtually all studies on individual predictors of job performance of individual with high cognitive abilities performance can be subsumed under the individual differences perspective. Their research addresses cognitive ability, personality motivational factors and experience as predictors of job performance. Mental-analytic speaks for a strong relationship between cognitive ability and job performance in individual with high cognitive abilities performs better than individuals with low cognitive abilities across a broad range of different jobs. Most authors assume an underlying mechanism of cognitive ability helping to acquired job knowledge and job skills which in turn have a positive impact on job performance.

The general relationship between personality and job performance are relatively insignificant, but a strong relationship emerged for neuroticism/emotional

stability and conscientiousness. The relevance of specific personality factors for performance vary between different jobs. Individual differences in motivation may be caused by differences in motivational traits and differences in motivational skills. Motivational traits are loosely related to personality construct narrower and more relevant for motivational processes. Kanfer and Heggested (1997) describe motivation and anxiety as two basic works relevant. Motivational traits provide the evidence for the need for motivation to be related to job performance. Self-efficacy is another predictor of job performance. It is the belief that one can execute an action well and a construct of motivational domain which is highly relevant for performance. Additionally, self-efficacy has been of particular importance in learning process.

Moreover, professional experience shows positive, although small relationship with job performance. The individual differences perspective suggests a focus on personnel selection for ensuring high individual performance. Organisation needs to select individuals on the basis of their abilities, experiences and personality. Training programmes which aim at improving individual prerequisites for high performance should be implemented.

Performance strategies and organisational research have confirmed several approaches that have significant positive impact on employee Performance; Goal setting, Measurement and feedback, Involvement, culture, Expectations, Reward and recognition, Job design and Leadership. Any improvement for the better in an organization must come from the people who work there. Hence Human resources management view workers as the most valuable resource of business; and is concerned with not the only effective use of such but also their motivation to work and the satisfaction derived from their working life which consequently affect their job performance (Mullin, 1996).

#### **2.1.4 Job Stress**

The concept of job stress is multidimensional and has different meanings to different people. The common usage of the term has led to confusion. Stress in general can be defined as the reaction of individuals to demands (stressors) imposed upon them (Erkutlu, & Chafra 2006,). It refers to situation where the well-being of individuals is detrimentally affected by their failure to cope with the demands of their environment. Job stress is a mental and physical conditions which affect an individual's productivity, effectiveness, personal health and quality of work (Comish & Swindle, 1994). Selye (1983) the originator of the concept of human job stress

defines it as the non-specific responses of the body to any demand made upon it. This means that regardless of the job stress to which the organism is exposed, there result a generalized or non-specific reaction termed, the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS).

As Selye (op. cit) argues, many ailments such as various emotional disturbances like mild annoyance, headaches, insomnia upset, stomach upset, crippling high blood pressure, gastric and duodenal ulcers, certain types of rheumatic or allergic diseases appear essentially to be initiated by the body itself because of its faculty adaptive reactions to potentially injurious agents.

Levinborn (1970) agrees that not all job stress is bad and in fact, argues further that, as physical exercise is good for the body so are some kinds of mental and emotional job stress good for the mind. According to Torrance (1957), job stress is behaviour in emergencies and extreme condition. It begins with anxiety, arising from some kind of imbalance within human beings. The anxiety leads to tension which is always a physical reaction to anxiety. When a person is tensed, the nerve impulses cause changes in the body, and when tension reaches certain degree of intensity that has an adverse effect on the body, the person is said to be under stress. Stress may be desirable atimes as a certain amount of it is essential for human maturation and development.

Brill (1993) opines that life possesses challenges and mars built in system for self defence and growth mobilises itself to deal with them. "Stress may, therefore be a propeller and an aid for achievement. The implication is that every product needs appropriate stress- inducing conditions to encourage optimum performance necessary for workers. Stress has also been affirmed as an integral part of normal everyday life. When one is in a relaxed position, job stress response is very low; but as soon as one starts to concentrate on doing something, job stress response is at alert. The corollary to this is that job stress is common in all people and at all places. For example, Sorrel (1991) finds that elementary school teachers reported more job stress than in secondary schools teachers with regard to discipline, classroom management, personal relationship with students, facilities and suppliers, teaching evaluation, teaching assignment, lack of support, parent expectation, personal expectation, organisational policy.

### **Classification of Job Stress**

Most people see job stress as negative while others differentiate between negative and positive stress. Distress is negative while eustress is positive stress. Distress manifests as disappointment, failure, threat, embarrassment and other negative experiences. But there is the positive job stress described as eustress- manifested as positive exhilarating experiences of success followed by higher expectations. Researches have classified job stress into functional and dysfunctional. Dysfunctional job stress which can result in decrease job satisfaction and low levels of performance can be caused by a number of occupation situations relating to job duties. It becomes prevalent when the worker does not clearly understand the duties and responsibilities associated with his or her job. Other causes are lack of promotional opportunities associated with his/her job, a sense of having little influence with the boss; unpleasant relationship with supervisor, lack of authority and control, slow job progress, feeling of unwarranted pressure to face competition for opportunities within the work place.

On the other hand, functional job stress is beneficial to the organization as it correlates positively to job satisfaction including a sense of adequacy, ability to make decisions that affect the lives of others with high responsibility. Although a limited amount of conflict and job stress are positively required as they correlate job performance. However there is a limit to the amount of pressure that the human body and mind can sustain whenever a manager's expectations are significantly greater than the subordinate's ability to produce, conflict and job stress surface. In line with the above is the submission of Hans Selye, that the body is constantly adapting to job stress – producing factors by changes in its structure and chemical surface. Job stress can also be categorized into acute and chronic stress. Acute stressors include work changes, particularly sudden changes in the concepts that are used in the work place, unexpected and sudden noise, over-stimulation, under stimulation, terrors, panic, electric shock, uncontrollable situations, physical ailments, surgery, threats to self concept, and traumatic experiences. Chronic stressors on the other hand include daily conflicts, sleep deprivation, work overload, role strains or social isolation.

### **Manifestations of Job Stress**

Several signs and symptoms occur when someone is under job stress. Common symptoms include anxiety, increased blood pressure, headache, backache, fatigue, insomnia, depression, irritability, muscular tightness, and inattention. What these signs do not indicate is the degree of wear and tear on the individual emotionally and physically. The hidden effects can cost the organisation the loss of productivity



absenteeism and health care expenses. Excessive job stress can also cost the individual his or her health and future. Omoluabi (2006) states that these signs could be categorised as emotional, physiological and behavioural. Personal distress caused by feelings of inadequacy and shame, which are in themselves the products of job stress manifest as moodiness, worrying, rumination, edginess, feeling of sadness, unhappiness and depression, getting irritated and easily angered, indecisiveness, self doubt, poor insecurity. The physiological manifestations include high autonomic arousal which may precipitate increased heart beat excessive perspiration, lower sexual urge, nervousness and poor sleep pattern and poor appetite including changes in behaviour.

Other causes are lack of promotional opportunities associated with the job, a sense of having little influence with the boss, unpleasant relationship with supervisor, lack of authority and control, slow job progress, feeling of unreasonable pressure to face competition for opportunities within the work place. In line with the above, other manifestations and indicators of job stress reaction include increased rate of smoking or consumption of alcohol, deterioration of work performance, poorer driving habit, becoming quarrelsome and aggressive in the event of little or no provocation, getting more suspicious and uneasy ever than before, impatience, poor concentration, restlessness, short temper and poorer interpersonal relationships.

If period of job stress is prolonged the individual may experience stress-related disorder like frequency, tension, headaches, secondary impotence, constipation menstrual disorders, being easily fatigued, and a feeling of general ill – health (Hon & Hoonber, 1980). Generally, it is recognized that there are individual differences in the manifestation of job stress – related symptoms ( Spieberger, 1979). With economic hardships, social support, age, acquired coping skill and the prevailing situational factors will determine the extent to which a person will be adversely affected by the vagaries of depression. The corollary to this view is that the biting effects of work depression begin to increase as some individuals learn to adopt it.

Individuals who have understanding spouse and relative will be less social loners. This explains why some persons manifest only few of the job stress indicants enumerated while some others manifest most of them. The individual differences also extend to how effective coping strategies could be. In a write up “maintaining health”, Freidment and Roseman (2000) observe that what you do at work affects your health and how you live. They concluded that heart attacks are caused, not by lack of

exercise, by lack of cholesterol, not by cigarette smoking but by behaviour patterns (including behaviour of work). And as you know more Americans die of heart attacks than of any other cause. Lengthy studies by those researchers led to the characterisation of two types of managerial personalities, type A and B. According to Friedman and Roseman, if you are a type A, you will have a heart attack in your 30s or 40s, not in your 70s, type A behaviour is partly a matter of personality and partly a result of the way some enterprises work. If you want to live longer and if the enterprises wants your services longer, examine the type A check list and determine what you must do to modify your behaviour. Enterprise personal policies can be adjusted to help managers become type Bs a successful, healthy individual.

Also, in few personality characteristics that seem to trigger illness or psychosomatic symptoms, Luborsky, Doherty and Penic (1973) find resentment, frustration, depression, anxiety, feeling of hopelessness were quite often identifiable as psychological antecedents for psychosomatic symptoms.

### **Sources of Job Stress at Work**

#### **Individual Characteristics**

Symptoms of occupational ill-health or disease include poor physical working conditions, work overload and time pressures, role in organization, role ambiguity, role conflict and responsibility for people ,conflicts and organizational boundaries (internal and external). Career development, over promotion, no promotion, lack of job security and thwarted ambition, etc.

#### **Relationships at Work**

Poor relations with boss, subordinates, or colleagues, difficulties in delegating responsibility, etc.Organizational structure and climate, little or no participation in decision making, restrictions on behaviour (budgets, etc), office politics, lack of effective consultation, etc.

#### **The Individual**

Level of anxiety, level of neuroticism, tolerance for ambiguity, type a behavioural pattern

#### **Extra-Organizational Sources of Stress**

Family problems, life crises, financial difficulties, etc.,,diastolic blood pressure, cholesterol level, heart rate, smoking, depressive mood, escapist drinking, job dissatisfaction, reduced aspiration, etc, coronary, heart, disease, mental ill health.

#### **Consequences of Job Stress**

Stress produces a range of undesirable, expensive and debilitating consequences. (Ross, 2005) which affect both individuals and organisations. In organisational setting, job stress is nowadays becoming a major contributor to health and performance problems of individuals and unwanted occurrences and cost for organizations. Consequences of job stress can be grouped into those on individual and those on organizational level. On the individual level, there are three main subgroups of strains:

1) Unwanted feelings and behaviours: such as job dissatisfaction, lower motivation, low employee morale, less organizational commitment, lowered overall quality of work life, absenteeism, turnover intention to leave the job, lower productivity, decreased quantity and quality of work, inability to make sound decisions, more theft, sabotage and work stoppage, occupational burnout, alienation, and increased smoking and alcohol intake.

2) Physiological diseases (poor physical health): such as increased blood pressure and pulse rate, cardiovascular diseases, high cholesterol, high blood sugar, insomnia, headaches, infections, skin problems, suppressed immune system, injuries, and fatigue.

3) Psychological diseases (poor emotional (mental) health): psychological distress, depression, anxiousness, passiveness/aggressiveness, boredom, loss of self-confidence and self-esteem loss of concentration, feelings of futility, impulsiveness and disregarding of social norms and values, dissatisfaction with job and live, losing of contact with reality, and emotional fatigue.

On the organisational level, consequences of occupational job stress can be grouped into two major subgroups:

1) Organisational Symptoms: such as discontent and poor morale among the workforce, performance/productivity losses, low quality products and services, poorer relationships with clients, suppliers, partners and regulatory authorities, losing customers, bad publicity, damage to the corporate image and reputation, missed opportunities, disruption to production, high accident and mistakes rates, high labor turnover, loss of valuable staff, increased sick-leave, permanent vacancies, premature retirement, diminished cooperation, poor internal communications, more internal conflicts, and dysfunctional workplace climate.

2) Organisational costs: such as costs of reduced performance/productivity(lack of added value to product and/or service), high replacement costs in connection with labour turnover (increase in recruitment, training and retraining costs), increased sick pay, increased health-care costs and disability payments, higher grievance and

litigation/compensation costs, and costs of equipment damage.

As evident from the above, consequences of occupational stress, both on individual and at organisational level, are a real cost to organisations. Because of its significant economic implications, job stress is not only a huge burden (Beehr, 1995), but one of the fastest growing concerns to contemporary organizations, especially given the high levels of competition and environmental turbulence, which do not allow organizations to bear costs such as those caused by job stress (McHugh, 1993). However, costs which are a consequence of job stress are hardly ever assessed or calculated either in human or financial terms. Despite the apparent need for measuring costs of stress, it seems that to date relatively limited number of organizations estimated those enormous indirect costs.

Finally, it is important to job stress that contrary to popular belief, job stress can be associated with both pleasant and unpleasant events, and only becomes problematic when it remains unresolved (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2006). In other words, one could argue that not all job stress is dysfunctional and that, in fact job stress is not inherently bad, while a limited amount of job stress combined with appropriate responses actually can benefit both the individual and an organisation (Chusmir & Franks, 1988,). Namely, as low and high job stress predict poor performance, and moderate job stress predicts maximum performance (Yerkes & Dodson, 1994 in Sharman., 2001), the total elimination of job stress should not be aimed at.

### **Dealing with Stress**

Occupational job stress recognition and problem-solving activities will be better placed to deal with the elements of a rapidly changing world and thus enhance their chances of gaining competitive advantage (McHugh, 1993). Fortunately, there are ways of dealing with occupational stress. First, organisations and their employees should become more aware of the degree to which job stress is an unnecessary cost, and a cost which they must seek to eliminate if their organisations are to survive and grow. Naturally, this awareness must start from top management level where the estimated cost of job stress is sufficient to generate organisational commitment to subsequent action (McHugh, 1993).

Second, work-related job stress should become an issue with increasing features on the agenda of efficient managers (McHugh, 1993). In an increasingly competitive and fast changing business world, efficient managers should feel compelled to address the issue of work-related job stress through counting the costs

and taking appropriate action so as to minimize its effects (McHugh, 1993). Managers should expand their efforts in reducing significant sources of job stress (Biala, 2002) as this leads to a higher employee satisfaction, increases the productivity of the workforce and reduces negative consequences of stress, which at the end results in higher profits.

Third, training and employee assistance programmes dealing with job stress should be at employees' disposal. Various workshops, seminars and conferences should increase employees' awareness of the costs associated with employee stress, and should teach them how to cope with stressful situations and states. As Shuttleworth (2004) explains, training can have a positive impact on tackling job stress in the workplace, as it helps employees become more resilient towards stress, enables them to tackle the root causes of any problems, and helps managers who not only need to manage their own job stress levels, but are responsible for their direct reports, considering the organizational factors that contribute to stress and to take steps to alleviate them (Chusmir & Franks, 1988). At the end, unfortunately, it has to be said that advanced organizations of the West appear to have taken actions based upon their increased understanding of the relationship between job stress and organisational outcomes, while benefits which accrue from such initiatives are so far not recognized.

### **Perceived Sources of Job Stress among Lecturers**

Human beings have many biological, psychological and social needs. When these needs are not satisfied they experience stress. Besides these needs, there are many challenges in human life and they all are likely to produce stress. Selye (1978) defines job stress as any external events or internal drive which threatens to upset the organism equilibrium. Rasche (1985), Hock and Roger (1996) indicate that the degree of job stress which lecturers experience is positively related to the degree which he/she perceives as lack of control over a potentially threatening situation; such as inability to meet the demands of students and a lack of adequate coping mechanisms. Schools are considered as a formal organisation (Hoy & Miskel, 1987) and lecturers are susceptible to organizational job stress of role conflict and role ambiguity. Many researchers have identified sources of job stress among post-secondary faculty members. Their findings have indicated that time pressures (Astin, 1993, Thompson & Dey, 1998) and high self-expectations (Cooper, 1991, Smith, 1996) are the main sources of job stress for teachers.

In many countries, teacher's job is often considered as one of the most stressful professions. In the last two decades, intensive researches have been carried out in USA

and Europe concerning the sources and symptoms of teachers' professional stress. (Kyriacous, 1996). Studies in the field of teacher's job stress show that the greater part of stresses is associated with the rapid pace of changes in education, particularly in 1980s and 1990s. Teaching profession is generally considered as a noble profession with lots of expectations from the development of their personalities. These expectations may also contribute to the stress. This study attempts to identify the sources of job stress, work motivation and also study its relation to certain demographic variables and job performance.

**Sources of job stress among lecturers include the following:**

- Inability to meet the demands of student.
- Lack of adequate coping mechanism.
- Personal stress
- Teaching assignment
- Personal expectation
- Teaching evaluation
- Facilities available at school
- Organisational policy
- Time management
- Job overload.

While lecturers' job stress is a nationwide concern, it is a relatively new and an emerging area of empirical research. Thus, academic job stress phenomenon remains vague, available data increasingly indicate that job stress within the teaching profession may affect the school as an organization, teacher performance and the physical psychological wellbeing his or her family (Krylacuo, 1977).

Job stress studies were initially directed toward industrial organizations within the private sector. Researchers have come to believe that job stress may be especially relevant among human service. High lecturers job stress may result in frustration, hypertension, anxiety, avoidance behaviour, increase absenteeism, and/ or decreases in lecturers and students' performance levels. Factors aiding teacher performance such as creativity, class management and implementation of educational techniques may suffer, when teacher experience high level of stress (Kaiser, 1982). It is difficult to determine exactly what factors will, in what condition, result in a high level of job stress for a particular individual. Factors recorded by lecturers as being stressful have included student discipline, attitude towards school, physical environment, inadequate

preparation time, lack of resources, competent administrators, lack of clear role deficiency and heavy workload.

### **Impact of Job Stress on Job Performance**

Stress actually can have some positive impacts. A certain amount of job stress will actually induce increased motivation and performance. But beyond some points, job stress results in reduced performance. The negative impacts of job stress are essentially of two types, physical and psychological. Physically, it is clear that health can be angered by continual stress.

Psychologically, we have already indicated that psychosomatic illness abounds and mental illness may result from job stress over a long period of time. One of the consequences is, of course, burnout. The impact of job stress also depends upon the individual's physical condition and habits. Smoking over eating, high blood serum, cholesterol level, lack of exercise are the major factors in which job stress is having a major physical impact. It has been a common belief held that workers who are prone to psychoactive illness tend to have low socio-economic status, background and low educational achievement. Thus, they tend to work in low skill occupation (Kasl, 1973 & Gunderson, 1973).

This assumption has been challenged by Cooper (1980) who in his review of the findings of two large scale studies of job stress at work by Cherty (1978), Caplan, Cobb and French (1975), illustrated that incidence of ill-health was greater for blue collar worker than white collar worker. Further, nervous job stress at work was reported by a higher proportion of white collar and professional workers than skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled manual workers. Thus Cooper concludes that these results may indicate only that white collar and professional group differ from blue collar occupation in their reactions to stress, that former reflect the pressures of work in mental illness, whereas the latter do both in physical symptoms and illness. It should be noted that the effect of job stress depends on severity of the events, the length of time over which they occur and way individual perceive it. A continued series of stressful events over a period of year can be more damaging than more severe shock which is quickly over. The threat of redundancy over a long period is often more stressful than a quick severance from the firm.

During heaving periods of work, accountants have been found to have increased "serum cholesterol". Also job satisfaction was observed to be inversely related to the degree of heart-attack among industrial workers. Besides, mental

disorders by psychological job stress include asthenia hay, fever, thyroid disorders repeated skin trouble, arthritis, hypertension, tuberculosis, migraine, indigestion, ulcers and diabetes, (Cooper & Marshall, 1978). Moreover job stress can impair body's immune system, which in turn can make an individual more susceptible to infection and job pressures (stress) distress in low level workers. Lawyers, physicians, lecturers are susceptible to "serum cholesterol" and heart attack during job pressures, while policemen react to situations which threatens their job and also have increase in blood cholesterol.

Prolong job stress in general has been shown to decrease physical stamina, mental alertness and reaction time. Too little or too much job stress has been found to be detrimental to performance. It depends on numerous variables including personality of the individual, the degree of job stress experienced and the effect of training. The negative effects of job stress and frustration on worker's productivity have been investigated by many social scientists including Lindgreen, (1989) and Sharman (2001).

Foundation of Promoting Commercialized Indigenous Technology (FOPCIT) (1992) in its technical report on indigenous technology development and commercialisation in Nigeria note that most industrialists also face a lot of frustrating conditions which reduce their production. Their study also shows that behavioural consequence of job stress may harm the person under job stress and others. One of such behaviours is smoking among workers with attendant complications for the individual and others in the organization.

