# JOB-RELATED STRESSORS, EMPLOYEES' PERSONAL AND ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS AS PREDICTORS OF JOB PERFORMANCE IN THE CIVIL SERVICE OF OYO STATE, NIGERIA

BY

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CERTIFICATION

I certify that this study was carried out by Liadi Olagoke SALAMI (Matric No. 77703) under my supervision, in the Department of Adult Education, Faculty of Education, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to Almighty Allah for his grace and enablement to finish this course.

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Liadi Olagoke SALAMI
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ABSTRACT

The civil service job performance profile revealed arrays of complacency and absenteeism. This problem has been attributed partially to a mismatch in job demands, work environment, and individual abilities and behavioural pattern. Previous studies have focused on each isolated effects rather than on the multivariate impacts of the combination of these predisposing factors. This study, therefore, examined the prediction of job-related stressors, employees' personal and organisational factors on job performance in the civil service of Oyo State, Nigeria.

The survey research design was adopted. The combination of proportional, purposive, stratified and simple random sampling techniques was used in selecting 1867 civil servants (342 cadre 13 and above, 657 cadre 7- 12 and 870 cadre 1- 6) based on the size of the 10 ministries, seven departments and five agencies used. Job- Related Stressors Questionnaire (r=0.80), Employees' Personal Factors Scale (r=0.89), Organisational Factors Scale (r=0.84) and Civil Servants' Performance Rating Scale (r=0.76) were used to collect information from the respondents. These were complemented with 18 sessions of Indepth Interviews with civil servants; three each across the three cadres in two ministries, departments and agencies respectively. Two research questions were answered and four hypotheses tested at 0.05 significance level. Data were analysed using descriptive statistics, Pearson's product moment correlation, t-test, multiple regression and content analysis.

Job-related stressors, employees' personal and organisational factors had a positive significant prediction on civil service job performance in Oyo State ($F_{(13, 1848)}$=83.376) and contributed 36.5% to its variance. Their relative contributions were: employees' personal factors (β=0.11), organisational factors (β=0.09) and Job-related stressors (β=-0.04). However, job-related stressors correlated relatively with job performance as follows: workload (r=0.23), drive for greater effectiveness (r=0.23), workpace (r=0.19) and poor job skills (r=0.16). Also employees' personal factors correlated relatively with job performance as ranked: coping skills (r=0.46), demographic characteristics (r=0.44), work-life conflict (r=0.39) and personality traits (r=0.37). While the relative correlation of organisational factors were: organisational structure (r=0.42), changes within the service (r=0.38), reward system (r=0.37) and organisational culture (r=0.25). There were significant differences in observed performance across departments ($F_{(6, 1855)}$=2.136) and ministries ($F_{(9, 1852)}$=2.129) sampled. The work environment was perceived not to be flexible enough to accommodate innovations and creativity. The coping skills, abilities, traits and characteristics of individual were not taken into cognizance in assigning responsibilities.

Job-related stressors, employees' personal and organisational factors positively predicted job performance of civil servants in Oyo State. Therefore, there is the need for greater considerations for the combinations of the three factors when job schedules are assigned to civil servants. There is also the need to ensure proper fits between individuals and their work environment in order to reduce the rate of work-life conflicts.

Key words: Job-related stressors, Civil servants' performance, Work-life conflicts.

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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

The civil service in all countries of the world bears responsibility for translating visions, policies and programmes established by the political leadership into concrete actions and reality that will impact on the overall well-being of the citizenry. This is done by relying on the great traditions of public administration that was established as early as the mid-17th century in Prussia (The Columbia Electronic Encyclopedia, 2011). It is on record that the establishment of the modern civil service is closely associated with the decline of feudalism and the growth of the national autocratic states with a later development of the professional civil service several decades after in Great Britain (1855) and the United States (1871). As a hierarchical organisation, the civil service is saddled with many and varied tasks where the employees are meant to be professional, neutral, non- political and anonymous in course of carrying out their responsibilities and schedules.(Uzondu,2012)

The Nigerian Civil Service, which is the machinery through which the government of Nigeria, at all levels, implements its policies designed to meet political aims and provide social services; consists of employees- Civil Servants- in government ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs) other than the military. The civil service, which is expected to execute government decisions, plays vital role in the development of the economies and politics of all nations. Suffice it to say that the performance of the Nigerian civil service is critical to the socio-economic and political development of Nigeria given the dominance of government in every sphere of the Nigerian socio-political and economic lives.

Contrary to expectations, the civil service in Nigeria unlike what is obtainable in Britain, still considered by most critics as stagnant and inefficient (Azinge, 2011, Uzondu, 2012), and every attempts made so far to reposition the civil service had little effects. Etuk (1981) and Anikpo (1984) were of the view that there is a myth about the nature and work life of an average Nigerian civil servant due to the nonchalant attitude and high sense of complacency among the civil servants. Besides, Uzondu (2012) submits that the high rate of absenteeism, loafing and lateness to work have become a cultural work value, which is independent of geo- political divisions, rural- urban residence, religious affiliation, sex or even age (Uche, 1984). These lackadaisical attitudes among the Nigerian civil servants is out rightly at variance with the enthusiasm, diligence and high sense of responsibility with which Nigerians generally approach community work (Ocho, 1984). Apparently, this is a peculiar problem related to the work orientations of many of the civil servants (Alo, 1984), that may

have to do with the lack of identity with and commitment to public organisational goals achievement, which many civil servants regarded as someone else's goals (Ocho, 1984). This is coupled with the deteriorating socio-economic situations which make the Nigerian workplace environment filled with tremendous stressors brought about by a variety of factors (Kester, Adigun & Boyede, 2009).

However, considering the fact that organisational performance is the most important criterion in evaluating organisations, their actions, and value added to the environments; the critics of the civil service in Nigeria have had to argue that a critical analysis of the eight factor model/dimensions of job performance across all civil service job will reveal absolute negativity and the irrelevances of the existence of the civil service in Nigeria. Conclusively, they have argued that there are evidences of low performance among the civil servants in the task specific behaviours which include those behaviors that an individual undertakes as part of a job and are the core substantive tasks that delineate one civil service job from another and also in the non-task specific behaviours which civil servants are required to undertake that do not pertain only to a particular job. Even low commitments are recorded in the written and oral communication tasks refer to activities where the civil servants are evaluated, not on the content of a message necessarily, but on the adeptness with which they deliver communication within the service.

Apart from the above, there are sabotage, lower motivation and morale in individual's performance that can also be assessed in terms of effort, either day to day, or when there are extraordinary circumstances in the civil service. This shows the low degree to which civil servants are committed to their job tasks. An assessment of the sixth performance domain in the Nigerian civil service, which deals with the aspect of personal discipline, will also reveal that most civil servants are not in good standing with the law as well as rules guiding their ethics and conducts within the service. There are observed problems with interpersonal work relationship among within the civil service. In essence, the degree to which a civil servant helps out the groups and his or her colleagues is full of alienation, aggressiveness, impulse; to the extent that the civil service system is nothing but a boredom with diminished work relationships, more interpersonal conflicts and increased organisational costs (Kester, Ogidan & Oni, 2010).

Obviously, a major problem plaguing the civil service in Nigeria since the early 1980's has been the problem of leadership. Most scholars writing on the Nigerian civil service have observed that it is largely the absence of commitment to those core values and ideals of good and effective leadership that has landed the civil service where it is today

(Gidado, 1997; Azinge, 2011; Uzondu, 2012).The civil service had been seriously plagued with divisible acrimonious and chameleonic characteristic of leaders with consequent effects on rewards and punishments. Okunade (2008:2) writing generally about the leadership problem in Nigeria opines: "One thing that is evident is the recognition of leadership deficit as an important factor in understanding Nigeria's predicament". Thus, Kester and Shadare (2010) citing Omolewa (1992) aver:

> *Our major problem… is leadership. We usurp power: we take what does not belong to us, and in the process we do not enjoy the stolen positions. We comment and lament and we suspect, everyone……The vicious circle continues until we are removed from office in ignominy only to discover that those who have flattered us and failed to tell us the truth are really not committed to us or to our cause. We have been deceived all along (p. 106).*

The above negative picture succinctly depicts a bad civil service job performance profile, where there are arrays of individual employee's complacency, nonchalant and lackadaisical attitude towards the accomplishment of the task assigned within the normal constraints of reasonable utilisation of the available resources.