Psychological consequences also relate to an individual's mental health and wellbeing. Depression may become likely (Gbeja, 1992) while job stress may also lead to family problems and sexual disorders. One clear organizational consequence of too much job stress is decline in performance, be it caused by physical or environmental stressors. For operating workers, such a decline can translate into poor quality work or drop of productivity (Hockey, 1986). For managers, it can mean faulty decision making or disruptions in working relationship as people became irritable and hard to get along with. As for lecturers it can bring about low level of efficiency and effectiveness in their performance.

### **2.1.5 Work Motivation**

Understanding the factors that affect motivation is important because motivation affects level of occupation (Farmer, 1985). Murray describes work motivation as the



desire to accomplish something difficult, to overcome obstacles and attain a high standard; to excel oneself. Burger (1997) indicates that high-need achievers are moderate risk takers, have an energetic approach to work, and prefer jobs that give them personal responsibility for outcomes.

It is widely assumed by managers that motivation of employees will lead to an increase in productivity. For workers who are "deeply involved with their work", this may be true (Mullins 1996), but perhaps surprisingly, overall evidence suggests that there is no strong correlation between positive motivation and high productivity (Wilson & Rosenfeld, 1990).

The problems caused by motivation, however, are well-understood. Frustration among employees with unrewarding jobs can lead to aggressive or withdrawn behaviour (Mullins, 1996), all of which may harm a firm's productivity. A lack of motivation increases the rate of absenteeism - generally highest among workers doing mundane and repetitive jobs (Cully et al 1999) - and the rate of employee turnover. In call centre, for example, the tedious and motivating nature of jobs often lead to very high rates of employee turnover - up to 35% per year in some cases (Gray, 2004). Continual replacement of staff is bad for business, since it results in high training and recruitment costs and an inexperienced workforce, so the desire to retain employees (often in the face of competition from other employers) may be a major reason why firms seek to motivate their staff. Motivational benefits such as flexible working hours are most commonly offered to employees who are highly-skilled; it is been suggested that this is because firms are especially keen to retain such employees, due to the difficulty and cost of replacing them (Cully et al 1999).

### **Intrinsic Motivation**

Intrinsic motivation is defined as the enjoyment of an interest in an activity for its own sake. Fundamentally viewed as an approach form of motivation, intrinsic motivation is identified as an important component of motivation goal theory. Most motivation goal and intrinsic motivational theorists argue that mastery goals are facilitative of intrinsic motivation and related mental processes and performance goals create negative effects. Mastery goals are said to promote intrinsic motivation by fostering perceptions of challenge, encouraging task involvement, generating excitement, and supporting self-determination while performance goals are the opposite. Performance goals are portrayed as undermining intrinsic motivation by instilling perceptions of threat, disrupting task involvement, and creating anxiety and

pressure (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

An alternative set of predictions may be derived from the approach-avoidance framework. Both performance-approach and mastery goals are focused on attaining competence and foster intrinsic motivation. More specifically, in performance-approach or mastery orientations, individuals perceive the motivation setting as a challenge, and this likely will create excitement, encourage cognitive functioning, increase concentration and task absorption, and direct the person toward success and mastery of information which facilitates intrinsic motivation. The performance-avoidance goal is focused on avoiding incompetence, where individuals see the motivation setting as a threat and seek to escape it (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996). This orientation is likely to elicit anxiety and withdrawal of effort and cognitive resources while disrupting concentration and motivation.

### **Extrinsic Motivation**

Extrinsic motivation is a construct that occurs whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome. Extrinsic motivation thus contrasts with intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing an activity simply for the enjoyment of the activity itself, rather than its instrumental value. However, unlike some perspectives that view extrinsically motivated behaviour as invariably non-autonomous, it proposes that extrinsic motivation can vary greatly in the degree to which it is autonomous. For example, a student who does his homework only because he fears parental sanctions for not doing it is extrinsically motivated because he is doing the work in order to attain the separable outcome of avoiding sanctions. Similarly, a student who does the work because she personally believes it is valuable for her chosen career is also extrinsically motivated because she too is doing it for its instrumental value rather than because she finds it interesting. Both examples involve instrumentalities, yet the latter case entails personal endorsement and a feeling of choice, whereas the former involves mere compliance with an external control. Both represent intentional behaviour, but the two types of extrinsic motivation vary in their relative autonomy.

Given that many of the educational activities prescribed in schools are not designed to be intrinsically interesting, a central question concerns how to motivate students to value and self-regulate such activities, and without external pressure, to carry them out on their own. This problem is described within Self-Determination Theory (SDT) in terms of fostering the *internalization and integration* of values and behavioural regulations (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Internalisation is the process of taking in

a value or regulation, and integration is the process by which individuals more fully transform the regulation into their own so that it will emanate from their sense of self.

External regulation is the only kind of motivation recognised by operant theorists (Skinner, 1953), and it is this type of extrinsic motivation that was typically contrasted with intrinsic motivation in early lab studies and discussions.

A second type of extrinsic motivation is *introjected regulation*. Introjection describes a type of internal regulation that is still quite controlling because people perform such actions with the feeling of pressure in order to avoid guilt or anxiety or to attain ego-enhancements or pride. Put differently, introjection represents regulation by contingent self-esteem. A classic form of introjection is *ego involvement* (Nicholls, 1984; Ryan, 1982), in which a person performs an act in order to enhance or maintain self-esteem and the feeling of worth. .

A more autonomous, or self-determined, form of extrinsic motivation is regulation through *identification*. Here, the person has identified with the personal importance of a behaviour and has thus accepted its regulation as his or her own. A boy who memorises spelling lists because he sees it as relevant to writing, which he values as a life goal, has identified with the value of this learning activity.

Finally, the most autonomous form of extrinsic motivation is *integrated regulation*. Integration occurs when identified regulations have been fully assimilated to the self. This occurs through self-examination and bringing new regulations into congruence with one's other values and needs. The more one internalizes the reasons for an action and assimilates them to the self, the more one's extrinsically motivated actions become self-determined.

Integrated forms of motivation share many qualities with intrinsic motivation, being both autonomous and unconflicted. However, they are still extrinsic because behavior motivated by integrated regulation is done for its presumed instrumental value with respect to some outcomes that are separate from the behavior, even though it is volitional and valued by the self.

Intrinsic motivation is a prototype of self-determined activity. Yet, as implied above, this does not mean that as extrinsic regulations become more internalised they are transformed into intrinsic motivation. The process of internalisation is developmentally important, as social values and regulations are continually being internalised over the life span. Still, we do not suggest that the continuum underlying types of extrinsic motivation is a *developmental* continuum, per se. One does not have to progress

through each stage of internalization with respect to a particular regulation; indeed, one can initially adopt a new behavioural regulation at any point along this continuum depending upon prior experiences and situational factors (Ryan, 1995). Some behaviors could begin as introjects, others as identifications.

A person might originally get exposed to an activity because of an external regulation (e.g., a reward), and (if the reward is not perceived as too controlling) such exposure might allow the person to experience the activity's intrinsically interesting properties, resulting in an orientation shift. Or a person who has identified with the value of an activity might lose that sense of value under a controlling mentor and move "backward" into an external regulatory mode. Thus, while there are predictable reasons for movement between orientations, there is no necessary "sequence." Developmental issues are, however, evident in two ways: the types of behaviors and values that can be assimilated to the self increase with growing cognitive and ego capacities; and it appears that people's general regulatory style does, on average, tend to become more "internal" over time (Chandler & Connell, 1987), in accord with the general organism tendencies toward autonomy and self-regulation (Ryan, 1995). Ryan and Connell (1989) tested the formulation that these different types of motivation do indeed lie along a continuum of relative autonomy.

Subsequent studies have extended these findings concerning types of extrinsic motivation, showing for example that more autonomous extrinsic motivation is associated with greater engagement (Connell & Wellborn, 1990), better performance (Miserandino, 1996), less dropping out (Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992), higher quality learning (Grolnick & Ryan, 1987), and greater psychological well-being (Sheldon & Kasser, 1995), among other outcomes.

Greater internalisation appears, then, to yield manifold adaptive advantages (Ryan, Kuhl, & Deci, 1997), including more behavioural effectiveness (due to lessened conflict and greater access to personal resources) and greater experienced well-being. Given the clear significance of internalisation for both personal experience and behavioural and performance outcomes, the critical applied issue concerns how to promote the autonomous regulation of extrinsically motivated behaviours. Because extrinsically motivated behaviours are not inherently interesting and thus must initially be externally prompted, the primary reason people are likely to be willing to do the behaviors is that they are valued by significant others to whom they feel (or would like to feel) connected, whether that be a family, a peer group, or a society.

### **2.1.6 Extrinsic Sources of Job Performance**

Extrinsic sources of job performance originate from the individual's environment. Smith (1969) identifies five facets that represent the most important characteristics of a job about which people experience affective responses, and constitute external sources of satisfaction: The Work Itself Hackman and Oldham (1976) developed a job characteristics model which contends that: "...providing employees with task variety, task significance, task autonomy, and feedback, will lead to three critical psychological states, (experienced meaningfulness of the work, experienced responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of actual results) which in turn, will lead to high internal work motivation, high quality work performance, high work satisfaction, and low absenteeism and turnover".

This argument is supported by the philosophy of total quality management, which emphasizes employee involvement and feedback to improve employee's job satisfaction (McAfee, Quarstein & Ardalan, 1995). The suggestion is that employees feel that they are a major part of the organization and are motivated to further participate in improving the system.

## **2.2 Theoretical Background**

Theoretical framework provides the necessary explanatory propositions upon which the study was meaningfully anchored. Research and theoretical postulations on job performance generally tend to bear so much in connection with age, gender and stress. These concerns are expressed in questions like these: what can be done to enhance job performance among colleges of education lecturers? How does age or sex affect lecturers job performance? How does job stress affect job performance among colleges of education lecturers?

In an attempt to find answers to the above questions, several theories have evolved. Some of which are reviewed here:

### **2.2.0 Job Performance Theories**

- Expectancy Theory
- Equity Theory
- McClelland Learned Theory
- Harrison Assessment Theory

### **2.2.1 Expectancy Theory – Victor Vroom**

Expectancy theory formulated by Vroom in the 1960s, posits that motivation is high when workers believe that high level of effort lead to high performance and high performance leads to the attainment of desired outcome. The expectancy theory of Victor Vroom deals with motivation and management. Vroom (1964) theory assumes that behaviour results from conscious choices among alternatives whose purpose it is to maximize pleasure and minimize pain. Together with Edward Lawler and Lyman Porter, Vroom (1964) suggested that the relationship between people's behaviour at work and their goals was not as simple as was first imagined by other scientists. Vroom (1964) realized that an employee's performance is based on individuals' factors such as personality, skills, knowledge, experience and abilities. The expectancy theory says that individuals have different sets of goals and can be motivated if they believe that:

- There is a positive correlation between efforts and performance
- Favourable performance will result in a desirable reward.
- The reward will satisfy an important need.
- The desire to satisfy the need is strong enough to make the effort worthwhile.

Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory is based upon the following three beliefs:

1. **Valence:** - Valence refers to the emotional orientations people hold with respect to outcomes (rewards). The depth of the want of an employee for extrinsic (money, promotion, time-off, benefits) or intrinsic (satisfaction) income rewards. Management must discover what employees' value.
2. Expectancy i.e Employees have different expectations and levels of confidence about what they are capable of doing. Management must discover what resources, training, or supervision employees need.
3. Instrumentality This is the perception of employees whether they will actually get what they desire even if it has been promised by a manager. Management must ensure that promises of reward are fulfilled and that employees are aware of that.

Vroom (op cit) suggests that an employee's beliefs about expectancy, instrumentality and valence interact psychologically to create a motivational force such that the employee acts in ways that bring pleasure and avoid pain. This force can be calculated via the following formula:  $Motivation = Valence \times Expectancy (Instrumentality)$ . This formula can be used to indicate and predict such things as job satisfaction, one's occupational choice, the method of staying in a job, and the effort

one might expend at work. Vroom's theory suggests that the individual will consider the outcomes associated with various levels of performance and elect to pursue the level that generates the greatest reward for him/her.

### **Expectancy**

Expectancy refers to a person's perception about the extent to which an effort (an input) results in a certain level of performance. A person's level of expectancy determines whether he/she believes that a high level of efforts results in a high level of performance. All other things being equal, an employee will be motivated to try a task, if he/she believes it can be done. This expectancy of performance may be thought of in terms of probabilities ranging from the acquisition of outcomes which may be gratifying and high value of performing well. According to expectancy theory, employees are motivated to perform at a high level only if they think that high performance will lead to outcomes such as pay, job security, interesting job assignment, bonuses or a feeling of accomplishment.

Vroom (1964) defines instrumentality as a probability belief linking one outcome (a high level of performance) to another outcome (rewards). Instrumentality may range from a probability of 1.0 (meaning that the attainment of the second outcome (the reward) is certain if the first outcome – excellent job performance is attained). If the probability is zero (meaning that there is no likely relationship between the first outcome and the second), an example of zero instrumentality would be examination grades that were distributed randomly as opposed to the grades awarded on the basis of excellent performance. Commission pay schemes are designed to make employees perceive that performance is positively instrumental for acquisition of money.

For the Ministry of Education to ensure a high level of performance among Colleges of Education Lecturers, they must have desired outcomes (positive valence) to high performance and ensure that the connection is communicated to the lecturers. The VIE theory holds that people have preferences among various outcomes. These preferences tend to reflect a person's underlying need state.

### **Valence**

The term valence refers to how desirable each of the outcomes available from a job or organization is to a person e.g. to many people, pay is the most important outcome of a job, for others feeling of accomplishment or enjoying one's work is more important than pay. An outcome is positively valued if an employee would prefer

having it to not having it. An outcome that the employee would rather avoid (fatigue, stress, noise, layoffs) is negatively valued. Outcomes towards which the employee appears indifferent are said to have zero valence. Valences refer to the level of satisfaction people expected to get from the outcomes as opposed to the actual satisfaction they get once they have attained the reward.

Vroom suggests that an employee's beliefs about expectancy, instrumentality, and valence interact psychologically to create a motivational force such that the employee acts in ways that bring pleasure and avoid pain. People tend to pursue levels of job performance that they believe will maximize their overall best interests (their subjective expected utility). There will be no motivational forces acting on an employee if any of these three conditions hold:

- The person does not believe that he/she can successfully perform the required task.
  - The person believes that successful task performance will not be associated with positively valued outcomes.
  - The belief is that outcomes associated with successful task completion will be a negative valent (i.e. have no value for that person).
- According to expectancy theory, managers can promote high levels of motivation in their organizations by taking steps to ensure that expectancy is high (people's thought that if they try, they can perform at a high level), instrumentality is high (people's thought that if they perform at a high level, they will receive certain outcomes), and valence is high (people's desire for the outcomes).

### **2.2.2 Porter Lawler's Expectancy Theory**

Lawler Porter focuses on value of rewards/outcomes i.e. their attractiveness to the individual. Every person desires a range of outcomes. Some may hold aversion/negative value. Positive rewards according to Porter Lawler reflect the needs suggested by Maslow where each person typically has a stable profile of preferences overtime. This notion is akin to "subjective utility" A subjective probability states that rewards will result from efforts that is the person's perception of the likelihood of reward success if he/she puts in effort. This confirms the probability that reward depends on performance and which in turn depends on effort. Lawler Porter argues that effort is not synonymous with performance, the important matters are:

- That catches all of ability (including personality traits – individual differences, intelligence, skills, aptitudes etc). Perceptions of role (activities and behaviours the



person feels they should be engaged in to do the performance successfully). In essence, the theory is an expectancy theory which postulates on the relationship among motivation, satisfaction and job performance as well as emphasises that corporate management should assess how closely levels of job satisfaction are related to levels of job performance. One implication of this theory is that by recognising the important of reward in the performance –job satisfaction, there is a need to consider relevant aspects of operating systems in motivation

### **Application of Expectancy Theory to Job Performance**

The relevance of job satisfaction and motivation are very crucial to the long term growth of any educational system around the world. They probably rank alongside professional knowledge and skills, centre competencies, educational resources and strategies as the veritable determinants of educational success and performance. Professional's knowledge, skills, and center competencies occur when one feels effective in one's behaviour. In other words, professional knowledge, skills and competencies can be seen when one is taking on and mastering challenging tasks directed at educational success and performance. The above factors are closely similar to self efficacy, and of course, it is well known that many lecturers lose or fail to develop self-efficacy within educational setting because there is no clear link between expectancy, instrumentality and valence from their employers That is, the existing salary structure, benefits and working conditions do not satisfy their basic needs in as much as other sectors of the economy have better salary structured and motivation as well as enhanced working conditions. In addition, needs satisfaction and motivation to work are very essential in the lives of lecturers because they form the fundamental reason for working life. While almost every lecturer works in order to satisfy his/her needs in life, he/she constantly agitates for need satisfaction. Job satisfaction in this context is the ability of the teaching job to meet lecturers' needs and improve their job/teaching performance.

### **2.2.3 Equity Theory**

Equity theory is considered as one of the justice theories. It was first developed in 1962 by John Stacey Adams, a workplace and behavioural psychologist, who asserts that employees seek to maintain equity between the inputs that they bring to a job and the outcomes that they received from it against the perceived inputs and outcomes of others (Adams, 1965). The belief is that people value fair treatment which causes them to be motivated to keep the fairness maintained within the relationships of their

co-workers and the organisation.

The structure of equity in the workplace is based on the ratio of inputs to outcomes. Inputs are the contributions made by the employee for the organization, these include the work done by the employees and behaviour brought by the employee as well as their skills and other useful experiences the employee may contribute for the good of the company.

Equity theory proposes that individuals who perceive themselves as either under rewarded or over-rewarded will experience distress, and that this distress leads to efforts to restore equity within the relationship. It focuses on determining whether the distribution of resources is fair to both relation partners. Equity theory postulates that perceived inequality leads to dissatisfaction and attempt to reduce the inequality means for reducing inequality include reducing one's productivity in response to perceived poor reward, raising one's productivity in response to a disproportionately increase reward, trying to increase one's reward by asking for promotion, leaving the job or changing ones perception. In any position, an employee wants to feel that his/her pay, if an employee feels that his/her contributions and work performance are being rewarded with his/her pay. If an employee feels underpaid, it will result in the employee been hostile towards the organisation and perhaps their co-workers which may result in the employee not performing well at work anymore.

Additionally, this theory holds that if the amount that an employee is expected to receive is currently in line with what he is receiving, job performance increases. But if it is below, job performance decreases. Porter and Lawler theory, on the other hand, holds that, whenever an employee understands his roles in the workplace, such an employee's performance is bound to increase. However, when there is role confusion, performance seems to decrease. Hence equity theory stresses that there should be fairness in the distribution and exchange of resources. This could best be explained as the employee's expectation being in line with what he is currently experiencing that may increase his job performance.

#### **2.2.4 Theory of Needs (McClelland)**

McClelland (2010) proposes that an individual's specific needs are acquired over time and shaped by one's life experience. He devotes his career to studying three secondary needs that he considers particularly important sources of motivation; needs for achievement, need for affiliation and need for power.

**Needs for Achievement:** - People with high need for motivation want to accomplish

appropriately set challenging goals through their efforts. They prefer working alone rather than in teams because of their strong need assume personal responsibility for tasks. High motivation people are therefore most satisfied with their jobs, after the challenges, feedback, and recognition. High achievers also like to be successful in competitive situations and have strong need for unambiguous feedback regarding their success. Money is relatively weak motivator to them, except that it provides feedback and provides recognition for their success. In contrast, employee with a low need for motivation performed their work better when money is used as a financial incentive. Achievers need regular feedback in order to monitor the level of their achievements; they prefer to work with other achievers.

**Affiliation:** - This is a learnt need in which people seek approval from others, conform to their wishes and expectations and avoid conflict and confrontation. High employees actively support others and try to smooth out conflicts that occur in meetings and other social settings. High employees are more effective in coordinating roles, in sales position, allocating scarce resources and in decision making that potentially generate conflict.

**Power:-** This is a learned need in which people want to control their environment, including people and material resources to benefit either themselves (personalized power) or others socialized power. People with a high need for personalized power enjoyed their power for its own sake, and used it to advance their career and other personal interests. They desire loyalty from others and gain satisfaction from conquering or dominating them. People with high need for socialization want power and they are concerned with the consequences of their own actions on others.

McClelland (2010) use the Thematic Appreciation Test (TAT) as a tool to measure the individual needs of different people. The TAT is a test of imagination that presents the subject with a series of ambiguous pictures and the subjects are asked to develop a spontaneous story for each picture. The assumption of each subject will project his or her own needs into the story. Psychologists have developed fairly reliable scoring techniques for the TAT. The test determines the individuals score for each of the needs of achievement; indicates that the enjoyment of these various work aspects is highly correlated with good performance. Employees who enjoy most aspects of their job tend to perform more effectively, the more an employee tends to dislike aspects of his/her work, the lesser the performance.

### **Application of McClelland Theory of Need to Job Performance**

McClelland (op. cit) theory considers three secondary needs that are particularly important sources of job performance. They are need for achievement, need for affiliation and need for power. The McClelland's theory of need is applicable in teaching profession, a lecturer that has high need for motivation tends to perform wonderfully and work harder to make their students learn perfectly and be independent, so that, the student would be productive in future both to him/herself and to the society in general. The highly achieving lecturers would always aspire for the success of their students, to such lecturer's; money is relatively weak motivation for them, except it provides feedback and recognition for their success.

Lecturers with low need for motivation would only perform their work better when money is used as financial incentive but the result is not always productive. Lecturers are expected to render a very high job performance because the ministry of education is always curious regarding the job performance of its lecturers.

Lecturers with high need for affiliation tend to be more effective than those with low need for affiliation in coordinating roles. Highly need for affiliation lecturers create a good social, psychological and physical climate in the classroom for the students. Exemplary lecturers are able to integrate professional knowledge (subject matter and pedagogy), interpersonal knowledge, (human relationship) and interpersonal knowledge (ethics and reflective capacity) when he/she is highly affiliated with the job. McClelland argues that effective leaders should have a high need for socialised power, rather than personalised power. In other words, lecturers as leaders must exercise their power within the framework of moral standard. The ethical guidance of their need for power develops follower trust and respect for the leader as well as commitment to the leader's vision.

### **2.2.5 Harrison Assessments Theory**

Harrison Assessment Theory is classified into two broad groups – (1) paradox theory (ii) enjoyment performance theory.

#### **i. Paradox Theory**

Both Jung and Freud recognised that the human mind is based upon opposite forces. Paradox theory extends that principle to include complementary and paradoxical forces and applies it to specific traits. Paradox theory includes a series of principles that can be applied to the individual psyche as well as organizational dynamics.

According to paradox theory, our lives involve dealing with a series of

paradoxes. Each paradox is a relationship between two categories of traits - “Gentle” traits and “Dynamic” traits. If our range of behaviour is able to extend to both the Gentle and Dynamic aspects of the paradox, we will have an exceptional capability and means of fulfillment related to that aspect of our life. This is called balance versatility. If our range of behaviour extends only to the dynamic aspect of the paradox, it is called “aggressive imbalance”. If our range of behaviour extends only to the gentle aspect of the paradox, it is called “passive imbalance”. In either case, our behaviour will have some counter productive tendencies and we will experience lesser fulfillment. If our range of behaviour extends to neither aspect of a paradox, it is called “balanced deficiency”. In that case, we will also have some counter-productive tendencies or lack of fulfillment. By measuring traits and organizing them according to the paradoxical model, we gain insight into the manner in which each person manages each paradox. Thus, we gain a wealth of understanding about an individual’s behaviour patterns that is well beyond the traditional bipolar system of measurement.

For example, diplomatic and frank are a paradoxical pair of traits that are included in the HA system. Frank is the dynamic aspect of communication and diplomatic is the gentle aspect. A person who is able to be both frank and diplomatic at the same time will be an effective communicator as far as resolving everyday work relationship issues. A person who tends to be very frank but lacking in diplomacy will be quite blunt. Being blunt is an example of an “aggressive imbalance”, frankness is the dynamic traits and diplomacy is the gentle trait. Someone, who tends, to be very diplomatic and at the same time extremely lacking in frankness, will tend to be evasive. This pattern can also indicate a greater tendency towards “passive aggressive” behaviour and is also likely to accumulate miscommunications and misunderstanding with others as well as create greater distance between oneself and others. This pattern of evasiveness is considered a “passive imbalance” because diplomacy is the gentle trait and frankness is the dynamic trait. A fourth possible pattern in which the person is lacking in both frankness and diplomacy is called “balanced deficiency”. This pattern also indicates difficulties with people in that the person will tend to avoid both types of communication. This inevitably leads to problems in relationships for which the person will be less equipped to deal with through communication.

If these traits were used in traditional bipolar method or measurement, it would erroneously assume an “either or relationship between frankness and diplomacy

because bipolar structure implies an either or relationship. It fails to consider the option that the person could be neither, both, or independently varying degrees of each. A score towards the middle of the bipolar scale would not distinguish between good communicator (balance versatility) and a poor communicator (balance deficiency). It is precisely this relationship between the independently varying complementary traits that illuminates new dimensions of our understanding of the individual's behaviour patterns.

The term paradox theory is used because the complementary traits appear to be contradictory, but in fact they are not. A person who embraces only one side of the paradox will consider the traits to be contradictory or opposite. Only a person who has psychologically resolved the paradox will consider the pair of traits to be mutually compatible. For example, a person who can be both frank and diplomatic will consider the two traits to be compatible and a person who is strong in only one trait will consider the two to be contradictory.

The Harrison assessments contain 12 different paradoxes including; Opinions (certainty and openness), Problem solving (analytical and intuitive), Strategic (analyzes pitfalls and risking), Delegation (authoritative and collaborative), Innovation (persistent and inventive), Communication (frankness and diplomacy), Power (assertive and helpful), Motivation (self-motivated and job stress management), Self (self-acceptance and self improvement), Discipline (enforcing and warmth/empathy), Organization (organized and flexible) and Acumen (analyses pitfalls and optimistic).

### **Strategy used for developing the gentle –dynamic aspects**

In constructing the profile and its interpretations of gentle and dynamic traits, the first task is to formulate the particular traits and their complements. There is no such thing as an exact complement because all of the gentle traits are complementary to all the dynamic traits. However, some pairs of traits are more directly complementary. In addition, it is useful to organise the pairs of traits according to a topic to make it easier to see the overall patterns of the human psyche as well as organisational dynamics. The traits and their complements are selected on the basis of usefulness through a process of trait error, and gradual refinement. Traits usefulness are determined in four ways:

- they are selected in order to identify the requirements of a wide variety of work situations
- they are selected to identify a wide variety of character strengths and personal

needs at

- they are selected such that they will relate to a wider variety of task requirements
- they are selected in order to identify areas for personal growth that would enhance work potential and facilitate team effectiveness.

### **Balanced Versality**

Each of the gentle traits has a synergistic effect when combined with its complementary dynamic traits. The two together create something more than just the sum of two unconnected qualities. Where behaviour extends to both the complementary traits, the individual can be said to have an exceptional capability in that area. For example, an individual who has strong traits of both frankness and diplomacy has an exceptional ability to communicate in the sense of working through difficult issues in relationship.

This person will tend to be very frank when it is appropriate but will also be able to be diplomatic at the same time. Such an individual will work effectively with others and be able to work out problems when they arise. Another example of balanced versatility would be self-motivation combined with job stress management. In that case, the person will tend to be very productive and relaxed at the same time. This tends to make the person's actions more effective. Another example is self-acceptance combined with self improvement. Here the person has a healthy ego structure. He/she accepts him/herself while at the same time appreciates the need for continual improvement and self-development.

The degree to which our personality is versatile corresponds to the degree to which we are capable of responding appropriately to a variety of situations. We may have traits that enable us to respond effectively to some situations however, when the situation changes and complementary traits are needed, we may or may not be able to respond effectively. For example, in day to day situation we may be required to respond to situation decisively, making quick decisions with confidence. However, we may occasionally be required to make an extremely important decision that will require careful analysis, slower tempo and a careful attitude. If we apply our careful and analytical mode to each of our everyday decisions, our overall productivity would be greatly reduced.

Someone who has achieved balanced versatility is able to identify the requirement for the situation and change his/her behaviour accordingly. He/she

probably does this instinctively without even thinking about it. It is precisely this balanced versatility that is the key to creative human potential. By examining the particular area of balanced versatility, we are able to determine the individual's capability and appropriate role.

### **Imbalance**

Where behaviour extends only to one trait of a complementary pair, it is called an "imbalance". This imbalance will often manifest in counterproductive behaviours. The degree of the counter-productivity depends on the extent of the imbalance. If a person, for example, is very frank and fails to consider the inappropriateness of bluntness in some situations, the person is like a broken record that manifests in the same way in all situations, failing to appropriately adapt his/her behaviour to different situations. Thus, the elements of personal discrimination and choice are limited by a rigid psychological pattern. This limitation forms an imbalance in the individual's life that can disrupt his/her happiness and career success. Imbalance can also be observed by comparing the strengths of all the dynamic traits to the strengths of all gentle traits. A passive imbalance would indicate that the gentle traits are much stronger overall than the dynamic traits. Aggressive imbalances in the interpersonal areas indicate a "roughness" to the personality. Strong passive imbalances in the interpersonal areas indicate a degree of suppression or lack of personal power and if extreme can indicate a tendency towards passive aggression.

When either the gentle quality or the dynamic quality is much greater than its complementary partners, the strength of that positive quality cease to be an asset and becomes counter-productive and self-defeating. For example, a person who scores high in frank and low in diplomacy will be blunt hence what was potentially a useful attribute such as being very straight forward or forthright becomes a destructive attribute that interferes with productivity and harmonious coexistence. Using this method of analysing complementary traits enables one to determine the degree of strength of a negative quality by measuring the degree of difference between the two potentially positive traits.

### **ii. Enjoyment Performance Theory**

Enjoyment performance theory states that an individual will perform more effectively on a job if that individual enjoys the types of tasks that are required by the job, or has interests that relate to the position, and has the work environment conditions which correspond with the person's work environment preferences. In



other words, the enjoyment of all the various aspects of a job is a significant indication of a higher level of performance, assuming the person has the education and training necessary for that job. Research indicates that the enjoyment of these various work aspects highly correlate with good performance.

Behavioural theory tells us that we tend to do the thing that brings us enjoyment and avoid things that bring us displeasure. The enjoyment of a particular type of activity produces the tendency to do that type of activity more often. The enjoyment performance theory extends behavioural to say that when we enjoy and thus do an activity more often, we tend to get better at it. Our improved performance in turn reinforces our enjoyment of that activity. Conversely, if we dislike a particular activity, we tend to do it less often. When we do that activity less often, we tend not to get better at it, and our less performance reinforces our dislike of that activity.

Thus performance and enjoyment are linked because the level of enjoyment of a particular activity generates the quality of performance related to that activity and the quality of performance of an activity generates the level of enjoyment of that activity. Employees who enjoy most aspects of their work tend to perform more effectively. The more an employee tends to dislike aspects of his works, the lesser the performance. Thus if we are able to determine the degree to which a person will enjoy the various aspects of a job, we will have a strong indication of probability of success in the job, assuming the person has the education and experience necessary for the position.

### **Application of Harrison Assessment Theory to Performance**

Harrison assessment theory consists of psychological opposites (paradox theory) and behavioural theory (enjoyment performance theory). This theory deals with traits possessed by an individual in the work place. It is precisely the relationship between the independently varying complementary traits that illuminate new dimensions of our understanding of individual's behaviour patterns.

The traits and their complementarily were selected on the basis of usefulness through the process of trial and error, and gradual reinforcement. Each trait has a synergistic effect when combined with its complementary. According to Harrison assessment theory, our lives involve dealing with a series of paradoxes, and each paradox is a relationship between two categories of traits "Gentle and Dynamic" traits. The outcomes of paradox theory was based on the three principles –

- Balanced Versatility

- Imbalanced Versatility
- Balanced Deficiency.

**Balanced Versatility:-** This is when the behaviour extends to both complementary traits i.e. “Gentle traits and Dynamic Traits.

**Imbalanced Versatility:** - Is when a behaviour extends only to one trait of complementary pair i.e. to either “gentle traits or dynamic traits alone.

**Balanced Deficiency:-** when a behaviour does not extend to both gentle traits nor dynamic traits, the complementary traits.

Gentle and dynamic frankness and diplomacy are examples of balanced versatile. The two together create something more than just the sum of two unconnected qualities, where behaviour extends to both the complementary traits. An individual can have an exceptional capability in the two. For example, an individual who has strong traits of both frankness and diplomacy should have an exceptional ability to communicate in the sense of working through difficult issues in relationship.

An individual, that is frank and at the same time diplomatic, will work effectively with others and will be able to work out problems when they arise. Another example of balanced versatility is self motivation with job stress management. In that case, the person would be very productive, relaxed and more effective. More examples of balanced versatility include opinions (certainty combined with openness), problem solving (analytical combined with intuitive), strategic (analyses pitfalls combined with risking), delegation (authoritative combined with collaborative), innovation (persistent combined with inventive), self (self acceptance combined with self improvement), communication (frank combined with diplomacy), power (assertive combined with helpful), motivation (self-motivated combined with self management), discipline (enforcing combined with empathy), organisation (organised combined with flexible).

An effective and productive lecturer must be balanced versatile for him to perform to the expectation and to be able to impart knowledge to the student. A lecturer with imbalanced versatility and balanced deficiency may have an element of personal discrimination and their choices may be limited by a rigid psychological pattern. In that case, such lecturer would not be effective and productive and his/her performance will have shortcoming.

### **2.2.6 Multi-Disciplinary Theory of Job Stress**

Cooper and Marshall (1976) argue that job stress could be adequately investigated through multi-dimensional disciplinary approach. They stress the need to verify the entire area of problems by which an individual in a work environment is taxed by stimulus demands made upon him/her. This theory acknowledges that stressors in the work environment can and do affect an individual in his/her environment vice-versa. Therefore, when isolating the sources and effects of job stress in a specific occupational group, one also has to be aware of the importance of extra-organisational sources of job stress which can affect performance.

The area of individual physical and mental health are: the home environment, social environment, work environment s well as individual differences and department. Other areas of emphasis are specific potential stressors in the work environment. These include such factors as the effects of shift work, under utilisation of abilities, under load and boredom, work overload, role conflict, and inequality of pay, job future ambiguity, and relationship at work, equipment and danger.

Potential detrimental outcomes are also included in this theory. These include behaviour outcomes such as impaired job performance, alcohol and drug abuse, cigarette smoking, physical illness such as migraine and hypertension and mental illness such as depression.

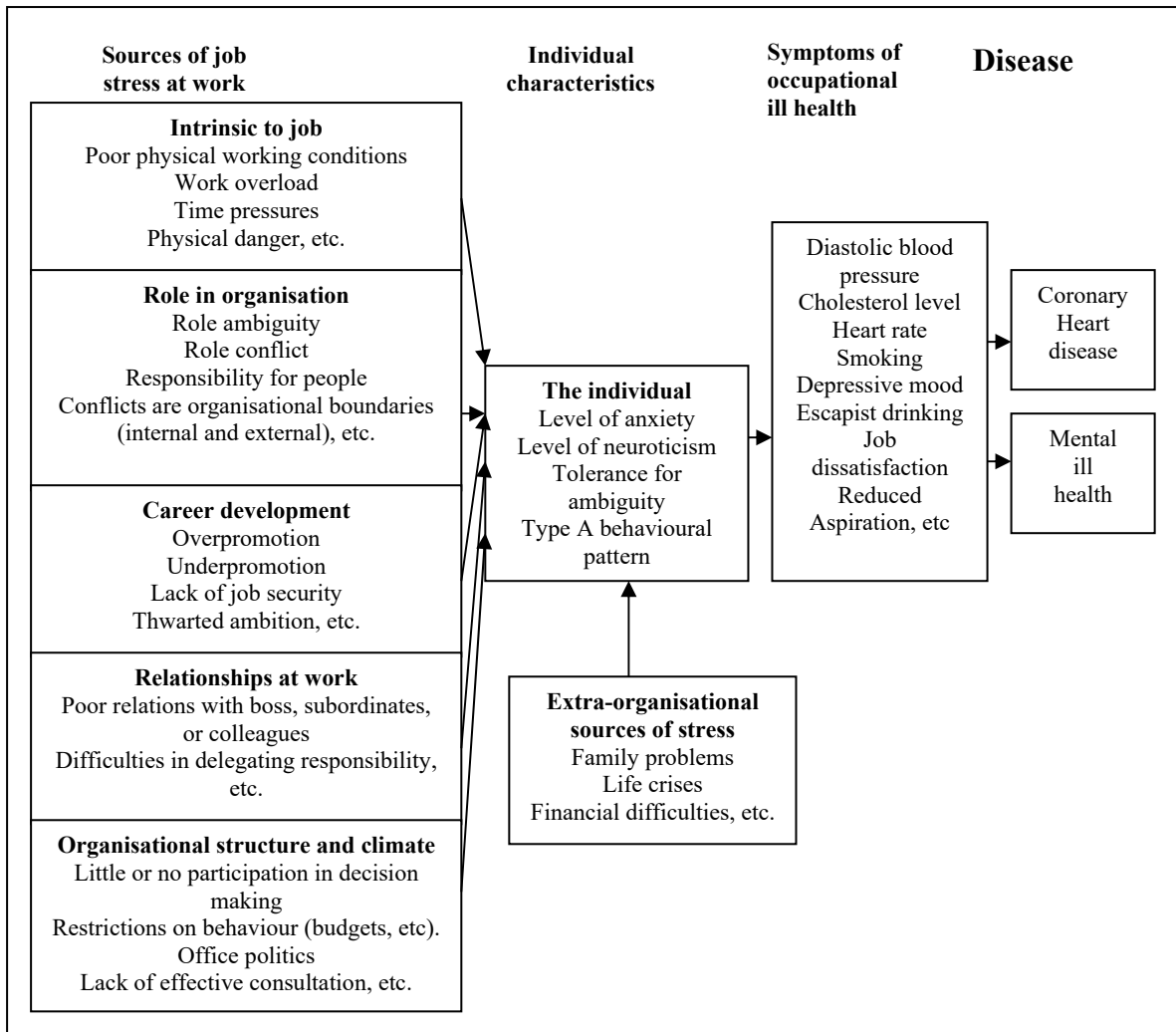
Lazarus (1994) also argues that the major areas which cause job stress are the three major setting forms of behaviour (i.e. work, home and social settings) form and interaction with the individual which in turn may affect changes in stressor(s) relationship in other areas. When an individual is stressed to a sufficient extent in one or more of the processor arenas, then the job stress will appear in one of the manifestation arenas. The specific nature of manifestation of course, depends on a number of variables but clearly an individual within context situation. Therefore, when exposed to the same apparent stress, the person may engage in escapist drinking while other may develop bronchitis.

### **2.2.7 The Need Theory of Job Stress**

It is recognised that needs are the primary sources or the moving force of every behaviour or action of human beings and animals. The “need” theory of job stress asserts that individuals have need that met through working environment and that if such needs are not met through working environment they are experienced as sources of stress. Basically a need is an internal demand of an organism which must be met in order to ensure the normal functioning of the organism (Chaplin 1975). Capla (1964)

offered an early formulation of this point of view in which he argued that:

- A person must have “SUPPLIES”
- The provision of the supplies is equivalent to the satisfaction to interpersonal need and - Inadequate provision of the psychological supplies is conducive to mental disorder.



**Source:** Michie, (2002)

**Fig. 2.1: Model of Job Stress at Work**

Webb (1974) claims that individual requirements for well-being are met through social relationships and that relationships are specialised for what they provide (good job), citing an example in his analysis that the next for guidance is met through experts and professionals and nurturance through parenting. Other researchers postulate different needs. For example, the maintenance and enhancement of self-regard “self-esteem” and mastering”. These cannot but be through good jobs whether stressful or not stressful. Webb hypothesized that the absence of a need-satisfying relationship leads to distress, the form of which will be specific to the relational deficit.

### 2.2.8 The Transactional Theory of Job Stress

The transactional theory of job stress has various components or stages which comprise a system which adequately describes the operation of stress. It treats job stress as an intervening variable; the reflection of transaction between the person and his environment (Cox, 1978 page 20-21). The stages of Cox's version of the

transactional model of job stress are:

- Environmental demand.
- Perception of the demand and the ability to cope (influenced by personality differences and cognitive appraisal of the potentially job stress full situation.
- Stress responses including psychological changes as a result of stress.
- The consequences of coping responses; and
- Feedback among the various stages of types of coping and their effects on the stressful situation.

The transactional model of job stress has long been the focus of research by Lazarus (1996, 1990). The concepts he has articulated have been particularly influential. His concept utilized psychological stressors in the environment, in terms of subject, appraisals of the disturbance caused by such event i.e. job stress existed if a subject appraised the events in the environment as exceeding his/her adaptive resources. Attempts have been made to quantify physiological stressors in terms of the ability to cause physiological disturbance (Rahe, 1967). Responses to stressors are affected by subjects propensities to various mechanism of coping such as problem focused to emotion oriented coping (Lazarus, 1984). Although, there are variations of transaction model of stress, we have at least three basic elements: (a) Antecedents (b) Mediators of job stress and (c) outcome of job stress (Jerusalem, 1993).

The antecedents tend to be divided into personal and environmental variables. Thus, certain personality traits, such as neuroticism type A behaviour and locus of control hardness appear regularly at the left hand side of stressors model or equation because they are thought to influence a person's perception of, or reaction to job stress events. Aspects of the environment such as the level of an occupation or its workload appear in this position as antecedents also. There are many more conceivable antecedents that the outcome. Job stress outcome may be variables such as objective indices of healthy measures, mental healthy outcome or social outcome such as feelings of exhaustion and burn out.