Assumedly, the factors leading to this bad trend in the civil service vary among the cadre, career, occupations and even ministries, departments and agencies in the service. Some of the factors are job- related, which include: work overload, work pace, poor fit between abilities and skills, and drive for greater cost- effectiveness. While some arises from their individual characteristics or as a result of individual life circumstances/situations and they include: work-life conflicts, coping skills, demographic characteristics and personality traits. On the other there are those which are specifically related to the organisation itself; these are changes within the civil service system, organisational structure, reward systems, leadership style and organisational culture.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The Nigerian civil service has been noted and known for employee's complacency, nonchalant and lackadaisical attitude with an abnormal low job performance profile not effectively fit to cope with the demand and challenges of a modern international civil service. In the estimation of critics within and outside government circle, the Nigerian civil servants have not performed according to expectation compared to the civil services in developed countries.

Suffice it to say that despite all efforts to reform the Nigerian civil service, it has remained far from being ideal. According to Gidado (1997) the civil service has been tradition bound and somewhat ponderous; showing signs of deteriorations, dangerously low staff morale and productivity.

The negative attitudes to work among the civil servants significantly lead to poor work output, less commitment, low job involvement and low performance as well as high corruption practices which constitutes obstacles to economic growth and industrialisation in the country. This in turn affects the civil servants themselves, the image of the civil service and the nation at large.

This, therefore, raises the salient question of: what could be responsible for these abysmal low performances of the civil service in Nigeria? Is it because there are a lot of job-related stressors that is affecting mental health of the civil servants? Or is there anything wrong about the general personal profile of the civil servants themselves or the organisational factors of the service itself? It is on this basis that this study is therefore determining the extent to which job-related stressors, employees' personal and organisational factors predispose job performance level in the civil service of Oyo state, Nigeria.

1.3   Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study are to:

i.   determine the extent to which job-related stressors, employees' personal and organisational factors predispose the level of job performance in the civil service of Oyo state, Nigeria,

ii.   examine the existing relationship between the job-related stressors and job performance level in the civil service,

iii.   assess the extent to which the employees' personal factors relates with the job performance level in the civil service,

iv.   ascertain the existing relationship between the organisational factors and job performance level in the civil service,

v.   determine if there are performance differentials in the civil service on the basis of staff cadre and MDAs, and

vi.   examine the general perception of the civil servants about the current level of job performance in the service and what could be done to raise such to an optimal level.

1.4   Research Questions

Answers were provided to the following research questions for the purpose of this study:

RQ$_1$:   To what extent do job-related stressors, employees' personal and organisational factors predispose the level of job performance in the civil service of Oyo state?

RQ$_2$:   What is the general perception of the civil servants about the current level of job performance in the service and in their own opinion what could be done to raise such to an optimal level?

1.5   Significance of the Study

The study investigated the job related stressors employee personal and organisational factors in predicting job performance in of the civil servants in Oyo state a successful execution of this study will be a significant relevance to the policy maker's employers of labour, non-governmental organisation.

It also serves as additional literature for researchers and in human resources manager and industrial relations. The findings of the study will also serve as data based for policy makers and employers of labour in the application of job related stressors employees personal and organisation factors in determining job performance of workers.

These studies will also serves as a model in identifying the variable that employers of labour can use or consider as motivational factors for worker to performs. A successful education of this will be of relevance in giving employers of labour, in assessing the variations in job performance of workers in core Ministries Department and Agencies in the civil service, it will also serve as a baseline for policy makers, and, public administrators in the service to correct, adjust, and update the strategies as well as work environment within the civil service role.

1.6   Scope of the Study

This study is determining the extent to which work- related stressors;   employees' personal and organisational factors predispose job performance level in the civil service of Oyo state, Nigeria. The choice of the Oyo state civil service is borne out of the fact that this is the oldest civil service in the whole of the South West of Nigeria; which gave birth to the other civil services in the region. It has been well established, structured and tested for well over 50 years.

Besides, the study will cover all the three categories of employees or civil servants in all the Ministries, Departments and Agencies of Oyo State Government. These are;

Management cadre that is those employees from grade levels 12 and above, senior staff cadre, that is employees from grade levels 7-11, and junior staff cadre, that is employees from grade levels 1-6. The decision to include all the three cadre of civil servants is to ensure that the study covers a broad spectrum of opinions on performance within the system.

Further, the study will be restricted to cover performance level in the Oyo state civil service between 1999, when the country returned back to full democratic system to date. The selected, MDAs are as follow, Miniseries, Departments, and Agencies.

1.7 Operational Definition of Terms

The following terms used in this study are operationally defined to avoid ambiguity and misconception:

Job- related Stressors: Job- related factors are those factors that are specific to the job schedule of each civil servant which in one way or the other impedes on their job performance. These include: work overload, work pace, poor fit between abilities and skills, and drive for greater cost- effectiveness.

Employees' Personal Factors: These are the individual civil servants' related factors that affect their performance arising from their individual characteristics or as a result of individual life circumstances/situations. These factors include: work-life conflicts, coping skills, demographic characteristics and personality traits.

Organisational Factors: These are the hierarchical organisational specific factors that impedes on civil servants' job performance. These include: changes within the civil service system, organisational structure, reward systems, leadership style and organisational culture.

Civil Servants: These are workers in ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs) employed by the Oyo state government to help in the implementation of its policies designed to meet political aims and provide social services and programmes.

Job Performance: This refers to individual civil servants job related behaviours on their job schedules. This is measured within the service by the following measures: task-specific behaviours, non-task specific behaviours, communication task behaviours, level of commitment, personal discipline and level of interpersonal work- relationship exhibited by the individual civil servants.

Ministries: A governmental department presided over by a commissioner.

Departments: A major subdivision or branch of the administration of a government under the control for a non- ministerial head.

Agencies: This is permanent or semi-permanent organisational hierarchy in the machinery of government that is responsible for the oversight and administration of specific functions headed by a Chairman or Executive Secretary.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In this chapter, the various concepts that are relevant to this study will be reviewed. Similarly, the theoretical framework appropriate to this study will also be discussed.

- Civil Service: Concept and Principles
- The Principles of the Civil Service
- The Origin of Civil Service in Nigeria
- Public Service Reforms (1954 - 1999)
- Local Government: Concept, Structure and Functions
- Evolution of Local Government in Nigeria – In the Beginning (pre colonial era)
- The Emergence of Reformed Local Government
- Regional Perspectives
- Local Government Administration under the Military Rule: 1966-1975
- The 1976 Local Government Reforms
- Job-Related Stressors
- Causes of Organisational Stress
- Organisational Change
- Leadership and Work Stressors
- Changes in Roles and Tasks
- Consequences of Job Stress
- Managing Stress at Work
- Individual Coping Strategies
- Organisational Coping Strategies
- The Impact of Work Stress
- Personality Factors
- Cognitive distortion and negative thinking patterns.
- Psychological Hardiness
- Inadequate Personal or Environmental Resources
- Organisational Factors and Job Performance
- Employees' Promotion and Workers' Performance in the Civil Service
- Coping Skills and Worker's Performance
- Determinants of Job Satisfaction

- Financial Situations and Worker's Performance in the Civil Service

- Personal Problems and Workers' Performance in the Civil Service

- Coping Skills and Workers' Performance in the Civil Service

- Financial Situation and Workers Performance

- Personal Problem and Workers Performance

- Social Support

- General academic skill competent

- Family-Work Conflict

- Job Demand

- Time Pressure

- Performance Pressure

- Unclear Work-Roles

- Conflict at work

- The Emotional Demands of Work

- Organisation Structure

- Work Specialization

- Departmentalisations

- Chain of Command

- Span of Control

- Centralisation and Decentralisation

- Formalisation

- Organisational Climate

- Globalization of the Economy

- The impact of Technology

- Interaction between Workers and job

2.1.1. Civil Service: Concept and Principles

The civil service is a term used to cover these public servants who are direct employees of the federal and state governments, other than the police, the armed forces personnel, tile judicial personnel and the teachers NOUN (2006). It is usage excludes also employees of statutory corporations and boards (Nwosu, 1977). According to Adebayo (1986) the civil service comprises all servants of the state, other than those holding political appointments, who are employed in a civil capacity and whose remuneration is paid out of money voted by the legislature.

Adamolekum (1983) sees the civil service as the body of permanent officials appointed to assist the political executive in formulating and implementing governmental policies. He also sees the second usage of the term as referring to the ministries and departments within which specific aspects of government are carried out.

Though people often see the civil service and the public service as the same thing, they are technically, not the same. Public service as a term is broader in scope than civil service. Hence it includes not only those who work in the regular government ministries and departments but also statutory cooperations, boards and the armed forces. Hence Adamolekun (1983) defines it as the totality of services that are organized under government authority. It can therefore be said that civil service is narrower in scope and excludes some government employees who are public servants (Obikeze & Anthony, 2004).