### **2.2.9 Theories of Motivation**

Theories of motivation can be classified as being either content or process theories. Content theories focus on factors within a person, such as: needs; goals and motives, that energise, direct, sustain and stop behaviour. Maslow's theory assumes that people have a need to grow and develop. The implication is that motivational programmes have a higher probability of success if need deficiencies are reduced.

Although Maslow's need hierarchy has not met rigorous standards of scientific testing, it appears that an adequately fulfilled need doesn't provide a good target for managers in building motivators that can influence performance (Maslow, 1991).

Alderfer (1972) offered a three-level need hierarchy of existence, relatedness and growth needs. In addition to the satisfaction-progression process proposed by Maslow, Alderfer stated that there is also a frustration-regression process at work that plays a major role in motivating people (Alderfer, 1972). Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation identifies two types of factors in the workplace, namely satisfiers and dissatisfiers. One apparent weakness of the theory is that other researchers have not replicated its findings. Despite this and other shortcomings, it does focus on job-related factors in managerial terminology (Gibson, 2000).

McClelland (2010) has proposed a theory of learned needs. The behaviour associated with the needs of achievement, affiliation, and power is instrumental in an individual's understanding of these needs (Gibson 2000). The content theories concentrate on individuals, placing primary emphasis on people's characteristics. Each of the process theories has a specific orientation. Reinforcement theory focuses on the work environment, virtually ignoring the notion of individual needs and attitudes. Expectancy theory emphasises individual, job and environmental variables. It also recognizes differences in needs, perceptions and beliefs. Equity theory primarily addresses the relationship between attitudes towards inputs and outcomes and toward reward practices. Goal-setting theory emphasises the cognitive processes and the role of intentional behaviour in motivation (Gibson, 2000).

Over the past century, many elaborate theories have been developed to explain what factors motivate employees. Perhaps the simplest view, put forward by Frederick Taylor in the early 20th century is the 'rational-economic' idea that employees are motivated mainly by money (Peña & Reis, 2001). For workers in mundane jobs, this may generally be the case, but for more highly-skilled employees 'psychological factors' such as recognition and a sense of motivation may be more important. Even among low-skilled manual workers, studies have found that pay is not the only major concern for employees (Mullins, 1996).

The social psychologists who formulated these theories were experts in explaining needs, motives and values. They were not, however, so astute at explaining what managers could do to motivate employees. Despite the abundance of theories, research and commentary, many managers still chose to ignore the academically

generated theories of motivation (Lingard & Rowlinson 1998).

Such theories are often criticized because they fail to take into account differences in personality: some needs may be more important to certain individuals than to others (Mullins, 1996). Cultural differences may also have an effect: workers in Asian countries may be strongly motivated by a loyalty to an organization, whereas in Western societies, which are more individualistic, self-fulfillment is of greater importance (Schein, 1985). It has been argued that all humans have essentially the same needs regardless of culture, but that a person's cultural background may nonetheless have an impact upon how they define satisfaction of a particular need (Di Cesare & Sadri, 2003).

Numerous other concepts have been put forward to explain motivation. These include: "expectancy theory", the idea that employees' motivation to work depends upon their expectation of a particular reward; "equity theory", the idea that employees are motivated by a desire to be rewarded fairly for their work; and "reinforcement theory", the idea that positive recognition of good performance will motivate employees to perform well in future (Wilson & Rosenfeld, 1990).

Companies can seek to motivate their employees with many different types of financial reward. In a study by Hong (1995), the three types of benefits that were found to have the greatest impact on workers' performance were end-of-year bonuses, dividends and pensions. These benefits had a strong effect upon employees' perceived levels of motivation, although their impact upon productivity was less dramatic. Larger firms often offer share ownership schemes as an incentive to their employees, but Cully (1999) find that the presence of such a scheme has no measurable effect upon workers' motivation or performance. This is perhaps because participation in share-ownership schemes tends to be low among non-managerial employees.

Over the past two decades, a major theme in organisation has been the "reengineering" of jobs in an attempt to make them more psychologically rewarding (Peña & Reis, 2001). The idea of motivating workers by reorganising their jobs (which costs little and may actually result in financial savings), rather than by providing material benefits has obvious appeal to cash-strapped firms.

Reengineering may involve "job rotation" (switching employees between tasks to avoid boredom), "job enlargement" (expanding the range of tasks carried out by an employee) or "job enrichment" (altering the nature of an employee's job to increase their freedom and responsibility) (Mullins 1996). Job rotation and enlargement, which



represent "add nothing to nothing" in terms of job satisfaction may be resented by employees and can at most achieve short-term increases in productivity (Thompson & McHugh, 1990). However, there is evidence that the enrichment of jobs by organising workers into self-managing teams leads to improvements in productivity and in employee relations (Cully,1999). Of course, like most motivational schemes, the success of job enrichment will depend on an individual's personality - there will always be some workers who prefer simple tasks to jobs in which they are given responsibility and autonomy (Mullins, 1996).

Another recent trend in employment has been the introduction of family-friendly attitudes, such as permitting employees to work from home or to work only during school term. This has clear motivational benefits. In a recent survey, 50per cent of managers believed that family-friendly policies resulted in "happier staff", and some noted that the policies also reduced employee turnover and absenteeism (Cully, 1999). However, Hong, (1995) listed "flexible working time" among the benefits that had the least impact upon employee's performance. It is possible that this discrepancy - between a British study and a Taiwanese one - is due to cultural differences.

Social interactions with colleagues are an important source of motivation in many jobs. To some extent these are beyond managers' control, but firms can seek to reduce the risk of demotivating personal conflicts occurring, by taking care during the recruitment and selection process to hire appropriate individuals who will fit in with a team's culture (Beehr, 2002).

There is evidence that employees are best-motivated when they are pursuing specific "goals". They work best when the goals set are challenging but realistic, and when employees themselves are given the opportunity to participate in deciding upon the goals (Mullins 1996).

Proponents of 'reinforcement theories' of motivation argue that it is particularly important for managers to recognize and reward employees who perform well. Such recognition also helps individuals to fulfill the higher needs in Maslow and Alderfer's hierarchies, providing workers with self-esteem and a sense of accomplishment. An experiment by Graen, in which workers were induced to perform better in their jobs either by verbal recognition of good work or by a pay increase, found that performance was improved more significantly by the 'intrinsic' reward of verbal recognition than by the extrinsic reward of additional money (Mullins 1996). Cully, (1999) also notes that evidence that regular performance appraisals and monitoring of individual quality do

help to boost morale and improve workplace well-being (as measured by indicators such as the levels of absence and resignations). However, regular monitoring can have the disadvantage of creating stress amongst workers.

Any management that attempts to improve an individuals' job performance has to utilize motivation theories. This results from the fact that motivation is concerned with goal directed behaviour. A major reason why employees' behaviours differ is that people's needs and goals vary. Social, cultural, hereditary and job factors influence behaviour. To understand the nature of motivation, managers must learn about subordinates' needs (Burke 2003).

Abraham Maslow famously identified a 'hierarchy of needs' that individuals have; his five-level hierarchy was later simplified by Clayton Alderfer into three levels. The most basic are 'existence needs' (concerned with survival), followed by 'relatedness needs' (concerned with the desire to fit in socially with others), and finally there are 'growth needs' (concerned with self-actualization and the development of one's potential). An individual will seek to satisfy each set of needs in turn - when basic needs have been largely fulfilled, they will cease to be a source of motivation and the individual will move up to the next level in the hierarchy (Wiley 1997). Frederick Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory also makes a distinction between lower-level needs and higher-level ones, although Herzberg (1997) argues that the provision of basic needs such as adequate pay cannot truly provide employees with satisfaction; such 'hygiene factors' merely serve to prevent dissatisfaction (Tietjen & Myers 1998).

### **The Hierarchal Model of Work Motivation**

Work motivation has been conceptualised in many different ways. Despite being similar in nature, many work motivation approaches have been developed separately, suggesting that most work motivation theories are in accordance with one another instead of competing (Rabideau,2005). Motivational researchers have sought to promote a hierarchal model of approach and avoidance of work motivation by incorporating the two prominent theories: the motivation motive approach and the motivation goal approach. Motivation motives include the need for motivation and the fear of failure. These are the more predominant motives that direct our behaviour toward positive and negative outcomes. Motivation goals are viewed as more solid cognitive representations pointing individuals toward a specific end. There are three types of these motivation goals: a performance-approach goal, a performance-avoidance goal, and a mastery goal. A performance-approach goal is focused on

attaining competence relative to others; a performance-avoidance goal is focused on avoiding incompetence relative to others, while a mastery goal is focused on the development of competence itself and of task master. Motivation motives can be seen as direct predictors of achievement-relevant circumstances. Thus, motivation motives are said to have an indirect or distal influence, and motivation goals are said to have a direct or proximal influence on achievement-relevant outcomes (Elliot & McGregor, 1999).

These motives and goals are viewed as working together to regulate motivation behaviour. The hierarchical model presents motivation goals as predictors for performance outcomes. The model is being further conceptualised to include more approaches to work motivation. One weakness of the model is that it does not provide an account of the processes responsible for the link between motivation goals and performance. As this model is enhanced, it becomes more useful in predicting the outcomes of achievement-based behaviours (Elliot & McGregor, 1999).

### **Motivation Goals and Information Seeking**

Theorists have proposed that people's motivation goals affect their achievement-related attitudes and behaviors. Two different types of achievement-related attitudes include task-involvement and ego-involvement. Task-involvement is a motivational state in which a person's main goal is to acquire skills and understanding whereas the main goal in ego-involvement is to demonstrate superior abilities (Butler, 1999). One example of an activity where someone strives to attain mastery and demonstrate superior ability is school work. However situational cues, such as the person's environment or surroundings can affect the success of achieving a goal at any time.

Studies confirm that a task-involvement activity more often results in challenging attributions and increasing effort (typically in activities providing an opportunity to learn and develop competence) than in an ego-involvement activity. Intrinsic motivation, which is defined as striving to engage in activity because of self-satisfaction, is more prevalent when a person is engaged in task-involved activities. When people are more ego-involved, they tend to take on a different conception of their ability, where differences in ability limit the effectiveness of effort. Ego-involved individuals are driven to succeed by outperforming others, and their feelings of success depend on maintaining self-worth and avoiding failure. On the other hand, task-involved individuals tend to adopt their conception of ability as learning through applied effort (Butler, 1999). Therefore, less able individuals will feel more successful

as long as they can satisfy an effort to learn and improve. Ego-invoking conditions tend to produce less favourable responses to failure and difficulty.

Competence moderated attitudes and behaviours are more prevalent in ego-involved activities than task-involved. Motivation does not moderate intrinsic motivation in task-involving conditions, in which people of all levels of ability could learn to improve. In ego-involving conditions, intrinsic motivation was higher among higher achievers who demonstrated superior ability than in low achievers who could not demonstrate such ability (Butler, 1999). These different attitudes towards motivation can also be compared in information seeking.

Task and ego-involving settings bring about different goals, conceptions of ability, and responses to difficulty. They also promote different patterns of information seeking. People of all levels of ability will seek information relevant to attaining their goal of improving mastery in task-involving conditions. However they need to seek information regarding self-appraisal to gain a better understanding of their self-capacity (Butler, 1999). On the other hand, people in ego-involving settings are more interested in information about social comparisons, assessing their ability relative to others.

### **2.2.10 Self-Worth Theory in Work Motivation**

Self-worth theory states that in certain situations, students stand to gain by not trying and deliberately withholding effort. If poor performance is a threat to a person's sense of self-esteem, this lack of effort is likely to occur. This may often occur after an experience of failure. Failure threatens self-esteem and creates uncertainty about an individual's capability to perform well on a subsequent basis. If the following performance turns out to be poor, then doubts concerning ability are confirmed. Self-worth theory states that one way to avoid threat to self-esteem is by withdrawing effort. Withdrawing effort allows failure to be attributed to lack of effort rather than low ability which reduces overall risk to the value of one's self-esteem. When poor performance reflects poor ability, a situation of high threat is created to the individual's intellect. On the other hand, if an excuse allows poor performance to be attributed to a factor unrelated to ability, the threat to self-esteem and one's intellect is much lower (Thompson, Davidson, & Barber, 1995).

### **Avoidance Work Motivation**

In everyday life, individuals strive to be competent in their activities. In the past decade, many theorists have utilised a social-cognitive motivation goal approach in

accounting for individuals striving for competence. Motivation is commonly defined as the purpose for engaging in a task, and the specific type of goal taken on creates a framework for how individuals experience their motivation pursuits. Motivation goal theorists commonly identify two distinct ideas toward competence: a performance goal focused on demonstrating ability when compared to others, and a mastery goal focused on the development of competence and task mastery. Performance goals are hypothesised to produce vulnerability to certain response patterns in motivation settings such as preferences for easy tasks, withdrawal of effort in the face of failure, and decreased task enjoyment. Mastery goals can lead to a motivational pattern that creates a preference for moderately challenging tasks, persistence in the face of failure, and increased enjoyment of tasks (Elliot & Church, 1997).

Most motivation theorists conceptualise both performance and mastery goals as the “approach” forms of motivation. Existing classical work motivation theorists claimed that activities are emphasised and oriented toward attaining success or avoiding failure, while the motivation theorists focused on their approach aspect. More recently, an integrated motivation conceptualisation was proposed that included both modern performance and mastery theories with the standard approach and avoidance features. In this basis for motivation, the performance goal is separated into an independent approach component and avoidance component, and three motivation orientations are conceived: a mastery goal focused on the development of competence and task mastery, a performance-approach goal directed towards the attainment of favourable judgments of competence, and a performance-avoidance goal centred on avoiding unfavourable judgments of competence. The mastery and performance-approach goals are characterised as self-regulating to promote potential positive outcomes and processes to absorb an individual in their task or to create excitement leading to a mastery pattern of motivation results. Performance-avoidance goals, however, are characterised as promoting negative circumstances. This avoidance orientation creates anxiety, task distraction, and a pattern of helpless motivation outcomes. Intrinsic motivation, which is the enjoyment of an interest in an activity for its own sake, plays a role in motivation outcomes as well. Performance-avoidance goals undermined intrinsic motivation while both mastery and performance-approach goals helped to increase it (Elliot & Church, 1997).

Most motivation theorists and philosophers also identify task-specific competence expectancies as an important variable in motivation settings. Motivation

goals are created in order to obtain competence and avoid failure. These goals are viewed as implicit (non-conscious) or self-attributed (conscious) and direct motivation behaviour. Competence expectancies were considered an important variable in classical work motivation theories, but now appear to only be moderately emphasized in contemporary perspectives (Elliot & Church, 1997).

### **Approach and Avoidance Goals**

Work motivation theorists focus their research attention on behaviors involving competence. Individuals aspire to attain competence or may strive to avoid incompetence, based on the earlier approach-avoidance research and theories. The desire for success and to avoid failure were identified as critical determinants of aspiration and behavior by a theorist named Lewin. In his work motivation theory, McClelland proposed that there are two kinds of work motivation, one oriented around avoiding failure and the other around the more positive goal of attaining success. Atkinson, another motivational theorist, drew from the works of Lewin and McClelland in forming his need-motivation theory, a mathematical framework that assigned the desire to succeed and the desire to avoid failure as important determinants in motivation behavior (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

Theorists introduced a motivation goal approach to work motivation more recently. These theorists defined motivation goals as the reason for activities related to competence. Initially, these theorists followed in the footsteps of Lewin, McClelland, and Atkinson by including the distinction between approach and avoidance motivation into the structure of their assumptions. Three types of motivation goals were created, two of which being approach orientations and the third and avoidance type. One approach type was a task involvement goal focused on the development of competence and task master, and the other being a performance or ego involvement goal directed toward attaining favourable judgments of competence. The avoidance orientation involved an ego or performance goal aimed at avoiding unfavorable judgments of competence. These new theories received little attention at first and some theorists bypassed them with little regard. Motivational theorists shifted away and devised other conceptualisations such as Dweck's performance-learning goal dichotomy with approach and avoidance components or Nicholls' ego and task orientations, which he characterised as two forms of approach motivation (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

Presently, motivation theory is the predominant approach to the analysis of work motivation. Most contemporary theorists use the frameworks of Dweck's and Nicholls'

revised models in two important ways. First, most theorists institute primary orientations toward competence, by either differentiating between mastery and ability goals or contrasting task and ego involvement. A contention was raised toward the motivation frameworks on whether or not they are conceptually similar enough to justify a convergence of the mastery goal form (learning, task involvement and mastery) with the performance goal form (ability and performance, ego involvement, competition). Second, most modern theorists characterised both mastery and performance goals as approach forms of motivation, or they failed to consider approach and avoidance as independent motivational tendencies within the performance goal orientation (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

The type of orientation adopted at the outset of an activity creates a context for how individuals interpret, evaluate, and act on information and experiences in a motivation setting. Adoption of a mastery goal is hypothesised to produce a mastery motivational pattern characterised by a preference for moderately challenging tasks, persistence in the face of failure, a positive stance toward learning, and enhanced task enjoyment. A helpless motivational response, however, is the result of the adoption of a performance goal orientation. These include a preference for easy or difficult tasks, effort withdrawal in the face of failure, shifting the blame of failure to lack of ability, and decreased enjoyment of tasks. Some theorists include the concept of perceived competence as an important agent in their assumptions. Mastery goals are expected to have a uniform effect across all levels of perceived competence, leading to a mastery pattern. Performance goals can lead to mastery in individuals with a high perceived competence and a helpless motivational pattern in those with low competence (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

Three motivational goal theories have recently been proposed based on the tri-variant framework by motivation goal theorists: mastery, performance-approach, and performance-avoidance. Performance-approach and mastery goals both represent approach orientations according to potential positive outcomes, such as the attainment of competence and task master. These forms of behaviour and self-regulation commonly produce a variety of affective and perceptual-cognitive processes that facilitate optimal task engagement. They challenge sensitivity to information relevant to success and effective concentration in the activity, leading to the mastery set of motivational responses described by motivation theorists. The performance-avoidance goal is conceptualised as an avoidance orientation according to potential negative

outcomes. This form of regulation evokes self-protective mental processes that interfere with optimal task engagement. It creates sensitivity to failure-relevant information and invokes an anxiety-based preoccupation with the appearance of oneself rather than the concerns of the task, which can lead to the helpless set of motivational responses. The three goal theories presented are very process-oriented in nature. Approach and avoidance goals are viewed as exerting their different effects on motivation behaviour by activating opposing sets of motivational processes (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

### **Personal Goals Analysis**

In recent years, theorists have increasingly relied on various goal constructs to account for action in motivation settings. Four levels of goal representations have been introduced: task-specific guidelines for performance, such as performing a certain action, situation-specific orientations that represent the purpose of motivation activity, such as demonstrating competence relative to others in a situation, personal goals that symbolize motivation pursuits, such as getting good grades, and self-standards and future self-images, including planning for future goals and successes. These goal-based work motivation theories focused almost exclusively on approach forms behaviour but in recent years have shifted more towards avoidance (Elliot & Sheldon, 1997).

Motivation is an important factor in everyday life. Our basic behaviours and feelings are affected by our inner drive to succeed over life's challenges while we set goals for ourselves. Our motivation also promotes our feelings of competence and self-worth as we achieve our goals. It provides us with means to compete with others in order to better ourselves and to seek out new information to learn and absorb. Individuals experience motivation in different ways, whether it is task- or ego-based in nature. Some people strive to achieve their goals for personal satisfaction and self-improvement while others compete with their surroundings in motivation settings to simply be classified as the best. Motivation and the resulting behavior are both affected by the many different models of work motivation. These models, although separate, are very similar in nature and theory. The mastery and performance motivation settings each have a considerable effect on how an individual is motivated. Each theorist has made a contribution to the existing theories in today's motivation studies. More often than not, theorists build up of each other's work to expand old ideas and create new ones. Work motivation is an intriguing field, and I find myself more interested after reviewing similar theories from different perspectives.



Numerous other concepts have been put forward to explain motivation. These include: expectancy theory which deals with the idea that employees' motivation to work depend upon their expectation of a particular reward; equity theory deals with the idea that employees are motivated by a desire to be rewarded fairly for their work; and reinforcement theory deals with the idea that positive recognition of good performance will motivate employees to perform well in future (Wilson & Rosenfeld 1990).

Social interactions with colleagues are an important source of motivation in many jobs. To some extent these are beyond managers' control, but firms can seek to reduce the risk of motivating personal conflicts occurring, by taking care during the recruitment and selection process to hire appropriate individuals who will fit in with a team's culture (Bent et al 2002).

Proponents of reinforcement theories of motivation argue that it is particularly important for managers to recognise and reward employees who perform well. Such recognition also helps individuals to fulfil the higher needs in Maslow and Alderfer's hierarchies, providing workers with self-esteem and a sense of accomplishment.