The civil service is the administrative structure employed in civil capacity to fulfill government policies and programmes. This can be viewed in terms of structures. Ministries, Departments, etc. or the human occupants of public offices, permanent secretaries, ministers, and higher administrative staff. The Nigerian Interpretation Act of 1964 does not expressly define the term civil service. However, section 2 of the pensions Act of 1951 defines the 'civil service, as the service in a civil capacity under the government of the federation or in a college University or a pensionable employment under local authority.

The civil service is distinguishable from the military service and police service in that while the latter two are principally concerned with the safeguard of the country from external and internal dangers, the former is concerned with purely civil and non-technical affairs of the state.

Members of the civil service are employed in a civil capacity as distinguished from military, judicial or police capacity. Military officers, judicial officers, police officers and many other technical officers like doctors, engineers, and draughtsman are, strictly speaking, not civil servants. Civil servants are mainly of two categories: lower clerical staff and higher administrative staff. The higher administrative staff is directly responsible to the political head of department. The lower clerical staff helps the administrative staff and works under its direct supervision and control. The State reaches the citizens through the civil servants who are well trained, skilled and permanent body of professional class of officials, and who have taken government service as a career (Ekhator, 2003).

2.1.2   The Principles of the Civil Service

The civil service is guided by vile trip, impartiality. The principle of permanence is also seen as part of the maxims. We will now explain all of them.

- **Anonymity:-** the principle of anonymity states that civil servants should be seen and not by principle be heard. Though they advise political office holders on issues relating to government they neither take the blame nor the glory of such policies. They are not expected to be seen defending such policies. That job is better than left for political office holders and not the career officers. Civil servants as far as possible, are anonymous, and should not be seen as craving for publicity.

- **Neutrality:** The civil servant must be politically neutral. His job is to serve the government of the day with full dedication irrespective of what he feels about that particular government. He ought not allow personal prejudices to colour his dedication to his duty. He is not expected to be a card carrying member of a political party or get involved in partisan politics though he is expected to vote at election times. The essence of making the civil servant politically neutral is hinged on the fact that since he does not leave with a change in government, he is not expected to have a strong attachment to any particular government so as to enable him give his best to make government policies succeed irrespective of his personal feelings towards such policies or government.

- **Impartiality:-** Civil servants are paid from tax payers money which does not belong to anybody or group in particular. They are therefore expected to discharge their duties without fear or favour. Since the constitution emphasizes the equality of all citizens, they are supposed to be treated equally by the civil servants. In rendering service to the public: the civil servant is expected to treat everybody with a high degree of impartiality. Favoritism is against the principle of the civil service and should not be encouraged in any guise whatsoever.

- **Permanence:-** The civil service is often defined as a permanent body of officials that carry out government decisions: It is permanent and it's life is not tied to the life of any particular government. Governments come and go but the service remains, or to use the; Nigerian Jargon, soldier go, soldier come but barrack remains'. The civil service in this regard, is the barrack that remains (Obikeze & Anthony, 2004).

2.1.3 The Origin of Civil Service in Nigeria

The history of civil service in Nigeria can be traced to the history of colonialism and that of capitalism in Nigeria in 19th century. It can be referred to as the history of Modern Nigeria itself. Ever before the colonial rule, the multi- ethnic groups and societies that made up the Nigeria of today lived in clans and empires. In the north, there were Islamic Sokoto

caliphates (of Sokoto, Kanuri, Kano and Borgu); while in the East and West existed under different empires and communal settlements. The industrial revolution in Western Europe brought about the development of capitalism that came into been aftermath of imposed national limitations to the European economic expansion which later resorted to imperialism and quest for new colonies for trade, investment, and cheap source of raw material and mineral resources to feed its ever increasing industries, as a way of providing strength for its' economic and political domination at home and abroad. The colonial power of British through forceful conquest established direct rule in 1861 by integrating different ethnic communities and kingdoms under Lagos colony. Civil service was established in 1862 with the main purpose of providing means for the survival of capitalism and capitalist state structure in the colonial Nigeria. As a result, different hierarchical positions were established by the British government these included Governor the head of state administration, Chief Magistrate the head of judiciary, Colonial Secretary and Senior Military Officers, Offices of Private Secretary to the Governor, Auditor for Public Accounts, Chief Clerk, and Collector of Customs2. Later, the protectorate of Niger Coast and Lagos colony were merged to become the Southern protectorate in 1900. With this the whole of Southern Nigeria was brought under the one civil service which have its' headquarter in Lagos. However, in the Northern protectorates, the British colonial power established an indirect rule system where the traditional rulers were used as the link between the people and the colonial civil service.

In this arrangement, the emirs who were made to retain their positions and caliphates title only became the executors of British policies in their respective domain, because they were responsible directly to the British district officers, who had final authority. The balance of power rest squarely with the colonial official (Governor-General) who has the power to fire any erring Emir at will. Overall, the objective of the colonial civil service was for tax collection and maintenance of law and order in Nigeria (Ogundiya, 2007). With indirect rule, caliphate officials were transformed into salaried district heads and became, in effect, agents of the British authorities, responsible for peacekeeping and tax collection in their respective domain without any formal power to initiate development projects to improve socio-economic development (Ozigi and Ocho 1981; Tibenderana 1988).

In order to ensure effective capitalist system, the Colonial rulers had constructed railroad lines to be able to transport tin from Jos Plateau, peanuts (ground nuts) and cotton which were being grown in the north to ports on the Lagos coast. The major setback faced by capitalists in their expansion of northern protectorates was the lack of access to the sea, and that Northern Protectorate had a budget deficit. Fredrick Lugard who was the Colonial

official wanted to make use the budget surpluses in the Southern protectorates to offset this deficit (Barkan & Gboyega, 2001) and hoped that amalgamation or merger of the two protectorates into a single entity would help to solve this problem, and make colonial administration more effective and easier. Then, the construction of railway from the North to the South began. The colonial power quickly realised the need to develop the indigenous manpower due to the shortage of skilled personnel that will manage the emerging bureaucracies, in order to aid the effective functioning of the colonial rule. For this reason, western education was introduced, schools were built for the natives especially in Southern Nigeria to train them to become clerks, teachers, railway workers, local administrators, doctors, etc. who are the embryo of the coming Nigeria intelligentsia and proletariat (working class).

Colonial rule under Lord Lugard was reluctant to allow missionaries the opening of schools in Northern Nigeria, so as not to offend the Emirs who were the backbone for the country's colonial administrator. Athough, few schools were permitted, but this colonial power in order to prevent opposition to their misrule and domination legitimatised complete feudalisation of Northern Nigeria where the local ruling class and the emirs entrenched Islamic education.

The British Government by 1906, had extended its rule and authority over almost all Nigeria, and its instruments of Law and Order such as Departments of Judiciary, Police, Prisons, Public Works Department and the Departments of Customs, Ports and Telegraph3 were established. The amalgamation of Southern and Northern Protectorates into a single entity named Nigeria in 1914 assisted to put in place a strong central administration, which have regional structure of civil service in the country. The exact structure of the civil service as we have it was put in place by Sir Hugh Clifford the successor of Lord Lugard who was appointed Governor of Nigeria. The Central Secretariat was established in Lagos in 1921. By the year 1939, similar Secretariats were established for the three regons or Provinces administered from Enugu Ibadan, and Kaduna. The emergence of the Nationalist Nigerian Administrator in 1940s and 1950s marked the era of a truly Nigerian Civil Service. The period also witnessed the beginning of pressures for Reforms in the Nigerian Civil Service and Political Structure. It is clearly shown that, the Civil Service in Nigerian has its origins in the British established organisations in colonial times. During this period, most senior civil servants were Europeans on whom powers of executive, judicial and legislative concentrated. Review of Nigeria constitution increased the stake of Nigerians who were holding high positions in the Nigerian civil service, until Independence in 1960. Nigerian Civil service was

unified in 1945, based on the recommendations of the Walayn Committee. This unification brought both the North and south regional civil services together which led to remarkable changes in which the Nigerians were admitted into higher grades of the civil service and the establishment of the Central Public Service Board. By 1954, After the Second World War, the independence movement that came have great influence on the colonial power because they were eager to bequeath the legacy of colonial bureaucracies and this led to the established of Federal Public Service Commission which was given autonomous power to appoint, promote, dismiss, and discipline junior civil servants under Macpherson Constitution. At Independence on 1 October 1960, the Federal Public Service Commission was renamed Federal Civil Service Commission and its' power was extended to cover all civil service grades'.

After the Independence, the Nigerian civil service was indigenised and shortage of local skilled manpower was experienced making it difficult to fill the vacancies created by the exit of foreign personnel. Although the country's political power was tactically handed over to the Northern political elites by the British colonists at independence, the Civil service were grossly dominated by the officers who are of Southern origin. This was attributed to the preference of Islamic education to that of western education by the leaders in the Northern part of Nigeria. As Danjibo (2009) noted the colonial authorities conspired with the Northern elite at the inception of colonial administration through the indirect rule to shield the Muslim north from being exposed to Western education and culture, and the consequential impact was that the north lacked the human capacity to run its administration at the eve of Independence. The post colonial Nigerian governments inherited administrative structures which were geared overwhelmingly to the requirements of the former British colonial powers whose concerns were more with the extraction of natural resources than with economic and human development (Corkery, 1995). This made Nigerian government to establish a whole machinery of government that would promote participation, accountability, efficiency and effectiveness and transparency and to change the role of civil service from that of tax collection inherited from the colonial masters to the role of infrastructural development, social service delivery, and nation building that is capable of assisting the newly formed government to plan and accelerate the pace of the Nigeria's socio-economic development (Okotoni, 2004: 224). The post colonial Nigeria ruling elite adopted the colonial bureaucratic legacy and expanded on package of imitative postcolonial reform that was based on inherited colonial legacy of elitism, paternalism, despotism, distrust, centralisation, secrecy, formalism, aloofness, hierarchical rigidity and urban bias (Haque, 1997).

The Military intervention led to the collapse of the first republic in 1966 and this brought about unexpected changes in the role of civil service and the management of public institutions. Okotoni (2003) observed that the 'top civil servants openly assumed political responsibilities. They formulated and implemented policies for the military government, while the military were busy with the prosecution of the civil war. During the era, the emergence of higher civil servants, dubbed 'Supper Permanent Secretaries' were also witnessed. These 'Supper Permanent Secretaries' became highly respectable 'political technocrats', more especially between 1970 and 1975. The era could best be described as the era of highly bureaucratic power. Unfortunately, on July 29, 1975 the fall of General Yakubu Gowon military government put an end to the 'golden age' of the Nigerian civil service in the act of governance'.

Despite the history and politicisation of the Nigerian civil service from the post independent era to contemporary time, civil service still serve as the important bridge between the government and the people and help to coordinate state policies and programmes in social and economic management in terms of formulation and implementation of government's policies, gathering and supplying of data for policy makers, ensuring continuity of services and public relations services.

2.4 Public Service Reforms (1954 - 1999)

The Commission on Public Service of the Governments in the Federation of Nigeria a.k.a Gorsuch Commission 1954-55

G.O. Olusanya 1861—1960

The Federal Government Report - 1964

In September 1954, the Gorsuch commission was setup among other things to:

(i) enquire into the structure, and remuneration of the Public Service, with special reference to problems arising from constitutional changes proposed at the Conference on the Nigerian Constitution, provided that the enquiry in respect of the Eastern region shall not extend to any general up-grading or to a general salary revision of posts in the public service with initial salaries of more than £475 per annum;

(ii) examine the problems from the individual aspect of future Federal and Regional Governments in the light of all the factors involved both of similarity and divergence;

(iii) make recommendations in a form suitable for submission to the future governments of the Federation and of the regions

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The consequences of the Gorsuch Commission's recommendations could be identified in two basic directions. One is emphasis on the rule and modus operandi of the Public Service Commission. In this direction, the Commission recommended that serving officials should cease as soon as possible to serve on the Public Service Commission ostensibly to ensure the neutrality of the commission and ensure that it commands the confidence of the public. The commission's argument was that the public might not feel entirely confident that the officers could remain unbiased and beyond the reach of influence and interference and in addition, officials were already too busy to carry on additional loads.

The basis of the foregoing argument and its attendant recommendation was the belief inherent in the British system of administration that the public service should be free from political influence or interference. In exchange for this freedom, the individual public servant is bound to serve the government of the day with unvarying loyalty, whatever its political complexion or constitution may be. Thus, the Public Service Commission was in effect to be a body whose sole purpose was to ensure that appointments to the service, promotions and disciplinary control in respect of inefficiency or misconduct , were dealt with on a continuing standard of detached impartiality and fairness, uninfluenced by political changes or pressures. If this could be assured, the government would be served by a Civil Service which was contended, efficient and loyal, provided of course, that pay other conditions were adequate.

In the area of structure, the Gorsuch Commission observed that the rigid division of the service into "Senior" and "junior" Services was defective in view of the absence of an adequate middle part and to bridge the gap between the junior and the senior services.

The five main grades in the Administrative and professional classes were as follows:

	Administrative	**Professional/Technical**
(i)	Sub-clerical	Minor Technical
(ii)	Clerical	Technical
(iii)	Executive	Higher Technical
(iv)	Administrative	Professional
(v)	Superscale	Superscale

This remained the basic structure of the Civil Service until the Public service Review Commission of 1972-74 introduced a unified salary grading structure in 1975. It should however be noted that the above structural arrangement were organised along two parallel hierarchies of Professional and Administrative Classes in the Departments and the Secretariat which were merged under the 1995 ministerial system. Organogram of of this arrangement is shown in Figure 3.1 below.
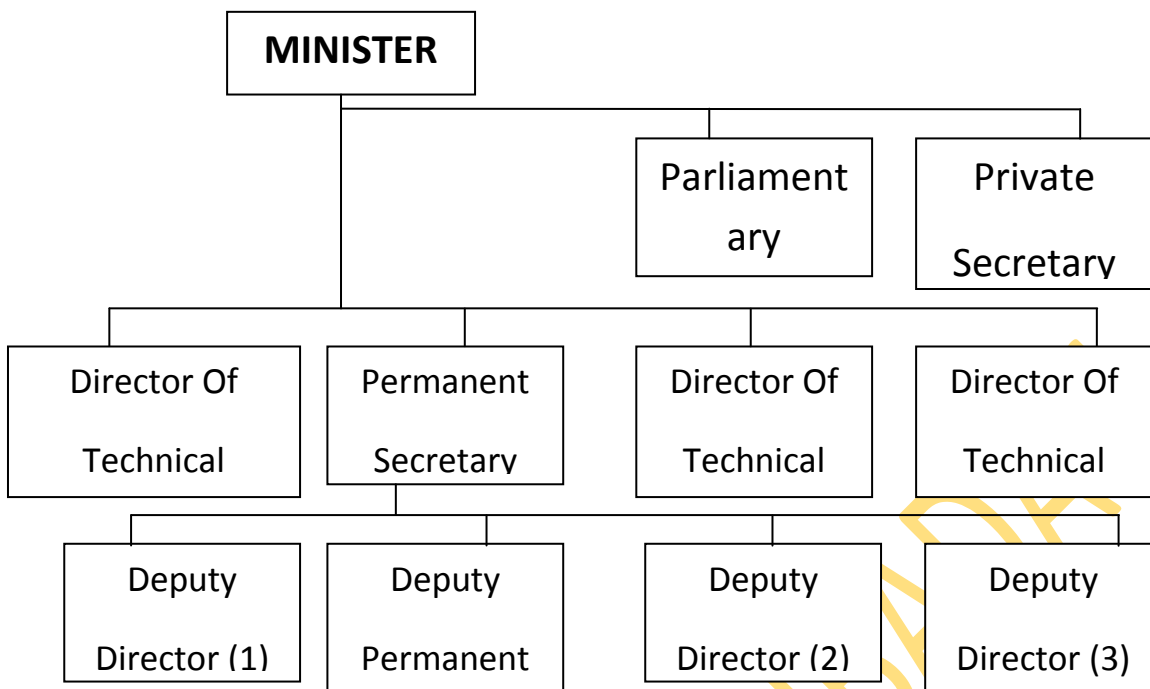
Fig 2.1: A Typical Ministerial organisation –a consequence of Gorsuch Reports 1954

What constituted the service was mainly Departments that were manned and headed by Professionals/Technicians. The generalist administrative officers were very few and concentrated mainly in the Chief Secretary's Office. However, the bold step taken by Gorsuch to dislodge the two service structure still left the service with a parallel arrangement. An attempt to integrate these two parallel arrangements led to the setting up of the Newns Commission of 1959

The News Commission, 1959

In January 1959, a Commission headed by Mr. A. F. F. P Newns, the then Secretary to the Governor-General and Council of Ministers was set up essentially to work out modalities for the integration of Ministries and Departments; to define the role and functions of the permanent Secretaries ; and evolve an administrative machinery for the operations of the Ministries. In its recommendations, the Commission merged the permanent Secretary and edge over his professional counterparts. Among the functions of the Permanent Secretary would henceforth be responsible for acquisition and adequate utilisation of men and Material Resources in his ministry. This did not go down well with the Professionals who right from inception of the service had been Accounting officer of their Departments.