### CONCEPTUAL MODEL

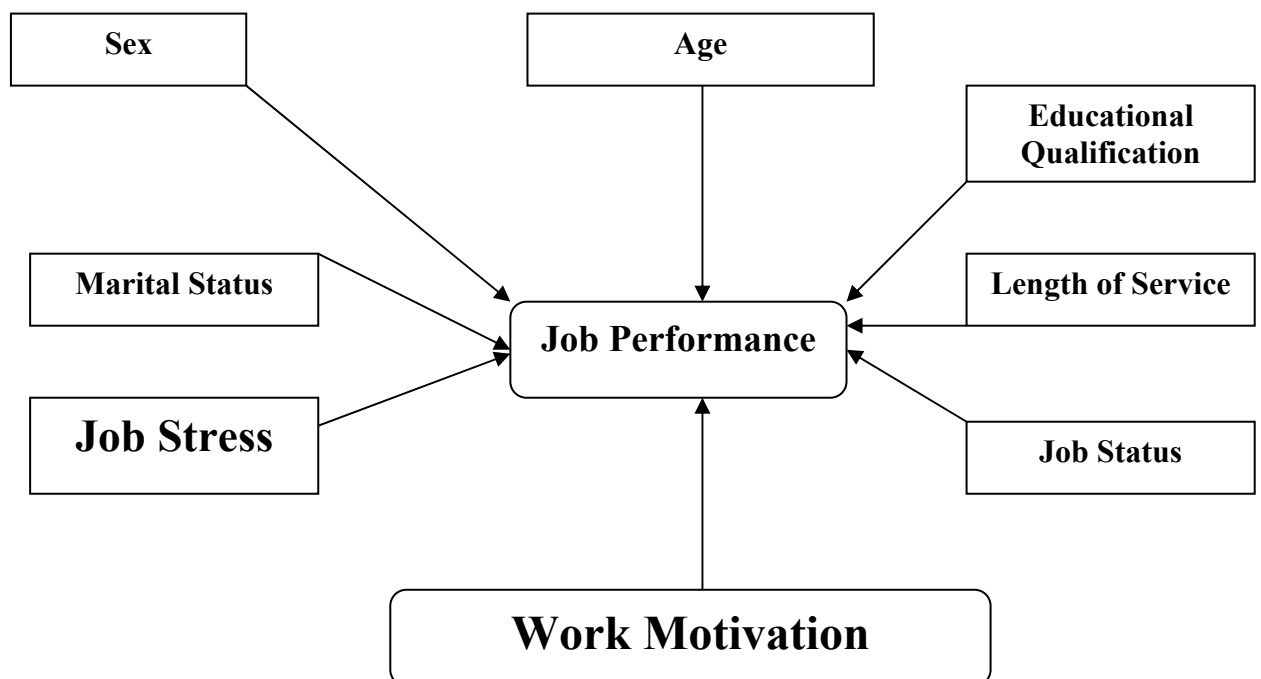


Figure 2.2: Relationship between the independent and the dependent variables

The conceptual model for the study indicates the linear relationship between the

independent and the dependent variables (job performance). The conceptual model above describes the process by which the study is carried out. The independent variables in the study are sex, age, marital status, job stress, work motivation, job status, length of service and educational qualification. They all have direct link with the dependent (job performance). The dependent variable describes the result and ultimate goal of this study that is to enhancing the job performance of the employees. Based on the aforesaid model, the study shows that there is relationship between job stress, work motivation, job status, length of service and educational qualification and job performance.

## **2.3 Empirical Background**

Empirical reviewed were done on the following headings:

Job Stress and Job Performance

Work Motivation and Job Performance

Demographic Variables and Job Performance

### **2.3.1 Job Stress and Job Performance**

Job stress is defined as the harmful physical and emotional responses that occur when job requirements do not match the worker's capabilities, resources, and needs. (National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health 1999). It is recognized world-wide as a major challenge to individual mental and physical health and organizational health (ILO, 1986). Job stress workers are also more likely to be unhealthy, poorly motivated, and less safe at work. And their organizations are less likely to succeed in competitive market. By some estimates work-related job stress costs the national economy a staggering amount in the sick pay, low productivity, health care and litigation cost (Palmer et al 2004).

Job stress can come from a variety of sources and affect people in different ways. Although, the link between psycho-social aspect of the job , the health and well being of workers have been well documented. (Dolland & Metzger, 1999), limited work has been done on the effects of distinct stressors on job performance. Also, various protective factors can prevent or reduce the effects of job stress, and little research has been done towards understanding, these mitigating individual and organizational factors.

One important effect of job stress is job strain. According to the demand control model (Karasck, 1999), job strain is determined by the interactions between psychological demand on the worker, relative to pace and intensity, skills, required and

the ability to keep up with colleagues. The second dimension relates to the degree of creativity versus repetition as well as the extent of freedom and responsibility to decide whether to do and when to do it (Lindstrum, 2003). The four work environments are high-strain jobs, active jobs, low strain (relaxed) jobs and passive jobs. Though simple identification of low and high – strain jobs may be important, the distinction between job control and psychological demand must be retained because each category can have different effects on workers and their organizations. For instance, when job control is high learning and growth are also high, learning and growth are the predicted behavioural outcome.

Much of the energy aroused by job challenges can be translated into direct action –effective problem solving with little residual strain. The growth and learning stimuli are conducive to high productivity. On the other hand, low demand, and low control lead to a very unmotivating job setting, which results in gradual loss of previously acquired skills (Karasck 1999).

Job strain is only one stressor workers may face at the workplace. Physical exertion and job insecurity can also cause stress. Even in an era of increasing high tech information industries, the physical demands of work are still relevant and important. Being seriously concerned about physical exertion of work can become a stressor. This is related to concerns about physical hazards and work injuries, undoubtedly, uncertain job security and the fear of layoff are also important sources of psychological job stress for some, especially during times of economic concentration (William, 2003).

Job satisfaction and self-perceived job stress can show different, yet important aspects of job stress. Although these two may not identify specific sources of work stress, they show to what extent workers are dissatisfied with their jobs and perceive their daily work as stressful. Thus, in any distinct source and dimension of job stress that could negatively affect some people can be identified.

### **2.3.2 Motivation and Job Performance**

The performance level of employees relies not only on their actual skills but also on the level of motivation each person exhibits (Burney, 2000). Motivation is an inner drive or an external inducement to behave in some particular way, typically a way that will lead to rewards (Dessler, 1978). Over-achieving, talented employees are the driving force of all firms so it is essential that organisations strive to motivate and hold on to the best employees (Harrington, 2003).

The quality of human resource management is a critical influence on the performance of the firm. Concern for strategic integration, commitment flexibility and quality, has called for attention for employees motivation and retention. Financial motivation has become the most concern in today's organisation, and trying to Mallow's basic needs, non-financial aspect only comes in when financial motivation has failed. Gibson, Ivancevick, Donnelly, (2004) space is then set for non-financial measures.

According to Greenberg and Baron (2000) definition of motivation could be divided into three main parts. The first part looks at arousal that deals with the drive, or energy behind individual (s) action. People turn to be guided by their interest in making a good impression on others, doing interesting work and being successful in what they do. The second part referring to the choice people make and the direction their behaviour takes. The last part deals with maintaining behaviour clearly defining how long people have to persist at attempting to meet their goals

Motivation can be intrinsic and extrinsic. Extrinsic motivation concerns behavior influenced by obtaining external rewards (Hitt, Esser, & Marriott, 1992). Praise or positive feedback, money, and the absence of punishment are examples of extrinsic or external rewards (Deci, 1980). Intrinsic motivation is the motivation to do something simply for the pleasure of performing that particular activity (Hagedoorn & Van Yperen, 2003). Examples of intrinsic factors are interesting work, recognition, growth, and achievement. Several studies have found there to be a positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and job performance as well as intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction (Linz, 2003). This is significant to firms in today's highly competitive business environment in that intrinsically motivated employees will perform better and, therefore, be more productive, and also because satisfied employees will remain loyal to their organization and feel no pressure or need to move to a different firm.

Deci and Ryan (2000) show the negative impact of monetary rewards on intrinsic motivation and performance. A group of college students were asked to work on an interesting puzzle. Some were paid and some were not paid for the work. The students that were not paid worked longer on the puzzle and found it more interesting than the students paid. When the study was brought into a workplace setting, employees felt that their behaviour was being controlled in a dehumanising and alienating manner by the rewards. It was discovered that rewards would seriously

decrease an employee's motivation to ever perform the task being rewarded, or one similar to it, any time in the future.

Another observation of the study was that employees would expect a reward every time the task was to be completed if the reward was offered at one time. Employees would require the reward in order to perform the job and would probably expect the reward to increase in amount. If the rewards were not increased or if they were taken away they actually served as negative reinforcement.

Deci and Ryan,(2000) in collaboration with two of their colleagues, conducted a study to examine the effects of performance-contingent rewards on an employee's intrinsic motivation (Cameron, Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 2001). These types of rewards are very controlling since these rewards are directly associated with an employee's performance of some task. In that respect, performance-contingent rewards undermine intrinsic motivation; however, if the reward given to the employee conveys that the employee has performed on a truly outstanding level, the reward would serve to solidify that employee's sense of competence and decrease the negative effect on that employee's intrinsic motivation.

Also, significant in the study is the importance of the interpersonal atmosphere within which the performance-contingent rewards were distributed. When Cameron et al. (2001) compared the administering of rewards in a controlling climate and in a non-controlling climate, they discovered that the performance-contingent rewards given in the more controlling interpersonal climate undermined intrinsic motivation. To prevent the decrease in employees' intrinsic motivation, the interpersonal climate when distributing performance-contingent rewards should be more supportive.

Vroom (1964) proposes that people are motivated by how much they want something and how likely they think they are to get it. He suggests that motivation leads to efforts and the efforts combined with employees ability together with environment factors which interplay's resulting to performance. This performance interns lead to various outcomes, each of which has an associated value called Valence.

Adams (1965) suggests that people are motivated to seek social equity in the rewards they receive for high performance. According to him, the outcome from job includes; pay, recognition, promotion, social relationship and intrinsic reward .to get these rewards various inputs needs to be employed by the employees to the job as time, experience, efforts, education and loyalty. He suggests that, people tend to view their

outcomes and inputs as a ratio and then compare these ratios with others and turn to become motivated if this ratio is high.

### **2.3.3 Gender and Job Performance**

Researchers have continued to argue that gender is a major factor that enhances the job performance of the individual in the organisation and as a result, certain types of jobs are specifically gender-based. It has been ascertained that the role of gender in job performance cannot be overlooked. Effective job performance has positive effects on both the organisation and its employees, for the organisation it is a means by which it ensures production, economic growth and survival. Similarly, effective job performance provides the employees with economic gains, security, social status, family and social prerogatives, medical benefits and recreational and educational opportunities (Adama, 1986).

Sex is a mutually exclusive, gender based delineation of humans into male and female categories. Sex distribution in workplace is a major issue which confers on the proportion of males and females in an organisation or professions and can determine to a large extent the level of productivity. Sex differences is also expected to affect performance, in that the needs and reasons for which people engage in work activities also differ with gender across cultures.

Having a job has always been a crucial factor in Nigeria society as individuals are identified by their occupations. A person's job reveals his/her personality and it influences the nature of interaction he/she has with people. It largely determines the individual's social status, affiliation, economic status and self concept. Job therefore offers a lot of benefits to organizations, individuals and society at large. However at times, an individual is often denied the opportunity of secured job due to gender or personality factors. Uwe (1999) contends that in Nigeria, women are marginalized while men are given greater opportunities to advance. She stresses that women are hindered from progressing through discrimination on the basis of gender, early marriage and child bearing. Consequently, they are denied sound education, job opportunities and are incapacitated generally by the society.

Many studies that have examined gender differences in job performance have mainly focused on performance evaluations using ratings carried out by supervisors or managers. Uwe (1999), job performance ratings are susceptible to evaluation bias and where they involve male and female workers, they may be influenced by gender stereotyping and by negative evaluations of women's job-related abilities. In contrast,

objectives measure derived from evaluation bias, although very few investigation of gender differences in job performance using such data have been carried out in organisational settings. Moreover, such studies have tended to focus more on the performance of male employees than that of female workers. One difficulty encountered by investigations of gender differences in job performance among workers in organisational settings is the difficulty of comparing the performance of men and women carrying out exactly the same job (Mannheim, 1983).

The study reported here is concerned with the effects of age, sex and tenure on the job performance of rubber tapers, blue collar workers who live and work on rubber estates. The overall findings showed that job performance is gender based with men exhibiting more job performance than their women counterparts. It has been revealed that women therefore become less exposed and less competent in area that need high degree of skills, intelligence and extensive training such as engineering, medicine, and agronomy. Gender could be responsible for unequal and low representations of women found in highly professionalized careers such as medicine, engineering, law, accounting and architecture.

Awe (1990) observes that in Nigeria, less than 5% of bank managers were women and less than 4.5 percent of them were below the level of middle manager while just 1 percent of them were middle and divisional managers. The abstract of statistics indicated that in 1992, only 45,881 females against 145,445 males were in the service of federal ministries of Nigeria. In 1993, the federal civil service employed only 47,426 females as against 149,645 males. In 1992/93 academic session 50 female professors as against 1,315 male professors were in Nigerian universities.

Umar (1996) explains that in any traditional Nigerian community, it is believed that the place of the girl-child and subsequently women is the kitchen or at home and she is socialised into accepting her traditional roles of bearing and rearing children and of maintaining the welfare of the family. Thus, women are seen as the weaker sex who could not perform at equal level with their male counterparts. They are denied opportunities to display their talents and potentials.

Broverman (1970) indicates that both men and women agreed that female healthy women were different from healthy men because they were submissive, less independent, less adventurous, less objective, more easily influenced, less aggressive, less competent, more emotional, more concerned about their appearance and more prone to having their feelings hurt in their job performance.

Similarly, Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) observe gender differences between boys and girls in four major areas viz (i) verbal ability (ii) visual and special ability (iii) mathematical ability (iv) aggressiveness. Among the findings of the study are that high job performance was perceived to be more related to masculine than feminine gender as men were seen as more powerful than women, similarly, good job performance was also viewed as more related to men than women.

#### **2.3.4 Educational Qualification and Job Performance**

The educational qualification of an individual is also a major factor that may or may not enhance the effectiveness of the individual in the chosen job. While some job requires employees to possess a prerequisite qualification before the individual can be considered, some other jobs do not. The qualification possessed by individual goes a long way in the job performance in the organization. Possession of the qualification makes the individual to be distinct and have the ability to excel on the job. The studies of Hertzberg (1997) showed that workers with higher education have a higher job performance level, while workers with lower educational qualification have a lower job performance. Hertzberg suggested that a clear conclusion can be drawn concerning job performance and its relationship with educational qualification.

In a study of agricultural education teachers in Ohio, Cano and miller (1992) teacher's age, years in current position, total year of teaching and degree status were significantly related to overall job performance. Additionally, the longer a teacher remained in the profession, the less is or are overall job performance level was affected (Cano and Miller, 1992). When the same demographic variables were examined in yet another study that explored six different classifications of agriculture teachers, it was found that overall job performance was not significantly related to any of the demographic variables.

#### **2.3.5 Age and Job Performance**

Age plays a role in describing how an individual changes overtime and subsequently may affect new performance (Waldman & Avdio, 1993). There has long been a view of negative age performance relationship, although the belief has endured without conclusive empirical support. One theoretical rationale of the hypothesised negative relationship is the detrimental theory of aging (Gimger, 1983) which suggests that increased age causes a deterioration inability, such as speed dexterity, motor coordination and strength.

Salthouse (1979) suggests there is an underlying single negative effect of age



related influences on a wide range of cognitive variables. Although the simplest single factor model (i.e. that on underlying factor, age, accounts for all declines in cognitive functions) has been shown to be too simplistic.

Notably, age has also been shown to be associated with decreases in performance on tests, learning, memory, reasoning spatial abilities, and psychomotor speed. Aging may also affect performance through motivation, Wright and Hamilton (1978) suggest that older employees go through a “grinding down” stage where they accept what is available to them and lessen their expectations. Supporting this proposition, empirical work demonstrates a negative relationship between age and ambition, aspirations and overall motivation.

Aging may also affect how others perceive, and therefore treat, an individual. Research suggests that older workers are evaluated more harshly than younger workers. Thus, even an individual does not change in terms of performance causing characteristics, other, employees may fulfill their own expectations of performance changes by reducing opportunities for performance of development or by giving lower evaluations.

Despite the theory suggesting that aging will affect performance and empirical evidence showing aging’s effects on performance related constructs, research on age/performance relationship has shown mixed results. Rhodes (1983) reported approximately equal numbers of studies with positive, negative and no relationships.

Meta-analyses have shown that age alone accounts for little variance in job performance. It should be noted that not all examinations of aging suggest negative effects. In particular crystallized intelligence which entails the cognitive processes and abilities that are embedded in learned cultural meaning through prior experience (Warr, 1994) has been found to be higher among older people. Others have made similar arguments, that while physical and mechanical abilities may decline overtime, pragmatic abilities may increase. Thus, performance may remain constant at higher age levels because job experience may compensate for any detrimental effect of aging (Tesluk, & Jacobs, 1998). Accounting for experience though should reveal the relationship (Avolio, 1990). The theoretical position a relationship between age and performance does not imply that the effect of age on performance is linear.

Again we expect a non-linear relationship with the negative effects of age becoming stronger as employees age. Thus, the total relationship between employee age and job performance should be non-linear (Avolio, 1990). Most studies of age and

productivity in semi-skilled and skill manual work have shown an inverted “U” relationship i.e. performance of younger workers starts low, then rises to 40, and then drops (Clay, 1956, King 1956). The decline in performance was attributed to changes in sensor motor capacity with age, which affects the ability to deal with new tasks more than the ability to maintain an already established skill. A study by Schwab, Heneman, (1977) clearly shows this positive correlation was initially found between age and length of service with job performance. However, when both variables were separately considered, the relationship between age and performance fell to almost zero, while that between length of service and performance remained significantly positive. It seems that much relationship between age and work performance in fact, be due to the greater experiences result from increases in the length of time spent at the job.

Relatively, few studies concerned with age differences in job performance have been conducted. Job performance can be assessed both by objective measures, using data derived from production records and by performance ratings made by managers, supervisors or peers. Studies in relation between age and job performance using production record data are relatively few, partly because of the various methodological and practical difficulties inherent in this kind of research (Avolio, 1990).

One practical difficulty is that of obtaining output data over a long period to ensure their reliability, since organisation institutions may keep such data only for a limited time. Also, effort in obtaining sufficient numbers of workers in the oldest age groups to ensure valid comparisons with younger workers is very difficult since the labour force participation rates of workers in their 50s and early 60s have declined considerably over the past half century especially among men. Within the same job, younger and older workers may be differentially allocated to tasks which are more or less complex, strenuous demanding or even dangerous. In some jobs too, observed age differences in job performance may be mainly attributable to cohort differences, for example in the education level of the workers. Berns (1989) finds that as the age of the teachers increased, and total year of teaching, so did their overall job performance level increased.

### **2.3.6 Marital Status and Job Performance**

Women and men tend to be defined by their marital and parental status. Thus, these factors may be crucial in understanding societal attitudes towards working men and women. The influence of marital status on job performance was investigated with

college lecturers. Subjects indicated that they expected women would be absent more than men, singles would be paid more than married and parents would be paid more and be absent more, but would be on the job longer than non-parents. The overall quality of job performance was judged highest for married men with or without a dependent child, next highest for single men with a dependent child, third highest for married women without a dependent child and lowest for all women with a dependent child. The findings revealed that differences in sex-role stereotypic attitudes towards working men and women may not be a function of gender, but may result from differential expectations of job performance between the sexes that are associated with marital status of the individual.

Bowen (1994) reveals that married men were more satisfied with their jobs than those who were single. Fetsch and Kennington (1997) also find a relationship between marital status and job performance levels. They find both divorced and married men to be more satisfied with their jobs than single men who were never married, remarried, or widowed. However, some studies indicate that married females have higher levels of job performance than unmarried females, while other studies indicate that married males exhibit higher job performance than their married female counterpart. There are even some studies that indicate that there is no relationship between marital status and job performance levels.

Nestor and Leary (2000) claim that the marital status of the individual in the organization has a significant correlation with the job performed in the organization. This account for the reason why in some private organizations, some form of restrictions are placed on would - be employees that while in the organization for certain period, they must remain single. The major reason for this is that they (employers) believe that being married will hinder the job performance of the worker in the organisation. Though certain jobs require the workers to remain single but with advancement in the age of the employee, the marital status will definitely change.

Riggs and Beus (1993) believe that the areas of responsibility increase for married females as their job performance increases, because of the enormous responsibility of combining the family and work life. This often gives rise to work-family conflicts in the life of the individuals once they are not well managed. So, marital status has both positive and negative impact on the job performance of the employee.