By news integration, the permanent Secretary was given the power of general supervision of the ministry though the Heads of Departments were allowed access to the Minister. This was gradually phased out and the position had changed considerably in the

civil service that operated between 1960 and 1988, the post of Chief Executive and Accounting Officer were vested in the Permanent Secretary. By this nomenclature, Administrative Officers who were normally recruited as Assistant Secretaries were inadvertently nominated "heir apparent" to the throne of the Chief Executive.PP

Administrators charged with policy matters and general supervision of the ministry's functions gradually manipulated themselves into an enviable position in the ministry at the purpose of professionals. The privileged position attained 'classes or 'cult' dimension which was jealously guarded by the least Assistant Secretary. The implication was to extent that even junior Assistant Secretaries became virtually immuned from disciplinary actions by their heads of line department. The ''psychological argument to this under-privileged position of Proffessionals was demotivation of the professionals charged with the execution of technical or development policies''. Another commission was equally set up in 1959 tittled Salaries and Wages Commission headed by Justice J,N.Mbenfo. the commission had as its major concern, the review salaries and wages in the public service.

Since Independence, a number of commissions have been set up to review Salaries and Wages and other terms and conditions of service in the public service. The first of these Commissions was the commission on the Review of Wages and Salaries and Conditions of service of the junior Employees in both the public and private sectors. The Commission which was set up in 1963, was headed by Justice A,Morgan. Its emergence was as a result of the continued agitation by junior officers for the introduction of a National Minimum Wage, the abolition of the daily wage system and for a general improvement in conditions of service. The Commission was however primarily concerned with the review of Salaries and Wages as could be seen from its term of reference inter-alia:

(a)   To investigate the existing Wage structure, remunerations and conditions of service in wage earning employment in the country and make recommendations covering suitable new structure, as well as adequate machinery for a wage on continuing basis:

(b)   To examine the need for:

   (i)   A general upward revision of salaries and wages of junior employees in both government and private establishment

   (ii)   the abolition of the wage system :and

   (iii) the introduction of a national minimum wage and to make recommendations Based on the foregoing, the commission made some recommendations among which were:

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(a) Daily Wage System: that employers (public and Private) should thereafter distinguish persons employed on a seasonal basis from those engaged for an indefinite period. It also recommend that an employee should be transferred to the established permanent post if he or she has served an aggregate of three ouit of five years

(b) Conditions of Service in Wage –earning employment: that compensation for Sundays and public holidays should be paid to new and departing employees whether they are on daily wage, hourly or piece-rate during their establishment. Furthermore, all employers were given the statutory obligation to publish conditions of employment and benefits which should be made available to each worker on appointment.

(c) National Minimum Wage: It proposed what it termed the 'living wage' through which the minimum wage scheme was to be achieved. According to the commission, 'living wage' was one ''high enough to enable a wage earner who does a full day's work to support himself and his family out of his wages''. It was to take into consideration rent, transportation, costs and prices of consumer goods.

The commission also recommended graduates increase in other salary scale as shown in table 2.1 below

Table 2.1: Graduate increases in salary scale as recommended by Morgan commission:

Annual salary #	Graduated income #	Equivalent For Private Sector Employees
Up to 636(£318)	72.00(£36)	Same as those recommended for publics
More than 636 Up to 864 (£432)	48.00 (£24)	Employees except were negotiated agreement
More than 646 Up to 1.176 (£586)	24.00(£12)	Expect were no increase equivalent to the public sector were recommended

Source: **Report of the commission of the review of wage, salary and the condition of service of a junior employee of the government of the federation and in private establishment**

When Government Issue its first paper, the increase recommends were scaled down. This with the delay over the release, infuriated the worker and the consequently, the various

trade unions which has hitherto been divided on ideological lines, temporarily shelved their differences' and form the joint action committee. This committee succeeded in calling workers out in 1976 on a national wide strike which cripple major services. It should however be noted that the Morgan commission introduced for the first time, minimum wages in the country but in geographical basis

Grading Team for grading of post in Public Services (a.k.a Elwood Grading Team)

Arising from the Morgan commissions report, the government appointed a grading team for grading of post in the public services in 1966 and was headed by Mr.I.Elwood thus popularly referred to as the Elwood Grading Team of 1966. The assignment of Elwood grading team was to enquire into any anomalies in the grading and other condition relating to all grading post in the public services of the federation with a view to determining appropriate grading and achieving uniformly in the salary of officers performing identical duties ..the elwood report observed that requirement regarding the educational qualification for direct entry at various level in public services had been more or less standardise d and the underlying reason for this requirement was the reasonable assumptions that a certain standard of basic education is necessary at each level to equip the officers for the job Schemes of crevice now exist of course, which specify the duties of each post method of enrtry including qualification requirement and advancement within and beyond cadres. The combination of the Morgan and Elwood gave the civil service some motivation through improved compensation for service rendered and create an impetus for civil servant to strive for advancement to higher graded positions.

Salary and wages commission (a.k.a Adebo commission) 1970-71

Following the rise in cost of living, the need for remuneration in post with in comparable responsibilities in the private sectors, the requirement for the rapid development of the national economy (that was ravage during the Nigeria civil war of 1967-70) and the adequate development and the development of the efficient manpower and other factors, the Adebo commission was set up in July 1970 to among others;

(i)   Review the existing wage and salaries at al l level in the public service and in statutory corporation and state owned companies

(ii)   Examine the area in which rationalisation and harmonization of wages ,salary and other remuneration and condition of employment were described and feasible as public and private sector of the national economy ;and

(iii) Considered the need to establish a system for ensuring that remuneration in the public services, the statutory corporation and state owned companies was periodically reviewed and kept in proper national balance.

As a consequence of the above assignments the adebo commission set in motion action which led eventually to the abolition of the daily paid system. One of the most significant result of the commission's work derived from the observation in its report that although it had not been asked to review the organisation or the structure of the public services but only "the existing wage or salary "it was of the opinion that a review of the structure of the civil service commission, the head of services, the permanent secretary ,vis-a-vis the professional office in his department and the role of ministries in relation to public corporations or state owned reporting to it. The adebo commission did make some observation on some of this issue but still recommended the setting up of the public service review commission to examine the organisation, management condition of service and the training arrangement of the civil services and to recommend what change might be made therein, develop a unified grading structure for the civil service, undertake the grading of all post in the civil services on the basis of the new grading structure, etc. And make suitable recommendation in its general comment on its first report; the commission refers to certain pre-condition that had to be fulfilled if the recommendation in its report were to have the desired impact; since he believes that the conditions were the irreducible minimum, if government were to retain credibility and effectiveness

Those condition which appear to be of relevant up till today were

(i)   Recognition of the primary above all else of national survival and unity;

(ii)   Consistencies of government decision and demonstrable willingness to implement them

(iii)   Discipline at all level of government; and

(iv)   The need for integrities and higher productivities at all level of public service

It was clear by the recommendation of the Adebo commission that a public service review commission should be appointed to review the structure of the service, develop a new grading structure, arose from its view that adjustment of wages and salary on a meaningful basis were impossible without a review of the wage structure and the review of the

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government itself. It however made sixty two (62) recommendations, some of which had far-reaching effect on the management of the personnel in the service .This include;

(i)   Three level of enforceable minimum wage should be established by zones;

(ii)   Government should make it declared policy to abolish the differential treatment meted to unskilled and semi-skill labour so that this class of worker can be paid the same scales throughout the country without any geographical differentiation,

(iii)   More attention should be paid o the quality of individual and is on the job performances and less to seniority or paper qualification,

(iv)   Arrangement should be made to give professional officer the opportunity of exposures to the kind of experience or training that fit a person for the highest general managerial position,

(v)   For the purpose of pay and other conditions of services ,a distinction should be made between public corporation which are regulatory or welfare services agencies and those which are commercial or industrial,

(vi)   State-owned industries and companies should have complete freedom to operate outside civil service regulation and procedure and should be assessed or judge solely on the basis of their performances as business enterprises,

   Consequences   upon the adebo commission views that a public service review commission be set up to review the structure of the service which will make grading and salary award more meaningful, government eventually set up the review commission .

The Public Service Review Commission (a.k.a. Udoji Commission) 1972 – 74

   The public service review commission (alias udoji commission) which was set up in 1972 obviously derived from the recommendations of adebos commission. unlike other previous which tend to deal primarily with a review of wages and salaries , the udoji commission was required having regard to the need of secure adequate development and optimum utilisation of man power and increase the efficiency and the effectiveness the public services in meeting the challenge of a development oriented society inter alia ;

(i)   To examine the organisation ,structure and management of the public service

(ii)   To investigate and evaluate the method of requirement and condition   of employment and the staff development programme of the public service and recommended such change as may be necessary

(iii)   To undertake with the aid of appropriate grading team , the regarding of all post in the public services , established scale of salaries corresponding to such grade,

and as a result of job evaluation of post recommended salary scale to be applicable to each post in the services; and

(iv) To enquire into and make recommendation on any other matter which in the opinion of the commission appear to be relevant to the foregoing and therefore ought, in the public interest, to be inquire into.

The Udoji commission observed that all Nigeria must pay their part in the effort to attain the goals of the society and that the adequate and efficient of the public service are virtually important for the entire nation .the commission covered the issue which the Adebo commission felt required to be examined. The report was critical of many aspect of the operation of the public service and set out to suggest improvements in the structure, the system and the ways and means by which political affairs are conducted in the country. The new ideas introduced by the public services are; report was critical

(i) A code of Ethics, which has substantially been incorporate in the oath for public officers;

(ii) A new style public services , capable of meeting the challenge of development and using concept familiar to the private sect such as result –oriented management , which make things happen by organisation men, money and material in other to achieve the particular objective of the organisation within time targets .project management whereby various skills requirement can be brought together from ministry and department in the execution of capital project ,management by objective which is a processes of identifying goals and objective , defining management responsibility in term of expected result and measuring performance and achievement, against those goals and objective .management by objective was expected foster such aspect of management as goal setting time target. Performance , evaluation manpower utilisation and management development and training programme and performance budgeting (PPB) whose objective is to base the budget on the result derived , rather than the expenditure incurred . the adoption of these concept was supposed to enhance or co-ordinate pursuit of the overall goal of the organisation ,rational-decision-making and increasing productivity and economy and efficiency in the performance of the public services .

(iii) The stricter and the organisation of the public service was altered to provides for a unified grading structure which will embraced post in the public service from the lowest to the highest and provides equal opportunity for every officer to advance

to the highest post in the service irrespective of his or her discipline . the dual hierarchies in ministry was abolished by the introduction of a unified integrated structure by which authority responsibilities for overall management was vested in the chief executive of the organisation, i.e. the permanent secretary .the head of service was to be formally responsible for the coordination of all activities of the ministry and department of the government and for ensuring the efficiency the function of machinery of government.

(iv) Other matter cover were the role of the head of civil service , the role of the public service commission ,recruitment ;promotion, and performance evaluation , discipline and staff training salaries and benefits , manpower planning and training , e.t.c

Apart from the pay and compensation aspects, some of the recommendations of the commission which were accepted by the government and which constitute significant reform in the civil service, include the following;

(i) The open reporting system for annual performances evaluation ;

(ii) A result oriented public service through the application of management techniques already in use in the private sectors, e.g.' management by objective program and performance budgeting and project management

(iii) Unified salary and grading system which embraced all post in the civil service from the lower to the highest and provides equal opportunity for every officer to advance to the highest post in the services irrespective of his or her discipline. Grade differences were to based on significant differences in level of responsibility

(iv) Merit as the major yardstick for determines the promotability of the officers.

(v) The creation of a unified senior management group comprising both administrative offices and professional who should be given equal opportunity to advancement to the highest post in the civil service.

With the acceptances by government of the report of the public service review commission that all officer within the senior management cadres should be centrally managed the responsibility for processing recommendation for the appointment promotions ,acting appointment, disinclining all administrative and professional officers on grade level 14 and above , came within the purview of the public service department of the cabinet office ,while the executive cadres management division oversee the recruitment promotions training ,discipline of all officer in the pooled services via executive secretaries , library, store cadres .

Administrative and professional officer are eligible for appointment as permanent secretaries or for advancement of salary grade level 17 on personal merit. This development has to a large extent minimise the long standing conflict between the administrative and professional officer in the civil services arising primary from the fact that member of the administrative class exercise financial control over the work of their counterpart in the professional cadres. Merit still held down their former GL 16 position thus preventing their subordinate from been promoted to such vacancy position. These representations were projected of cause because the position held by personal merits officers in not vacant. He was only given the higher salary grade level in recommendation of his personal merit. Obvious cases of stagnation and expansion of the work load led the defunct shagari administration to consider the recognition of the appropriate ministries to combine functionality separate directorate under the coordination of a coordinating director on GL after the merger of related ministries by successful military administration .this process was effectively halted base on the argument that such mergers will result in a reduction of the staff size.

While implementation of the Udoji commission recommendations lasted the vexed issue of the administrative and executive cadres reared its head .in this connection, it was canvassed once again that the duties perform by the administrative and executive officer at all level were some similar the two cadres should be merged . The issue of the integration of the administrative and the executive cadres in the public service however was addressed by circular no.3 of the 1976 when the federal military government approved the re- grading of post in executive officer cadres and indicate how suitable executive officer could be transfer to the administrative officer cadres annually at the appropriate grade level through a competitive selection process. Complains arising thereafter pontificated the reluctant of the higher bureau to implement that policy decision this reluctant seems to have been justified when the dotun Philips study team that was set up much later insisted that such a transfer can only be effected acquisition of a university degrees this was also provision for inter cadres transfer between the secretary and executive officer cadre on a successful completion of a certificate in public administration course at the Administrative Staff College of Nigeria, Badagri and from the senior typist or chafe typist grade to the executive officer cadre on the successful completion of a special course at the federal training centre this is the position in circular no.2, of 1976 for entry into unified grade structure at GL 08 by holder of the H.N.D in engineering and allied subject the definition at which as be broadened considerable to accommodate holder of H.N.D/.H.N.C in business study and accounting

subjects who are performing accounting duties claims that the concessionary list should be enlarged were carefully concede

Committee on the Re-appraisal of the Civil service (a.k.a. Falae Committee)

Concerned about the poor attitude of civil servants to work inspite of the windfall from the Udoji Commission, the Secretary to the Federal Military Government set up in September, 1976, a committee on re-appraisal of the civil service under the Chairmanship of one of his top Permanent Secretaries –S. O. Falae. The specific terms of reference of the committee were:

(a)   To understand a critical examination of the attitudes, approach to work and performance of public servant, and determine the extent of improvement, if any, since July 29,1975;

(b)   To determine the causes of any observed fall in the standard of performance of public servants and make suitable recommendations in this regard;

(c)   To make any recommendation design to enhance the image and sustain the morale of the public service and make it even more effective as the instrument for policy formulation and execution of the decisions and programmes of government; and

(d)   To make any other suggestions for the improvement of the public service generally.

The Committee's recommendations were all embracing. However, we shall focus on a major aspect of personal management in the services, and that is Training and Development. The Committee's concern for training and development is contained in paragraph 123-133, pages 34-36 and corresponding recommendations were:

(i)   The need to focus training on all staff irrespective of status and roles;

(ii)   The need to decentralize training so as to let each Ministry or Department plan and implement its own training

(iii)   The need to establishment of a "Training and Career Board",a sort of committee in each Ministry or Department

(iv)   The need to each Ministry to be given adequate funds for training; and

(v)   The need for the establishment of a national body co-ordinate training and development.

Follow the Military Coup that toppled the Civilian Administration headed by Alhaji Sheu Shagari in December, 1983, the scenario seemed to have changed. First, there was a radical change in economical policy which later led to the Government's romance with the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and other International Financial Lending /Borrowing Clubs. Second, the military held Civil Service, which is seen and known as the instrument

which the Executive Arm of Government utilizes in enunciating and implementing its policies, programmes and projects, partly responsible for the purported mall-administration of the civilian government which the military claimed instigated its making yet another incursion into governance. To rid the services of:"Badd Eggs" as claimed by the Military administration, it embarked on yet another obnoxious policy of purging the services. This was quickly followed by the setting up of a Study Team under the headship of Professor 'Dotun Philips with a view to ensuring an efficient, effective, productive and responsive civil service.

Study Team on the Structure, Staffing and Operations of the Nigerian Federal Civil Services (a.k.a. 'Dotun Philips Study Team)

In March, 1985, the Federal Military Government appointed the above Study Team with the following Terms of Refrence:

(a)   To examine the adequacy of Federal Civil servants in its structure, composition and method of operation to cope with the demand of Government in the mid-80s and beyond;

(b)   To examine the structure of the Civil Service and make Recommendations with a view to streamlining the system where necessary

(c)   To determine the extent of overstaffing at various levels, if any, especially at the lower rungs (GL. 01 – 06) and make recommendation designed to prevent a re-occurrence of the phenomenon and ensure the staff numbers and personnel costs are kept to a minimum consistent with efficiency;

(d)   Examine the practices in the management and operations of the Civil Service which gives rise to avoidable overhead charges

(e)   Recommend way in which the efficiency of the Civil Service and its morale can be enhanced

(f)   Examine the extent to which earlier recommendation on improving the Civil Service where were implemented and determine the causes of failure to implement any such recommendations; and

(g)   Make such other recommendations as are considered necessary to achieve the objectives of streamlining the services, reducing cost eliminating delays and increasing efficiency.