Bowen (1994) establishes a relationship between job performance and gender.

He discovers that female agents are more satisfied with their jobs than male agents. Concerning gender, there are no simple conclusions about the differences between males and females and their job performance levels. Some studies reviewed by Nestor and Leary (2000) indicate that males are more satisfied with their jobs, while others indicate that females are more satisfied

Typically, studies have shown that married and single workers' level of job performance does differ. Other attributes the differential to unobserved characteristics of the workers. To examine the possible causes of differences in job performance based on the marital status of the employees, many scholars have addressed the variety of factors associated with the marital status of professionals, the development of a strong marital status as necessary foundation for the good factors in the enhancement of job performance. This is because, performance is not just sitting down and carrying out a specified tasks but all your mental and body activities must be able to partake in it. The analysis of the effects of marital status shows that married workers achieve better performance than single employee. Employees who have been married for a longer period, exhibits higher job performance in the organisation. Job performance at times increases as the number of dependents increase because of more expectation and commitment on the part of the individual.

Mehay (2005) on marital status and productivity, administrative data on male employees of a large, hierarchical organisation was used to explore the effect of marital status on selected job performance measures. The personnel database covers male US Naval officers and contains relatively detailed information on career performance, including promotion outcomes and annual performance reviews. The study seeks to shed light on the existence and magnitude of job-productivity differentials between married and single males and to assess competing explanations for marriage-related performance differentials. The article finds that married men receive significantly higher supervisor performance ratings than single men during their early career with the organization and those who stay, are more likely to be promoted at the up-or-out review.

Hsieh (2004) studies workplace deviant behaviour and its demographic relationship among Taiwan's flight attendants. The study examines demographic characteristics and behaviour using survey data collected from 303 flight attendants. In the study, gender and marital status make a significant difference in the job performance of the flight attendants.

## 2.4 Appraisal of Literature

The related literature reviewed shows that several researches have been carried out in different countries and by different scholars on job performance on job stress, demographic variables and work motivation. Notably, none focused on combination of job stress, work motivation and demographic variables as predictors of job performance and the relationship between each of the independent variable and dependent variable are not well established by the review of the literature among lecturers in colleges of education in southwestern Nigeria,

Job stress (eustress), work motivation and demographic variables could be a propeller, energiser, stimulant depending on moderation, availability and duration of coping mechanism. What is relatively unknown is the exact and joint impact of the studies variables (job stress, work motivation and demographic variables) on job performance.

Job performance is the effectiveness of an individual's behaviour and action that contributes to organisational objectives and also helps to explain the value and utility that each employee add to an organisation and better understanding of his/her functions that take place in the organization.

Job performance could be enhanced through task significance and contextual conduciveness based on objective and performance ratings. Individual differences accounted for personality, needs, motive, effect and impact of job stress, work motivation and demographic variables on job performance

Lecturers in colleges of education go through series of stresses which often arise from job ambiguity, overload, inadequate office space, time pressure, challenges and diverse needs of students. According to Acholu (2005) stressors are everywhere including home, work and social environment. They are events, people, thoughts, things or any stimulus that causes stress but it is important to note and emphasise that not all stressors are bad. According to him job stress has both positive and negative effects on job performance.

The level of performance of employees relies not only on their actual skills but also on the level of motivation each person exhibits to behave in certain ways that will lead to rewards. Over-achieving, talented employees are the driving force of all organisation so it is essential that organisations strive to motivate and hold on to the best employees. The quality of human resources management is a critical influence on the performance of the organisation. Concern for strategic integration, commitment

flexibility and quality, is needed for motivation and retention of employees.

The study was anchored on equity theory which emphasised that input equal to output, as illustrated by the conceptual model, need theory that emphasised that every human being have needs which must be met through working environment and expectancy theory which also emphasises that individual, job and environmental variables determine performance. The literature, theories and empirical review are sectionalised to give concise and precise meaning of each of the variables, their applications, and also supported the need for the testing of the research hypotheses raised.

## **2.5 Research Hypotheses**

The following research hypotheses were tested at .05 level of significance.

H0<sub>1</sub> There is no significant relationship between job stress and job performance among colleges of education lecturers in Southwestern Nigeria

H0<sub>2</sub> There is no significant relationship between work motivation and job performance among colleges of education lecturers in Southwestern Nigeria.

H0<sub>3</sub> There is no significant relationship between educational qualification and job performance among colleges of education lecturers in Southwestern Nigeria.

H0<sub>4</sub> There is no significant relationship between age and job performance among colleges of education lecturers in Southwestern Nigeria.

H0<sub>5</sub> There is no significant relationship between gender and job performance of colleges of among education lecturers in Southwestern Nigeria.

H0<sub>6</sub> There is no significant relationship between marital status and job performance among colleges of education lecturers in Southwestern Nigeria.

H0<sub>7</sub> There is no significant relationship between working experience and job performance among colleges of education lecturers in Southwestern Nigeria.

H0<sub>8</sub> There is no significant relationship between job status and job performance among colleges of education lecturers in Southwestern Nigeria

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

This chapter contains the methodology used in carrying out this study. Methodology refers to the science of a particular study, which reveals the methods that are adopted on how the study was conducted. It also entails the description of research design, population and sampling procedure, research instrument, validity and reliability, procedure of administration and data analysis.

#### **3.1 Research Design**

The research design adopted in this study was descriptive survey design of *ex-post-facto-type*. The design provided the relationship that exists between independent and dependent variables. Similarly, the approach enabled the researcher to obtain information from a representative sample of a population in order to establish the relationship between these variables (independent and dependent variables) as they are from where the researcher could infer the perception of the entire population

#### **3.2 Population**

The target population for this study consisted of 2,914 lecturers from the 11 government owned colleges of education in the six Southwestern states, Nigeria with different educational background ranging from doctorate, masters and first degrees, as at year 2010. See Appendix II for the distribution.

#### **3.3 Sample and Sampling Techniques**

A total of 2,120 academic staff were randomly selected from 11 government owned colleges of education with multi-stage sampling technique. This technique is a sampling method in which the population was divided into a number of groups or primary stages from which samples were drawn; these are then divided into groups or secondary stages from which samples were drawn. (i.e. Adeyemi College of Education, Ondo State, College of Education, Ikere Ekiti, Ekiti State; Federal College of Education (Special) Oyo; Emmanuel Alayande College of Education, Oyo; Federal College of Education, Osiele, Abeokuta, Ogun State; Tai Solarin College of Education, Omun-Ijebu, Ogun State; Adeniran Ogunsanya College of Education, Otto-Ijanikin, Lagos State; Federal College of Education (Technical) Akoka, Lagos State; Micheal Otedola College of Primary Education(former Lagos State College of Education) Noforija, Epe, Lagos State; College of Education, Ilesha. Osun State; Osun State College of Education, Ila Orangun, Osun State. It was used because of its convenience

of finding the survey sample size and normally more accurate. This study was restricted to only lecturers in the colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria. The academic staff were identified and assigned a number from 001 to N, where N is the total number of participants in the study. However, a major criterion used for the selection was that the individuals have been working in the institutions for over three years.

**Stage I:** Divide each college into clusters, using the cluster sampling technique along the existing school system (School of Education, School of Science, School of Languages, School of Vocational and Technical, School of Arts and Social Sciences)

**Stage II:** Each school were into strata along the existing Departments.

**Stage III:** Each stratum was purposively and proportionally sampled to select lecturers of the same level and same departments accross the institutions.

**Stage IV:** Lastly, a simple random sampling technique was used to select the sample size that served as the respondents for the study. Seventy-three per-cent (73%) of the total population was used as the sample size.

### **3.4 Instruments for the study**

Four instruments were used to obtain data from the respondents. They are:

1. Job Performance Scale
2. Job Stress Scale
- 3 Work Motivation Scale
4. In-depth Interview

#### **3.4.1 Job Performance Scale (JPS)**

This job performance scale by Brayfield-Rothe [2001] was adopted for the study.

It comprises 15 items. The respondents indicated the extent to which each item reflects their job performance in the organization. The scale is on a four-point modified Likert type scale ranging from (4 = strongly agree; 3 = agree; 2 = disagree and 1 = strongly disagree). Higher score indicates higher level of performance of lecturers in the colleges of education covered in the study. The internal consistency reliability of JPS by Cronbach's alpha is = 0.86.

This instrument was validated prior to the administration. JPS was carefully vetted using the face and content validity method which involved the researchers, supervisor and other experts in the field of educational research. The pilot study



was carried out to predict the reaction and cultural adaptability of participants to the main instruments so as to determine whether the instrument was valid and reliable or not. Notably, it was found out that the JPS instrument used for the study was highly valid.

### **3.4.2 Job Stress Scale (JSS)**

Job stress scale adapted from Olagunju (1981). It was designed to test the job stress level of lecturers, in terms of whether they are satisfied or dissatisfied with their job. A-20item, and Likert 4 points modified scale was employed to rate the job stress level of selected lecturers. 4 = High stress, 3 =Moderate job stress 2=Low Stress, 1= No stress. The maximum possible scores on the 20 items are 80, while 20 is the minimum score possible. It has a test re-test reliability coefficient of 0.72.

This instrument was validated prior to the administration. JSS was carefully vetted using the face and content validity method which involved the researcher, supervisor and other experts in the field of educational research. The pilot study was carried out to predict the reaction and cultural adaptability of participants to the instruments so as to determine whether the instrument was valid and reliable or not. Observably, it was found out that the instrument was valid.

### **3.4.3 Work Motivation Scale (WMS)**

Work motivation was measured with the Workers Behaviour Assessment Battery (**WBAB**) by Hammed (2002) . The instrument has 20 items that adopted four-point modified Likert format with response options ranging from 1 = Strongly Agree to 4 = Strongly Disagree.

This instrument was validated prior to the administration, which was handled by experts using the face and content validity method. While the pilot study was carried out using test-retest, which gave a reliability of 0.83 Cronbach's alpha to the main instrument so as to determine whether the instrument was valid and reliable or not. However, it was found out that all the instrument used for the study was valid.

### **3.4.4 In-depth Interview {IDI}**

This is an open-ended discovery oriented and qualitative method used to obtain detailed information aimed at exploring in-depth respondents point of view, experiences, feelings and perspective .This interview was conducted at the beginning of the study to narrow the focus of the research, to determine and confirm the questions that needed to be explored with people who are highly knowledgeable with the research themes. These themes cover the following areas:

Job Stress and Job Performance of Lecturers

Work Motivation and Job Performance of Lecturers

Demographic Variables and Job Performance of Lecturers

The overall impacts of job performance of the lecturers on the general academic achievement of the students and 11 sessions of IDIs were conducted with five respondents { lecturers } purposively selected from each of the colleges of education {both federal and state}

### **3.5 Administration of Research Instrument**

Following the identification, selection and numbering of the lecturers, the researcher embarked on the visitation to the colleges as a way of acquainting herself with the participants for the study. The administration of the questionnaire was carried out by the researcher and three experienced research assistants.

The questionnaires were administered to the participants; the researcher tried as much as possible to control the influence of the subjects over one another in responding to the questionnaires. The researcher explained verbally the main purpose of the questionnaires to the participants, assuring them of confidentiality. Instructions regarding how to fill the various items on the questionnaires were read out and adequately explained to the participants after distribution. Questions were entertained before responding to the questionnaires and the researcher's attention was often called for clarification during the process of responding to the questionnaires. From the total number of 2,250 questionnaire distributed to the respondents, 2,139 were retrieved and 2,120 were found valid for the data analysis. The remaining 19 questionnaires were wrongly filled.

### **3.6 Data Analysis**

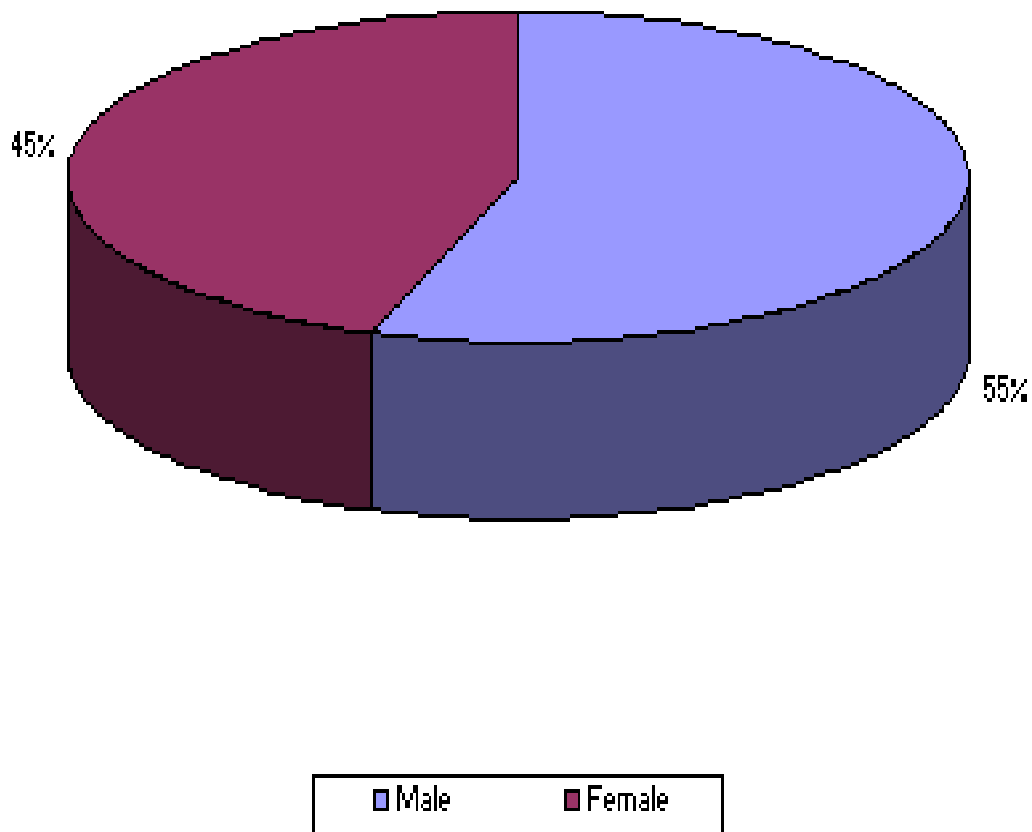
The data collected through the instruments were collated and analysed using the descriptive statistics of, frequency counts and simple percentage. In addition, multiple regression analysis and Pearson Product Moment Correlation were used to answer the research questions and hypotheses set for the study at 0.05 alpha level and content analysis for the in-depth interview.

**CHAPTER FOUR**  
**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

This chapter deals with the analysis and discussion of the findings based on the data generalised from the subjects covered the study. The results obtained through the set questionnaires are presented and exhaustively discussed.

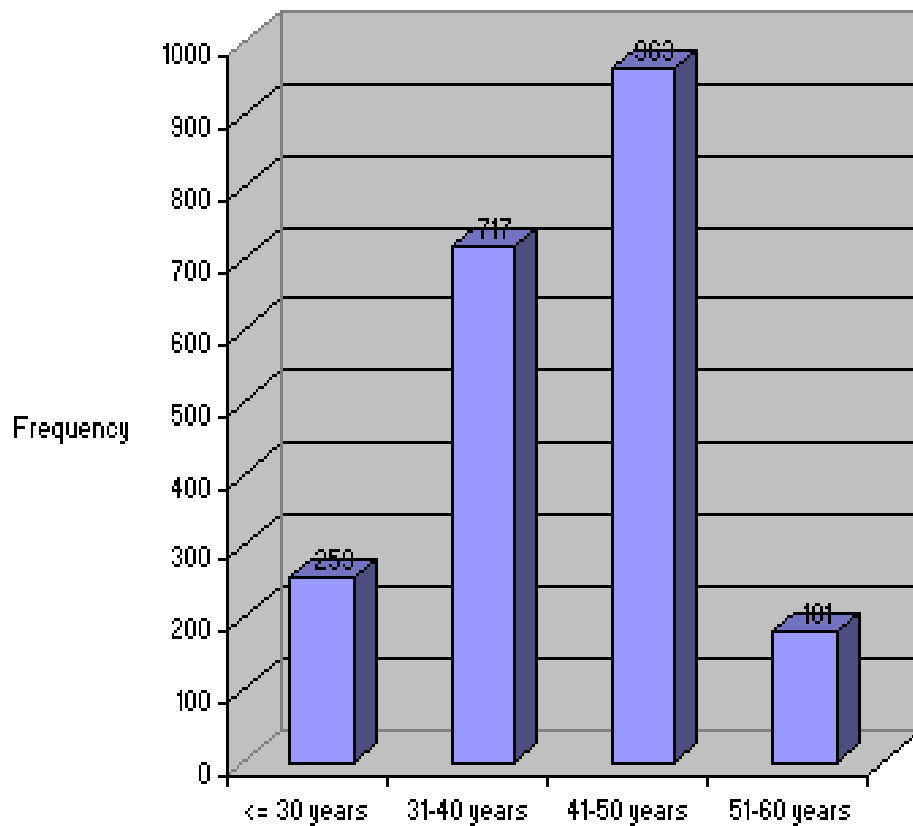
**Table 4.1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents**

Demographical variables	Frequency
Male	1172
Female	948
less than 30 years	259
31-40 years	717
41-50 years	963
51-60 years	181
Single	156
Married	1964
B.ed	252
M.ed	1658
PhD	210
Federal colleges	850
State colleges	1270
1-5 years	484
6-10 years	648
11-15 years	312
16-20 years	155
21-25 years	238
26-30 years	198
Above 30 years	75



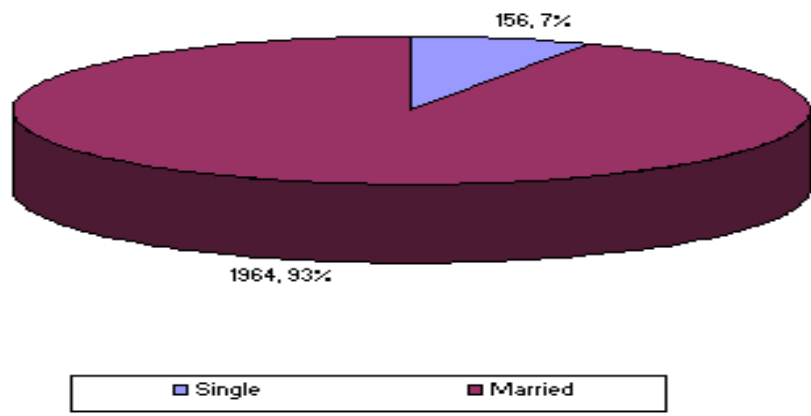
**Figure 4.1: Pie Chart Showing the Distribution of the Respondents by Sex**

Fig 4.1 shows that male and female participants are covered in the study. The chart further reveals that male respondents are 1172 (55%) while the female are 948 (45%) of the total respondents covered. This implies that more male than female lecturers are in the employment of the colleges of education across the six states in Southwestern Nigerian



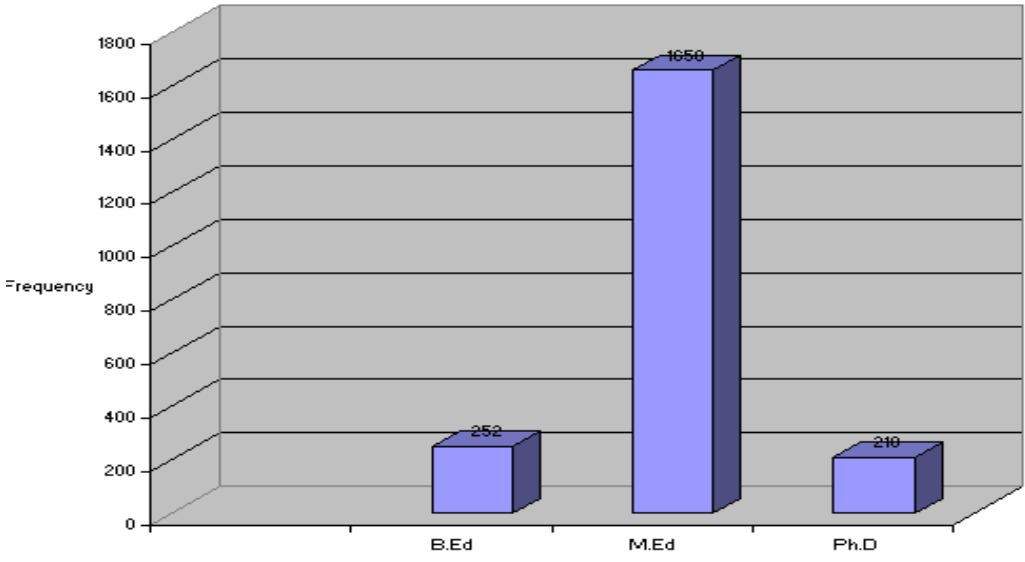
**Figure 4.2: Bar Chart Showing the Distribution of the Respondents by Age**

Fig 4.2 shows that 259 respondents were age not above 31 years i.e. (12%) , 717 of the respondents were between 31 and 40years (34%), 963 of the lecturers were between 41 and 50 years (45%) and 181 of the respondents were 51 and 60 years were (9%) of the total respondents . However, respondents between the ages of 41 and 50 years (45%) of the total respondents participated more in the study than any other age group. By implication, it is realised that colleges of education in Southwestern Nigerian is dominated by lecturers in the age group of 41 to 50 years.



**Figure 4.3: Pie Chart Showing the Distribution of the Respondents by Marital Status**

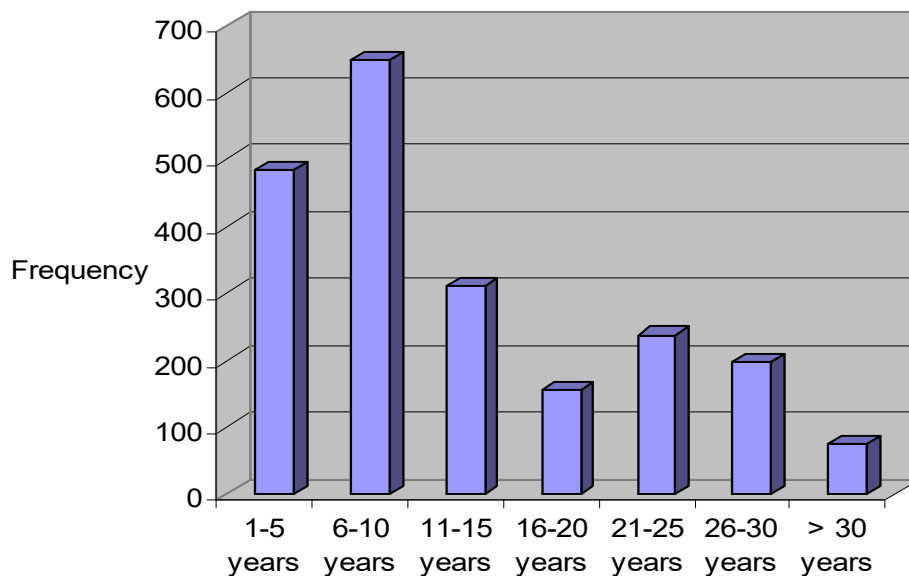
Fig 4.3 shows that 156 (7%) of respondents in colleges of education in southwest Nigeria are single while 1964 (93%) of the respondents are married .This implied that colleges of education is dominated by married rather than single lecturers.



**Figure 4.4: Bar Chart Showing the Distribution of the Respondents by Educational Qualifications**

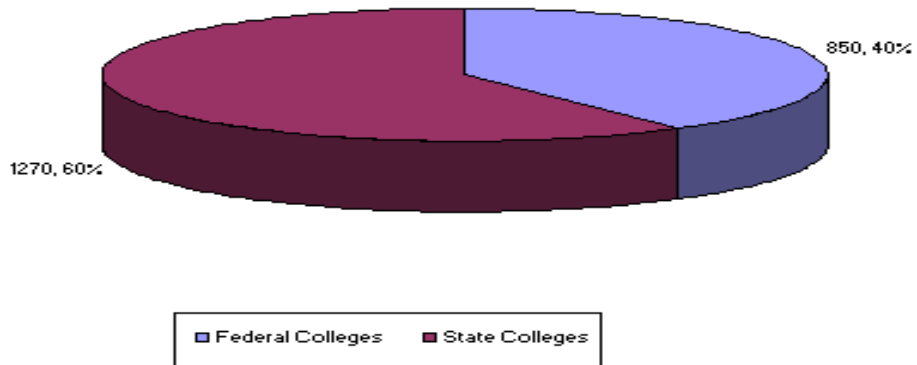
Fig 4.4 reveals the levels of educational qualification of respondents according to qualification. Some 252 (12%)of the respondents possess only B.Ed degree ,while 1455 (69%) possess Masters degree and 413(19%) of the respondents have PhD

degree. This implies that colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria is dominated by large number of lecturers with Masters degree .



**Figure 4.5: Bar Chart Showing the Distribution of the Respondents by Length of Service**

Fig 4.5 also reveals that the study was carried out among lecturers based on different length of services in different colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria . The chart reveals that lecturers between 1 and 5yrs - 484 (23%), 6 and 10yrs - 648 (30%), 11 and 15yrs - 312 (15%) , 16 and 20 yrs – 165 (8%),21 and 25 yrs -238 (11%) 26 and 30 yrs – 198 (11%), 26 and 30yrs – 198 (9%), 30yrs and above -75 (4%). The chart revealed that 648 (30%) of the lecturers between 6-10 years already spent in the organisations across Southwest Nigeria dominated the study than any other age group.



**Figure 4.6: Pie Chart Showing the Distribution of the Respondents in the Federal and State Colleges**

Fig 4.6 reveals the respondents (lecturers) from federal and state colleges of education lecturers participated in the study. The chart shows that 850 (40%) of the participants were from federal colleges of education while 1270 (60%) were from state colleges of education. This implies that majority of the participants were from the state colleges of education.



## Research Questions

**Research Question 1:** What is the relationship among job stress, work motivation, demographic variables and job performance of colleges of education lecturers in Southwestern Nigeria?

**Table 4.2: Inferential Statistics and Correlations Significant Test of Relationship among the variables (work motivation, sex, age, marital status, and educational qualification, length of service, job status and job stress on Job Performance of the Respondents)**

Table 4.2a: Inferential statistics and Correlation significant test of relationship among the variables (Job stress and work motivation) on Job performance of the respondents

	Job performance	Work motivation	Job stress
Job performance	1		
Work motivation	0.70	1	
Job stress	0.54	0.17	1
Mean	55.1	42.3	38.9
S.D	14.6	11.3	8.09

The result shows that Job performance had significant correlations with the independent variables viz: work motivation ( $r=0.70$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), Job stress ( $r=0.54$ ,  $p<0.05$ ).

Table 4.2b: Chi-square matrix of the correlation among the variables (sex, age, marital status, educational qualification, length of service and job status) on job performance of the respondents

	Job performance	Sex	Age	Marital status	Educational qualification	Length of service job status	Job status
Job performance	1						
Sex	0.17	1					
Age	0.15	-.019	1				
Marital status	0.17	-.010	0.22	1			
Educational qualification	0.18	0.03	-0.06	-.012	1		
Length of service	0.16	0.05	-0.02	-0.08	0.68	1	
Job status	0.35	-0.07	-0.14	0.01	.000	0.39	1
Mean	55.1250	01.2500	42.0900	01.93	03.91	07.8500	01.67
S.D	14.5983	0.420	07.4400	01.93	0.5300	01.200	0.74

The result shows that Job performance had significant correlations with the independent variables viz: Sex ( $r=0.17$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), Age ( $r=0.15$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), Marital status ( $r=0.17$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), Educational qualification ( $r=0.18$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), Length of service ( $r=0.16$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) Job status ( $r=0.35$ ,  $p<0.05$ ).

The results from Table 4.2 depict correlations significant test among independent variables (work motivation, sex, age, marital status, educational qualification, length of service, job status and job stress) and dependent variable (job performance) among college of education lecturers. The result shows that job performance had significant correlations with all the eight independent variables viz: work motivation ( $r = 0.70, p < 0.05$ ), sex ( $r = 0.17, p < 0.05$ ), age ( $r = 0.15, P < 0.05$ ), marital status ( $r = 0.17, P < 0.05$ ), educational qualification ( $r = 0.18, P < 0.05$ ), length of service ( $r = 0.16, p < 0.05$ ), job status ( $r = 0.35, p < 0.05$ ) and job stress ( $r = 0.54, p < 0.05$ ) of the respondents.

The result of the research question 1 shows that the eight independent variables correlated significantly with job performance of the participants. This was in agreement with some past studies which equally established that there is significant correlation between sex, and job performance of lecturer (Susec-Michieli & Kalsnik, 1983). Nevertheless, it has been equally well-documented in the literature that there was no significant relationship between gender and job performance of the staff (Huff, Koenig, Treptau and Sireci 1999; and Salaudeen and Murtala, 2005). The result of this study also shows that age did correlate significantly with job performance of the lecturers (Obioma and Salau, 2007; Johnes, 1990; and Vander Hulst and Jansen, 2002).

The results of this study therefore suggests that the work motivation is more potent to academic performances than job stress in a study conducted in University of Nigeria Nnsuka in which the work motivation was a better predictor of job performance among lecturers (Obioma & Salau, 2007). Several factors could be responsible for the difference, including organisational climate and societal morality. More so, the finding shows that educational qualification significantly correlated with job performance of lecturers. This finding is in line with Abe (1995); Fretz (1998); and Brown and Morrison (2004). Also about 70per cent of the respondents that were used for the in-depth interview (IDI) agree that there is a strong relationship between job stress, wok motivation, demographic variables and job performance.

One of the respondents in Federal College of Education Akoka responded that;

*Job stress is associated with rapid pace of changes in education, inability to adequately meet the demands of students, while well equip office and timely payment of salary coupled with equal opportunities for male and female enhance job performance.*

**Female IDI Participant in Lagos State /45 years (March 5, 2010)**

The researcher is interested in investigating whether work motivation, sex, age, marital status, educational qualification, length of service, job status and job stress would significantly predict job performance of participants. To accomplish this laudable objective, multiple regression analysis was resorted to, job performance as a dependent variable was regressed on work motivation, sex, age, marital status, educational qualification, length of service, job status and job stress, as the independent variables.

**Research Question 2:** To what extent does the combination of each of the variables {job stress, work motivation and demographic variables) predict job performance among colleges of education lecturers in Southwestern Nigeria?

**TABLE 4.3: Summary of Regression Analysis of the Combined Prediction of Academic Performance by the Eight Independent Variables**

R	R-Square	Adjusted R-Square	Std. Error of the Estimate		
0.767	0.588	0.586	9.3878		
<b>Analysis of Variance</b>					
<b>Source of Variation</b>	<b>Sum of Square</b>	<b>Df</b>	<b>Mean square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Regression	265533.06	8	33191.633	376.616	0.000*
Residual	186044.81	2111	88.131		
Total	451577.88	2119			

\*Significant at  $p < 0.05$

Table 4.3 shows the prediction of all the eight independent variables with respect to the dependent variable. The, job performance of the participants correlated positively with the eight predictor variables. It also shows a coefficient of multiple correlations (R) of 0.767 and a multiple adjusted R square of 0.586. This means that 58.6per cent of the variance in the job performance of participants is accounted for by all eight predictor variables when taken together. The significance of the composite contribution of the prediction was tested at  $p < 0.05$  using the F- ratio at the degrees of freedom (df= 8, 2111). Further, the table shows that the analysis of variance for the regression yielded a F-ratio of 376.616 (significant at 0.05 level). This implies that the combined contribution of the independent variables to the dependent variable was

significant and that other variables not included in this model may have accounted for the remaining variance.

The result of research question 2 shows that 58.6per cent of the variance in job performance of college of education lecturers is accounted for by the work motivation, sex, age, marital status, educational qualification, length of service, job status and job stress. Several IDI participants strongly felt that the combined contribution of job stress, work motivation, demographic variables has major impact on job performance. One of the participants used for the IDI in Adeyemi College responded that

*Job stress, work motivation and demographic variables are the major determinants of job performance and job performance anchor on it.*

**Male IDI Participant in Ondo State, 35 years (March 15, 2010)**

Though the value is small, the F-value 376.62 which was significant at  $P = 0.05$  and shows that the effect is still significant. Luster and McAdoo (1994) posit that differences in job performance and behavioural adjustment are as a result of individuals' variables like family size, material, education, poverty and home environment. Aber (1994), Adetona (2005) and Ukwueze (2007) also support the result by noting that socio-personal variables affect job performance. The result explains the need to look beyond one variable as accounting for either low or high job performance. If work motivation or job stress is identified as responsible for job performance, other variables like sex, academic qualification or length of service may influence job performance indirectly.

**Research Question 3:** What is the relative contribution of each of the variables (job stress, work motivation and demographic variables] to job performance among colleges of education lecturers in Southwestern Nigeria?

**TABLE 4.4: Relative Contribution of the Independent Variables to the Dependent Variable (Test of Significance of the Regression Coefficients)**

Variables	Unstandardised coefficient B	Standardised coefficient Beta	T	Sig
Constant	40.644	-	14.825	0.000*
Work motivation	0.689	0.532	33.459	0.000
Sex	0.574	0.019	2.760	0.034*
Age	0.349	0.399	8.134	0.000*
Marital status	0.831	0.015	6.125	0.000*
Educational Qualification	0.012	0.030	1.369	0.324
Length of service	0.153	0.150	3.812	0.012*
Job status	-0.005	-0.003	1.107	0.268
Job stress	0.560	-0.355	22.289	0.000

\*\* Significant at  $P < 0.00$  \* Significant at  $P < 0.05$

Table 4.4 reveals the relative contributions of the eight independent variables to the dependent variable, expressed as beta weights. The positive value of the effects of work motivation, sex, age, marital status, educational qualification, length of service, job status and job stress implies that the job performance of the participants is actually

determined by positive reinforcement of these eight variables. Using the standardised regression coefficients to determine the relative contributions of the independent variables to the explanation of the dependent variable work motivation ( $B = 0.532$ ,  $t=33.459$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ) is the most potent contributor to the prediction followed by age ( $B = 0.399$ ,  $t = 8.134$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ) followed by job stress ( $B = 0.355$ ,  $t=22.289$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ); followed by length of service ( $B=0.150$ ,  $t=3.812$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ); followed by length of service ( $B = 0.030$ ,  $t = 1.369$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ) followed by sex ( $B = 0.019$ ,  $t=2.760$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ) followed by marital status ( $B = 0.015$ ,  $t = 6.125$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ) and job status ( $B = 0.003$ ,  $t=1.107$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ) in that order. In a nutshell, job performance of college of education lecturers is determined by these eight variables in the order in which they contributed to the job performance of the participants.

The result on research question 3 shows the relative contribution of each of these independent variables to job performance among lecturers in colleges of education in southwestern, Nigeria. In the study, work motivation appears as the most potent contributor to job performance among participants. This means that work motivation of participants is more important than any other factor in predicting their job performance. Also, 85 per cent of the lecturers use for the IDI agree with the fact that motivation is the most potent predictor of job performance.

One of the respondents in Emmanuel Alayande College of Education states that;

*The essence of working is to get salary to take care of our various responsibilities. I envy federal lecturers, they are better paid and low stress compared to their counterparts in the state colleges*

**Male IDI Participant in Oyo State/ 56 years (April 11, 2010)**

Job stress was next to work motivation in predicting job performance of the participants. This finding was in line with Obioma and Salau (2007) who examined the extent to which work motivation will determine the job performance of lecturers and administrators. They observe that work motivation is statistically significant in predicting job performance of lecturers and administrators. Also, this study was found to be in line with Abe (1995) who notes that, it is possible to perceive the totality of a man's being guided and rule by psychological variables in which work motivation is one. Also, this finding is in line with Onocha (1985) who conceptualises that the modern man as a person has his/her educational aspiration and accomplishment projected by the social and psychological variables in the environment.

Job stress was the next potent factor that predicts job performance of the participants in Southwestern Nigeria. This shows that job stress is significant to job performance. This finding corroborates Jansen (1996) and Hulst and Janean (2002). They observe that workers perform better when they are under stress than when there is no stress indicating that high job stress is an indicator of low job performance. Also, this finding is contrary to the finding of Trueman and Hartley (1996) that no job stress perform equally well or sometimes better than moderate job stress. Job status is next to job stress, it is a moderate predictive factor of job performance of workers or participants. This finding is in line with Umo and Ejedu (2008) who note that job status had low correlation with job performance. They conclude that job status correlates poorly with job performance of workers due to malpractices/corruption, which have eaten deep into the society.

The result reveals that educational qualification is not significant in predicting job performance of participants. This implies that education qualification has no significant effect on how a person will perform. This finding is contrast to the work of Akinsola (1984 and 1999) and Amosun (2002) who find educational qualification as a determining factor in doing well on a particular task. This may be due to the environment, leadership styles, organisational climate and quality of work life, home background as found by Gamoran (1992), Olson (1994) and Jordan and Nestle (1999) who cited these as other factors that may enhance the job performance of the workers in the working environment.

## Research Hypotheses

### Hypothesis 1

There will be no significant relationship between job performance and work motivation of lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria

**Table 4.5: Correlation table between job performance and work motivation**

Variable	No	Mean	Std. Dev.	DF	r	P	Remark
Job Performance	2120	55.1250	14.5983	2118	.700**	.000	Sig.
Work Motivation	2120	42.2887	11.2634				

\*\* sig. at .01 level

It is shown in table 4.5 that, there is significant relationship between job performance and work motivation of lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria ( $r = .700^{**}$ ,  $DF = 2118$ ,  $P < .01$ ). Work Motivation had greatly influence the Job Performance of Lecturers in Colleges of Education in Southwestern Nigeria. The null hypothesis is rejected. The hypothesis states that there will be no significant relationship between situational judgement and job performance of colleges of education lecturers in Southwestern Nigeria.

The results in table 4.5 indicate that significant difference exists between work motivation and job the performance of colleges of education lecturers in southwestern Nigeria. This implies that work motivation has enormous predictive effects in the enhancement of the workers' job performance.

The results of this study lend support to the findings of Abraham (2003), Mount and Barrick (1994). These studies note that performance of workers can be enhanced through motivation because it relies on the attributes of the workers as a method of promoting the work output of the employees. Also Kahn's (1990) find out that job performance has the potentials for satisfying the psychological needs of employees once they engage themselves more completely in tasks of developing their potentials through motivational factors .

The results further reveal that variations in respect of the motivation of the individuals often account for the enhancement of the job performance of the administrative workers. This finding supports Salgado (2005) and Goldberg (1993). The finding contradicts those of Helmreich and Spence (1978) that employees trained with motivational factors tests do not perform better than their counterparts who have received more rewards from their work due to high level of job performance. The present findings, however, supports the results of a study carried out by Motowidlo and Tippin (1991) that behaviour pattern displayed in an organisation did not contribute to differences in visual and motor performance. The researchers explained that the frequently voiced assumption that individuals treated with motivation are better than those not exposed in term of performance has not been scientifically proved.

## **Hypothesis 2**

There will be no significant relationship between job performance and job stress of lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria



**Table 4.6: Correlation table between job stress and job performance**

Variable	No	Mean	Std. Dev.	DF	r	P	Remark
Job Performance	2120	55.1250	14.5983	2118	.54**	.000	Sig.
Job Stress	2120	28.2439	09.2457				

**\*\* sig. at .01 level**

It is shown in table 4.6 that there is a negative significant relationship between job performance and job stress of lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria ( $r = -.54^{**}$ ,  $DF = 2118$ ,  $P < .01$ ). This indicates that the Job Stress had negatively influenced the Job performance of the lecturers in the study. The null hypothesis is rejected. This findings is in line with McGrath, (2006) that opines that job stress is a disruption of the emotional stability of the individual that induces a state of disorganisation in personality and behaviour, a biological phenomenon experienced by every person regardless of socio-economic status, occupation or age, and as the way the individual responds to conditions that scare, threatening, anger, bewilder or excite them. This finding contradicts that of Acholu (2005) which affirms that stressors are everywhere including home, work and social environment. They are events, people, thoughts, things or any stimulus that cause stress and that it is important to note and emphasize that not all stressors are bad. According to him Job stress has both positive and negative effects on job performance.

### **Hypothesis 3**

There will be no significant relationship between job performance and age of lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria.

**Table 4.7: Correlation Table between Job Performance and Age of Lecturers.**

Variable	No	Mean	Std. Dev.	DF	R	P	Remark
Job Performance	2120	55.1250	14.5983	2118	.15	< 0.05	S
Age	2120	42.0900	07.4400				

It is shown in table 4.7 that there is no significant relationship between job performance and age of lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria ( $r = .15$ ,  $DF = 2118$ ,  $P < .05$ ). This indicates that age has influence on the job performance

of the lecturers in the study. The null hypothesis is rejected. In other words, job performance was influenced by the age of colleges of education lecturers. This finding is in line with Robbins (2001) who submits that, at the organisational level, management should exercise control over the age of the staff in order to ensure a satisfactory level of performance. In addition to this, Zimmermann (1997) finds that there is a higher intrinsic job performance among old employees.

The finding is not in line with Alan and David's (1999) on the relationship between age and job performance evaluations of newcomers hired into entry-level positions in public accounting firms. It notes a negative relationship between age and job performance evaluation. The finding is also inconsistent with Biala (2000) on job performance, career commitment and self-efficacy as correlates of police job performance. His study reveals a negative and no significant relationship between age and job performance of 200 officers in Ibadan metropolis.