One outstanding feature of the Study Team is that perhaps it is about the first of such a study panel or commission whose assignment neither boardered on or has a rub-off on wages and salaries and other fringe benefits of Public Servants.

Equally instructive is that government, in item (f) of the Term of Reference, specifically asked the 'Dotun Philips panel to find the extent to which earlier recommendation at improving the efficiency and effectiveness of the civil service was implemented and more importantly, to pin-point/address the issues as to why some of this suggestion/recommendations, ostensibly including those of Udoji, did not see the light of the day. The report of the panel contained as many as 149 recommendations and government in its wisdom, accepted some the recommendations. The fundamental of these reform is broadcast to the nation by the then President himself in his budget address to the nation in 1988. This includes:

(a)   The designation to the minister as the chief executive and accounting officer

(b)   Full politicization of the past Permanent Secretary

(c)   The professionalistion of the Civil Service which automatically compels every officers to make his career entirely in the Ministry or Department of his choice and by so doing acquire necessary expertise to function as a professional or expert in that specialist area of government

(d)   The decentralization of the power of appointment, promotion and discipline of staff to Ministry "under general and uniform guidelines " to be provided by the Federal Civil Service Commision"

To implement this far reaching reform a high powered implementation task force head by Vice Admiral Patrick koshoni was setup.

The Implementation Task Force on the Civil Service Reforms

The above task force via president convening order dated 1st February, 1988 under the chairmanship of vice Admiral Patrick koshoni, the then chief of Naval Staff. The Term of reference were as follows:

(a)   To identify from the "Nigerian Federal Civil Service in the Mid-80s Beyond", additional reforms that should be undertaken in order to implement the policy

(b)   To determine additional specific actions that should be undertaken by any Ministry/Agency/Government official as a result of the new policy and to direct and ensure the implementation of such specific action/actions.

(c)   To take any further necessary action as the Task Force deem necessary to implement the required reform;

(d)   To report monthly to the president on progress being made in implementing the reform;

(e)   To monitor the implementation of the reform for three months and recommend additional guidelines as necessary; and

(f)   To submit the report of the Task Force to the President, Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces as soon as possible.

All these culminated in the promulgation of Decree 43 of 1988 on the Civil Service Re-organisation. The detailed discussion on this decree and its attendant merit and demerits constitutes the central theme of the next chapter; suffice it to state that another panel was set up to review the provisions of Decree 43.

Review Panel on the Civil Service Reforms (a.k.a. Ayida Pannel)

This was set up under the Chairmanship of Mr. Allison A ostensibly to correct whatever anomalies or loopholes identified while implementing Decree 43 of 1988 on the Civil Service Re-organisation. The Panel which was formally inaugurated on 10th November, 1994 by the Head of State, General Sanni Abacha had the following Terms of Reference:

(i)   To examine and properly define the role of the Civil Service in the executive arm of Government and evaluate how well this role has been performed in the past years and factors that have facilitated or inhibited effective performance:

(ii)   To re-examine the various provision of Civil Service (Re-organisation) Decree No. 43 of 1988 and make recommendations designed to ensure improved performance, efficiency and commitment in the service;

(iii)   To identify the various factors that have led to low morale in the Civil Service and make recommendation to raise the morale of the staff and give them a sense of security;

(iv)   To examine the problem of co-ordination and accountability in the Ministries and extra-ministerial Departments and recommend how co-ordination and accountability can be enhanced in the services;

(v)   To examine the abolition of the post of Head of Civil Service and the pooling system brought about the reform since 1988, and to recommend whether it is necessary to restore them, in the case of the pooling system, to determine at what level of management it should be effected;

(vi)   To examine the provisions of Decree No 43 of 1988 and consider their relevance to the State and Local Government Civil Service;

(vii) To make any other recommendations which in the opinion of the panel, are relevant to its assignment

In its Interim Report which was submitted on 19th December 1995, the panel recommendations which in the opinion of the panel, are relevant to its assignment.

(i)   The Minister should be Political Head of the Ministry and not the Accounting Officer;

(ii)   The title of Permanent Secretary as the head of civil servants in the Ministry should be restored,

(iii)   The permanent Secretary should be Accounting Officer of the Ministry. In this connection, there should be a clearly defined schedule of duties for all principal officers in the ministry;

(iv)   The permanent secretary should be appointed by the President/Head of State

(v)   The Permanent Secretary should not be Deputy Minister;

(vi)   The bloated Civil Service should be contained and rationalized

(vii)   Each Ministry should organised according to its objectives, size and functions;

(viii) There should be only one permanent Secretary in a Ministry;

(ix)   The post of Head of the Civil Service should be re-established as an office under the President and should be provided for in the Constitution;

(x)   The Head of Civil Service should be appointed by the President From among Permanent Secretaries or Officers of equivalent rank;

(xi)   The office of the Secretary to the Government of the Federation should consist of the Cabinet Secretariat, Political Affairs, General Service, Special Service and Economic Affairs;

(xii)   The Ecological fund should be one of the responsibilities in the Economic Affairs Office;

(xiii) Thy parastatals and agencies in the Presidency whose function are more related to those of existing Ministries should be transferred to such Ministries;

(xiv)   Professional pools should be created for officers on Grade Levels 08 to 17 whose professional cadres commonly exit in most Ministries and Extra-Ministries departments;

(xv)   The Personnel Management Boards of Ministries should continue to operate with modifications to be worked out in the Panel's final report;

(xvi)   The compulsory retirement age in the Civil Service should be 60 years irrespective of the length of service;

(xvii) The Civil Service (Re-organisation) Decree No. 43 of 1998 and the Amendment Decree No. 80 of 1993 should be abrogated;

(xviii) Henceforth, the Management of the Civil Service should be guided by the Constitution, Civil Service Rules, Financial Regulations and Circulars;

(xix) Correspondence to the Ministry should be addressed to the permanent secretary

A workshop which was convened at the instance of the secretary to the government of the Federation on the Civil Service Review Panel took place at Abuja on the 14th and 15th February 1995. The composition of the Workshop included:

The secretary to the Gove4rnment of the Federation; Members of the Civil Service Review Panel who attended as observers; a representative of the chairman, Federal Civil Service Commission; all Federal Director-General; secretaries to State Governments; and selected Resources Persons. The overall objectives of the workshop as articulated in its communiqué was a "cross fertilization of ideas on the current developments in the Civil Service with a view to making recommendation to the Civil Service Review Panel".

The Workshop made far-reaching recommendations which among others included the following:

(a) Staff training and development should be given emphasis and the importance it deserves. The policy of reserving 10% of Personnel emolument for training should be upheld and enforced;

(b) The three Common Services Departments introduced in each Ministry by Decree No. 43 of 1998 should be reduced to two, namely; Finance and Administration Department and Planning Department. In addition, the Ministry of Establishments and Management Services should study the operation of each Ministry and recommend the optimum number of departments for its operations;

(c) Pooling of officers in the service should be restricted to GL. 14 and above

(d) The age of retirement should be 60 years irrespective of the length of service;

(e) The post of Head of Services should be restored and the functions separated from those of the Secretary to the Government of the Federation;

(f) The Minister/Commissioner/Chairman of Local Government should be the political head of the Ministry/Local Government whilst the Director-General/Secretary to the Local Government should be the Administrative head and the Accounting Officer;

(g) The present title of Director-Manager should be changed to Permanent Secretary and be restricted to the Ministry. The present title of the "Secretary" in the Local Government should be retained;

The analysis of the situation regarding the assignment of the Review Panel on the Civil Service Reforms of 1988 is being adopted from perspective of the strategy for carrying

out the assignment. First, the Panel was inaugurated in November 1994. Second, in his Budget Speech of January 1995, the Head of State announced the abrogation of Decree No. 43 of 1988 on the Civil Service Reforms in respect to the Recommendations of the Review Panel as contained in the Interim Report. Third, a workshop was convened at the instance of the Secretary to the Government of the Federation in February 1995 on the subject of the Review Panel's assignment. Thereafter, the Review panel continued sittings in order to accomplish its assignment. Although it could be argued as rightly done by the goal of the workshop on the Review Panel, that the outlined events were suppose to enhance input to the Panel's assignment, it is equally seen as distractive and capable of influencing the outcome of the final report. For instance, the abrogation of the Decree No. 43 of 1988 on the Civil Service Reforms midway into the Review Panel's activities appears distractive in that it is envisaged that implementations of all facets of the Panel recommendations should come well after it had submitted its final Reports and Government's White Paper issued on the same. Many civil servants initially appeared confused as regards their modus operandi the abrogation of the Decree. This is because, the abrogation of the decree made it illegal for serious references to be made to it, talk less of implementing its provisions. Yet, the basic structures put in place by the Decrees as well as the operations in the Ministry as provided for the Decree documents were still firmly in place.