One of the respondents in Federal College of Education, Osiele, Abeokuta, Ogun State states that;

*Senior academics have reached a stage where career development is not a major concern, they exhibited less-zeal compare to their junior counterparts.*

### **Male IDI Participant in Ogun State/59 years (April 19, 2010)**

#### **Hypothesis 4**

There will be no significant relationship between Job performance and marital status of lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria

**Table 4.8: Correlation Table Between Marital Status and Job Performance**

Variable	No	Mean	Std. Dev.	DF	r	P	Remark
Job Performance	2120	55.1250	14.5983	2118	.17	< 0.05	S.
Marital Status	2120	-	-				

It is shown in table 4.8 that there is significant relationship between job performance and marital status of lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria ( $r = .17$ ,  $DF = 2118$ ,  $P < .05$ ). This indicates that marital status had significant influence on the Job performance of lecturers that is participated in this study. The

null hypothesis is therefore rejected. This implies that the job performance of college of education lecturers is greatly influenced by their marital status. This finding is in line with Mehay (2005). His finding reveals that married men received significantly supervisor performance ratings than single men during their early career with the organisation and those who stayed are likely to be promoted. The study of Hsieh (2004) also confirms this finding.

Hsieh (2004) finds a significant difference between marital status and job performance of 303 flight attendants. Hence, significant difference exists between the workers based on their marital status. Jimoh and Awoyemi (2005) observe that marital status correlates significantly with the job performance of administrative workers in selected state universities in Southwestern Nigeria. Barricks (2007) findings reveals that job performance is influenced by the marital status of the individual worker. Hammed and Jimoh (2004) also reveal that the marital status of the individual worker in an organisation has a significant predictive influence on the nature and type of job performed in the organisation. Hence, marital status has both positive and negative impact on job performance of the individual.

On the contrary, Adepoju (2001), finds no significant relationship in job performance based on the marital status among 200 secondary school teachers in Oyo State.

### **Hypothesis 5**

There will be no significant relationship between job performance and highest educational qualification of lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria.

**Table 4.9: Correlation Table Showing Relationship between Educational Qualification and Job Performance**

Variable	No	Mean	Std. Dev.	DF	r	P	Remark
Job Performance	2120	55.125	14.5983	2118	.18	< 0.05	S.
Educational Qualification	2120	-	-				

It is shown in table 4.9 that there is no significant relationship between job performance and educational qualification of lecturers in colleges of education in

Southwestern Nigeria ( $r = .18$ ,  $DF = 2118$ ,  $P < .05$ ). This indicates that high educational qualification had significant influence on the job performance of the lecturers in the study. The null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that the level of education qualification of colleges of education lecturers in Southwestern Nigeria do have influence on their job performance. This finding is in line Wellmaker (1985), that significant positive relationship exists between educational qualification level of workers and their job performance.

McCrea, (1999) contradicts the finding of this hypothesis; findings reveal that job performance has a lot of input from the personal attribute of the individual rather than the possession of educational qualification. This perhaps accounts for the reasons why an individual that failed to possess educational knowledge excel more than those with formal education.

### **Hypothesis 6**

There will be no significant relationship between job performance and job status of lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria

**Table 4.10: Correlation Table Showing Significant Relationship between Job Performance and Job Status among Lecturers**

Variable	No	Mean	Std. Dev.	DF	R	P	Remark
Job Performance	2120	55.1250	14.5983	2118	.35	< 0.05	S.
Job Status	2120	-	-				

It is shown in table 4.10 that there is significant relationship between job performance and job status of lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria ( $r = .35$ ,  $DF = 2118$ ,  $P < .05$ ). This indicates that job status had significant influence on the Job performance of the Lecturers in the study. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected. Berns (1989) finds that as the age of the teachers increased as well as the total year of teaching, so did their overall job performance level increased.

### **Hypothesis 7**

There will be no significant relationship between job performance and length of service of lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria.

**Table 4.11: Correlation Table Showing Relationship between Job Performance and Length of Service of Lecturers**

Variable	No	Mean	Std. Dev.	DF	r	P	Remark
Job Performance	2120	55.1250	14.5983	2118	.16	<.05	S.
Length of Service	2120	11.02	7.85				

It is shown in table 4.11 that there is significant relationship between job performance and length of service of lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria ( $r = .16$ ,  $DF = 2118$ ,  $P < .05$ ). This indicates that length of service had significant influence on the Job performance of the lecturers in this study. Null hypothesis is rejected.

The hypothesis states that there will be no significant relationship between length of service and job performance of college of education lecturers in Southwestern Nigeria. The results reveal that there was significant difference between length of service and job performance of colleges of education lecturers in Southwestern Nigeria. Hence the null hypothesis is rejected, implying that job performance of college of education lecturers is influenced by the length of service of the employee.

This finding is in line with McCrae (1994). His study examined the length of service among top managers in the Qatari banking sector. It investigated the longstanding argument that top managers tend to stay for a longer period of time in their managerial positions and also attempted to point out the related positive and negative consequences and outline the reasons why predecessors left their managerial positions. The study reveals that the ideal length of service is five years. It is indicated that there is positive statistical relationship between length of service and managers' job performance.

Avolio, Waldman and Mcdaniel's (1990) show that when tenure is controlled, age effects on performance disappear. Conversely, when age is controlled, the effects of tenure remain and this has a positive influence on the job performance of the workers in the organisation.

Adebayo (2004) reveals that length of service in an organisation tends to make the job performance of workers to decline in value. It concludes that the more a worker spend in an organisation the more the job performance decline which is mainly due to ageing on the job. Stephenson's (2006) findings however contradicted the research studies of Adebayo (2004). The studies reveal that workers length of service has a significant positive correlation with the job performance in an organisation, because the older workers tends to exhibit more level of commitment and experience, acquired over a long period of time compared to the younger ones.

### Hypothesis 8

There will be no significant relationship between job performance and sex of lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria

**Table 4.12: Correlation table Showing Significant Relationship between Job Performance and Sex of the Lecturers**

Variable	No	Mean	Std. Dev.	DF	r	P	Remark
Job Performance	2120	55.1250	14.5983	2118	0.17	< 0.05	S.
Sex	2120	-	-				

It is shown in table 4.12 that there is significant relationship between job performance and sex of lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria ( $r = .17$ ,  $DF = 2118$ ,  $P < .05$ ). This indicates that sex had significant influence on the Job performance of the Lecturers in this study. Null hypothesis is rejected. Though gender is not a function of task assignment but it is believed that male workers do perform better than their female counterparts. The result contradicts the findings of Abraham (2003) and Owolabi (2007) conclude that there is significant difference in the performance of male and female workers. However, the result is in line with the finding of Smith (1996) who submits that there is no significant difference in the performance of male and female employees' police officers. The results show that male and female officers perceived themselves equally qualified to carry out tasks required in law enforcement, including administration and supervision. He submits that male and female police officers work equally well on their job and there is no significant differences in their job performance, capabilities and administrative skills

even when level of education and years of experience are controlled. This finding is also consistent with Biala (2000) on job performance, career commitment and self-efficacy as correlates of police job performance carried out on 200 officers in Ibadan metropolis which find that there is no significant difference in the job performance of male and female officers.

One of the respondents in Osun State College of Education states that:

*Men are more active, committed and perform better than their female counterparts in all ramifications. Most females shy away from responsibilities and lay the bulk of the work on their male counterparts.*

**Male IDI Participant in Osun State/31 years (April 30, 2010)**

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter discusses the summary, conclusion, recommendations, limitations, generalisation, implication and conclusion of the study.

#### 5.1 Summary of Findings

Job stress, work motivation and demographic variables, sex, age, marital status, and educational qualification, length of service, job status and job stress are significantly correlated with job performance of the respondents.

Work motivation, sex, age, marital status, and educational qualification, length of service, job status and job stress jointly predicted job performance of participants, they accounted for 58.6per cent.

The relative order of importance (in decreasing order) of the eight predictor variables to the criterion variable is as follows: work motivation, job stress, marital status, sex, educational qualification, job status, length of service and age.

There is significant relationship between age and job performance of the participants. There is significant relationship between gender and job performance of the participants. There is significant relationship between work motivation and job performance of the participants. There is significant relationship between job stress and job performance of the participants. There is significant relationship between job status and job performance of the participants. There is significant relationship between academic qualification and job performance of the participants. There is significant relationship between length of service and job performance of the participants. There is significant relationship between marital status and job performance of the participants.

The in-depth interview conducted among lecturers in the 11 government owned colleges of education in the six southwestern states of Nigeria reveal that senior academics exhibited less zeal compared to job performance of their junior counterparts.

#### 5.2 Limitations of the Study

The first problem encountered in this study is that the participants were drawn only from federal and state colleges of Education in Southwestern Nigeria, without covering lecturers in private colleges. Another limitation of the study is the non-chalant attitude of the respondents to the questionnaires because of fear of



commitment. Moreover, most of the respondents were always busy in their place of work and found it very difficult to fill the questionnaire on time. More so, 2,300 questionnaires were administered before the total number of 2120 which were used for this study were retrieved. Finally, due to dearth of local literature on the subject-matter, most of the texts cited are foreign materials and this limited the robustness of the study.

### **5.3 Implications of the Study**

This study has helped in the better understanding of the roles of job stress, work motivation, sex, age, marital status, educational qualification, length of service and job status as predictors of job performance among lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria. It has revealed that, the independent variables play major roles in determining the job performance of lecturers. The study has helped to reveal that these factors, if properly utilised, enhanced and manipulated will boost employees' level of job performance in public and private institutions, as well as other organisations in the country.

### **5.4 Conclusion**

Based on the research findings of this study and the analysis carried out, this study concludes that, job stress, work motivation, sex, age, marital status, educational qualification, length of service and job status had significant effects in the prediction of job performance of lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigeria and as such should be enhanced to improve job performance of lecturers.

### **5.5 Recommendations**

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are made:

1. Managements, policymakers and organisational behaviourists in every organisation are advised to recognise the roles of the job stress, work motivation and demographic variables in the enhancement of job performance of their workers.
2. An awareness of job stress, work motivation and demographic variables will enable lecturers to retain their employment and make them perform effectively and efficiently in order to achieve the organisational goals and objectives.
3. Management and policymakers should motivate their employees and study their state of job stress and demographic factors before assigning tasks in order to boost their level of job performance.

4. More male lecturers are suggested to be recruited as a means of enhancing job performance in colleges of education and stimulating work environment, couple with appropriate motivational factors should be better enhanced in the colleges of education.
5. There is need for regular appraisal and reappraisal of job stress, work motivation and demographic variables among lecturers in colleges of education in order to promote maximum productivity and enhance job performance.

### **5.6 Suggestions for Further Studies**

Further studies should attempt to overcome the limitations that were encountered in this study and also to examine other issues that may enhance employees' job performance. It is also suggested that further studies should attempt to test the cause and effect of these variables and demographic factors on job performance using other research designs. Finally, it is suggested that similar research should be conducted and extended to Colleges of Education in other parts of Nigeria as a way to further ascertain the research findings of employees covered in this study.

### **5.7 Contributions to Knowledge**

This study investigated, job stress, work motivation, sex, age, marital status, educational qualification, length of service and job status on job performance of lecturers in colleges of education in Southwestern Nigerian. The results reveal the importance of using these job stress, work motivation and demographical variables in the assessment of lecturers' job performance in colleges of education.

This study has provided a strong basis for bridging the gap of past research on job stress, work motivation and demographic variables as predictors of job performance of lecturers in colleges of education in southwestern Nigeria. The study show that job stress, work motivation and demographic variables are strong predictors of job performance of lectures in colleges of education in southwestern Nigeria. The study reveals the fact that with appropriate institutions, government and policymakers' intervention, job performance will be positively enhanced among colleges of education lecturers.

Another contribution to knowledge is in the area of direct and indirect effects of the job stress, work motivation and demographical variables. This study has established that this factor if properly identified and used has a predictive effect in enhancing job performance.

The study will serve as a good database for government, management of colleges of education (Federal and State) and all other stakeholders in the educational sector.

Finally, its contribution to knowledge also encompasses the expansion of the scope of literature in filling the existing gap in the educational sector.

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**APPENDIX I**  
**UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN, IBADAN, NIGERIA**  
**FACULTY OF EDUCATION**  
**DEPARTMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION**

This questionnaire is strictly for research purpose. It is designed to obtain data on job stress, work motivation and demographic variables as predictors of job performance among Colleges of Education lecturers in South-Western Nigeria. Information supplied will be treated with absolute confidentiality. Please respond to it appropriately.

Thank you for filling this questionnaire;

**SECTION A**  
**DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS**

Institution-----

Department-----

Sex:    Male (   )                                  Female (   )

Age: -----

Marital status-----

Highest educational qualification-----

Length of service: -----

Job status: -----

## SECTION B

### JOB PERFORMANCE SCALE

Kindly use the format below to rate yourself by ticking the number that indicates your feeling on the item using a 4 point likert format as follows:

1 = Strongly Disagree      2 = Disagree  
 3 = Agree                      4 = Strongly agree

S/N	ITEMS	1	2	3	4
1.	I am properly equipped, professionally and administratively for the job allocated to me.				
2.	All assignment/responsibilities are completed beyond the level of expectations.				
3.	I consistently display high level of skills, abilities, initiative and self direction in my place of work				
4.	I display and maintain an effective and consistent level of performance of the job in my organization				
5.	I regularly achieve desired outcomes in my job				
6.	I work independently without close supervision/inspection compulsion				
7.	I exhibit knowledge of the methods practices and equipment needed to do the job.				
8.	I often keep abreast of new development on major issues.				
9.	As an employee, I respond to changes and adjust to new challenges				
10.	I am very reliable as an employee in performing work assignments and carryout instructions in the organization.				
11.	I report to work on a timely basis and stay on the job seeking prior approval for vocation and giving prompt notice to supervisor of absence due to illness or others to supervisor.				
12.	I exhibit willingness to work as a team member				
13.	Setting effective goals, planning ahead and establishing priorities is very crucial to my job in this organization				

14.	I have ability to make the most effective use of time facilities, materials, equipment, employee, skills and other resources.				
15.	I have the ability to communicate effectively in both oral and written expressions with other employees in this organization				

## SECTION C

### WORK MOTIVATION RATING SCALE

Please respond to the following items by ticking the number that indicates your feeling using the 4 point likert format as follows;

**1. Strongly Agree      2. Agree      3. Disagree      4. Strongly Disagree**

S/N	ITEMS	1	2	3	4
1	I believe that burning desire in me to succeed is unquenchable				
2	Once my mind is made up, I do not go back				
3	I often thank people for a job well done				
4	I reward on merit alone				
5	I recognize on merit alone				
6	I can identify people who are using their talents and move to appropriate position				
7	I seek opportunities for radical changes and take advantage of them when they occur				
8	I effect changes after due consultations with those affected.				
9	When I consider it necessary, I bend the rules and avoid working by the regulations				
10	I resolve disputes as soon as they are noticed				
11	I delegate work that does not have to be done by me				
12	Most time, I organize tasks and responsibilities in such a way that another person can complete them.				
13	I allow workers and colleagues to act and use their own initiatives.				
14	I take some difficult decisions when occasion demands it.				
15	I assign workers to tasks based on my assessment of their ability or what they can do.				
16	I like people to assess me				
17	I constantly get a full and up-to-date information on				

	those people should know about it				
18	I often feel there is nothing secret about personal emoluments, other people should know about it				
19	I do not like to play office politics and I discourage colleagues from getting involved in it.				
20	To me failure is not an end in itself but an opportunity to reflect and make amend.				

**SECTION D**  
**JOB STRESS SCALE (JSS)**

This questionnaire seeks to assess job stress of academic staff of Colleges of Education. The following are some of the factors which cause job stress in the life of an average Nigerian Colleges of Education lecturers. Kindly rate each of them according to how important they are causing job stress in your life at present. Rate each item follow the format. Tick the number that expresses your level of stress.

1=No Stress, 2= Low Stress, 3=Moderate Stress, 4 = High Stress.

	<b>Items</b>	1	2	3	4
1	I want advice on my life career				
2	I am depressed by frequent thought of career				
3	I am worried about lack of adequate information on wages from employers.				
4	I am worried about lack of adequate occupational information from both public and private sections.				
5	I am interested in status earning career.				
6	I am interested in earning				
7	limited opportunity for promotion government work always bored me				
8	Job insecurity				
9	Lack of control over my workload				
10	I am worried about lack of adequate facilities in the school				
11	Teaching assignment bore me				
12	My personal expectations on my work worried me				
13	I found teaching evaluation difficult				
14	I found it very difficult to carry out my primary teaching assignment				
15	I feel depressed about the attitude of parents towards their children				
16	I am worried about the attitude of students toward their education				
17	Your supervisor is helpful in getting the job done				
18	You are exposed to hostility or conflict from people you work with.				
19	I found it difficult in managing time when doing my job				



20	I found it very difficult in evaluating the performance of students.				
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## APPENDIX II

The population of the lecturers from the selected Colleges of Education are as follows:

**S/N NAMES OF COLLEGES OF EDUCATION NO. OF LECTURERS**

### **Oyo state**

- |   |   |     |
|---|---|-----|
| 1. Emmanuel Alayande College of Education, Oyo, Oyo State | - | 292 |
| 2. Federal College of Education (Special) Oyo, Oyo State  | - | 296 |

### **Ondo state**

- |  |   |     |
|--|---|-----|
| 1. Adeyemi College of Education Ondo, Ondo State | - | 272 |
|--|---|-----|

### **Osun state**

- |   |   |     |
|---|---|-----|
| 1. College of Education, Ilesha. Osun State                 | - | 202 |
| 2. Osun State College of Education, Ila Orangun, Osun State | - | 181 |

### **Ogun state**

- |   |   |     |
|---|---|-----|
| 1. Federal College of Education, Osiele, Abeokuta, Ogun State | - | 221 |
| 2. Tai Solarin College of Education, Omun-Ijebu Ogun State    | - | 341 |

### **Ekiti state**

- |   |  |     |
|---|--|-----|
| 1. College of Education, Ikere Ekiti, Ekiti State |  | 357 |
|---|--|-----|

### **Lagos state**

- |   |   |     |
|---|---|-----|
| 1. Adeniran Ogunsanya College of Education, Otto-Ijanikin, Lagos State  | - | 316 |
| 2. Micheal Otedola College of Primary Education (Lagos State College of Education) Noforija, Epe, Lagos State |   | 250 |
| 3. Federal College of Education (Technical) Akoka, Lagos state  | - | 213 |

Total =2,914

**Source:** National Commission for Colleges of Education (2008) Statistical Digest and Colleges of Education Staff Nominal Roll (2010)

**APPENDIX III**  
**IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW**

**VENUE: SITE OF EACH COLLEGE OF EDUCATION**

INTERVIEWER: KETIM QUADRI

SUB-THEMES

Job stress and job performance

Work motivation and job performance

Demographic variables and job performance

**INTRODUCTION**

I want to thank you for taking the time to meet with me today. My name is Ketim Quadri and I would like to talk to you about your job performance, job stress, work motivation and demographic variables. The interview should take less than an hour. I will be taping the session because I don't want to miss any of your comments. Although I will be taking some notes during the session, I can't possibly write fast enough to get it all down. Because we're on tape, please be sure to speak up so that we don't miss your comments.

All response will be kept confidential. This means that your interview responses will only shared with research team members and we will ensure that any information we include in our reports does not identify you as the respondent. Remember, you don't have to talk about anything you don't have to talk about anything you don't want to and you may end the interview at any time.

Are there any questions about what I have just explained?

Are you willing to participate in this interview?

-----

Date

**IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW QUESTIONS**

1. What is the relationship among job stress, work motivation, demographic variables and job performance of Colleges of Education lecturers in South-Western Nigeria?
2. To what extent does the combination of each of the variables {Job Stress, Work Motivation and Demographic Variables) predict Job Performance among Colleges of Education Lecturers in South-Western Nigeria?
3. What is the relative contribution of each of the variables (Job stress, Work

Motivation and Demographic Variables] to Job Performance among Colleges of Education Lecturers in Southwestern Nigeria?

4. What is the relationship between Job stress and Job Performance among Colleges of Education Lecturers in South-Western Nigeria?

5. What is the relationship between Work Motivation and Job Performance among Colleges of Education Lecturers in South-Western Nigeria?

6. What is the relationship between Educational Qualification and Job Performance among Colleges of Education Lecturers in South-Western Nigeria?

7. What is the relationship between Age and Job Performance among Colleges of Education Lecturers in South-Western Nigeria?

8. What is the relationship between Gender and Job Performance of Colleges of Education Lecturers in South-Western Nigeria?

9. What is the relationship between Marital Status and Job Performance among Colleges of Education Lecturers in South-Western Nigeria?

10. What is the relationship between Working Experience and Job Performance among Colleges of Education Lecturers in South-Western Nigeria?

11. What is the relationship between Job Status and Job Performance among Colleges of Education Lecturers in South-Western Nigeria?

Is there anything more you would like to add?

Thank you for your time.