The point, however, still has to be made that whatever direction the argument is approached, the basic fact is that modifications on the provisions of Decree No. 43 of 1988 on the Civil Service Reforms were inevitable.

2.1.5: Local Government: Concept, Structure and Functions

Local Government has been described in various forms by authorities, Observers and commentators. While some describe it as grassroots' administration, some call it grassroots management, yet, others see it as the cornerstone that was sometime neglected but has eventually become the main and inevitable pillar of the Society. Some see it as the building block or the base of any development in a Nation state. One thing however is sure, local government all over the world aim at Satisfying the needs and aspirations of the local populace in a given state. The United Nations Office for Public Administration conceptualizes local government as "a Political sub-division of a nation or a state, which is constituted by law and has Substantial control of local affairs, including powers to impose taxes or to exert Labour for prescribed Purposes. The governing body of such an entity is elected or otherwise locally selected." Professor Eme Awa could not agree more. In his view, Local government is a political Authority set up a nation or state sub-coordinate to a central

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authority for the purpose of rendering delegated services. This equally agrees with the definition put forward by (orewa 1991) to the effect the it is the government of a relatively small geographical area by a corporate body which functions within the framework of the laws of a centre or state Government". I his contribution, Hedley Marshall (1978) identify three characteristics of local government authorities as:

- Operation in restricted geographical area within a nation or state;
- A locally elected or selected membership or a local council; and
- A measure of autonomy.

A more comprehensive definition is that provided by the Federal Government Of Nigeria. According to her, "Local Government is Government at the local level, exercised through representative councils established by law to exercise specific powers within definite areas. These powers should give the councils substantial control over local affair as well as the staff and institutional and financial powers to initiate and direct the provision of services, and to determine and implement projects so as to complement the activities of the State and Federal Governments in these areas, and to ensure through active participation of the people and their traditional institutions that local initiatives and responses to local needs and conditions are maximised. The common denominator among the various views can be characterised as follows:

(a)   It is a sub-division of the nation:

(b)   It can impose taxes and incure expenses;

(c)   It can exist within a defined territory.

(d)   It has its autonomous existence and legal identity: and

(e)   It comprises of elected members who run it.

Given the fact that each locality in a given nation state has its own peculiar economic, social and physical advantages and disadvantages; stages of historical development and norms, values, beliefs and traditions within the wider context of national culture as well as the tendency for the people to resist imposition from the central government but would rather prefer to be involved at any level in decisions concerning them, Local government is usually created to ensure the capacity of the local communities presumably know their locality very well and are likely to understand their needs. By far better than others from a distance, they can easily adapt administration to local needs. As an instrument of political education, it creates opportunities for political activities such as voting in local party organisations, making financial contributions, assisting in campaigns, standing as candidates for local

elections and supporting party organisations in cash and kind at the local level. Simply put, participatory politics is the in-thing at the local government level.

In Nigeria, Local Government Councils are hierarchically structured with the Chairman at the apex of the pyramid, assisted by his councillors who are responsible for policy formulation. The secretary and other principal officer (career civil servants) of the council are charged with the responsibility of executing such policies and programmes. Fig 9.1 Organisational Structure of a Local Government.

Given the foregoing structure, the Local Government is statutorily mandated to carry out the following functions:

(i)   Protective-they offer protection to individuals within their domain from various dangers arising from health hazards, through refuse disposal, food Inspection, sanitation etc.

(ii)   Social services- These are provided for the benefit of all. Among such Services include provision of roads, water, electricity, hospitals.

(iii)   Personal services- Local Administration give direct assistance to Individuals in the area of Education and other welfare services e.g. Aid to the disabled and less privileged people in the society.

(iv)   Economic services - Provision of markets, parks, public transportation Facilities, etc

The forgoing provided a veritable background for understanding the subject of this chapter, the central theme of which is the various form of reformation experience by the local government in Nigeria.

2.1.6: Evolution of Local Government in Nigeria – In the Beginning (pre colonial era)

Prior to the advent of British, government is what is now know in Nigeria were more local than central. The traditional authority in each part territory was the hub around which the indigenous the system of government was rotated. Even the emirate in the northern Nigeria, the Yoruba kingdom in the western Nigeria, and the Benin kingdom in the mid-western Nigeria with their centralized machinery of governance were more local than central, what compared with what central government connote these days. They were close to the people, and the principle officer of the state was local notables. They dealt with issue that were of local relevance and which affect the people in their hamlet, villages and towns intimately, in addition to their dependence completely on revenue generated locally.

The people and their dependencies had vary degrees of involvement in the running of their own affairs, and the question of remoteness or alienation did not rise. In most eastern

Nigeria, government was highly decentralized. The government was base on clan or family head. The units of government were very small and compose of family heads and title holders who constituted of decision making bodies. Whereas, the indigenous system of government in western Nigeria (that is Yoruba land) was a kind of constitutional monarchy, the system of eastern Nigeria was republican, unlike the system in northern Nigeria where the Emir wielded so much power.

In more specific terms we posit that the essence of Nigeria state is molded by the plurality of her people as well as the wealth and the character of her territory. The main ethnic group which claimed Nigeria as their motherland rest their claim more on their identity with particular local areas, than on their identity with the country as a whole. About this, Mae-C King (1988) states: "historically, the country was divided into many independent or autonomous entities. The ancient city states of Kano and Katsina, the Kanem-Bornu kingdom, the kingdom of Itsekiri, brass and Elem, Kalabari and the Benin and Oyo empires, were examples of these fragmented political past".

In terms of Administration, the Obas governed the empire of Benin. Here, one if one were to be a bini and lived in Benin City, he had to pledge his royalty to the traditional ruler of the area who was the Bini Oba. Iboland , there was no central government that exercise power over the various Ibo communities, rather, political power was concentrated in the village Government, which recognize no sovereign political authority outside itself . again, this much was confirmed by Mae-C. King (1988) when he stated that the Ama-ala council of elders and the assembly of the village citizens were the basic government institution.

The segmentry system in the ibo community was pre-dominant and typical of Owerri Ibos. The Nri-ibos near Awka and those from Onitsha had kings from royal lineages who ruled over centralized states. This is because two different Ibos communities differ in political culture through the interacted extensively with each other. In the Oyo empire located in the west, the Alafin was the supreme ruler. He was selected by the Oyomesi among the the member of the different Royal families. The Alafin acted through three key of officials: The Osi-efa; Ona-efa and; Otun-efa.

Who were charged with the political affairs, the judicial task, and the administrative duties respectively. The Alafin also appointed personal representatives reside in the province and "vassal" kingdoms of the empire "to ensure support and to collect tribute for the regime".

In the North, the Sokoto caliphate was the central authority. The Jihad of the early 19th century firmly brought Islamic Ideology to the independent states and united the Fulani, Hausa, Nupe and member of other ethnics groups. This made the traditional centres of power such as Katsina, Kano, Argungu, Gwandu, and others, bureaucratically and ideologically linked to Sokoto. Through this, the North had a relatively strong and centralized political system which effectively controlled it.

It was in 1861 that the British rule started in Nigeria with the colonization of Lagos. The British gradually colonized the rest of Nigeria through series of treaties concluded with local leaders – the Emirs, Obas and Chiefs. It was the resistance of these treaties on trade, and the economics consequences arising therefrom that made the British Government to deport King Jaja of Opobo and Chief Nnanna respectively from their homes. Between 1886 – 1900, British inaugurated a Company Government over a large portion of Nigeria. It was under the auspices of the company called Royal Niger Company that Northern Nigeria was conquered by force and in 1889, the British crown took over the entire administration of its territories. The local institutions were accorded such a great respect that the British Government used the institutions establish her central authority over the large territory of Nigeria.

Colonial Era

The British conquest, proclamation and occupation of the protectorate of Northern Nigeria in 1990, was followed by the institution of a frame work for grassroots governance, directed, in the main, towards the consolidation and preservation of the new imperial acquisition. The emergent native Authority (N.A) system which was extended to the protectorate of Southern Nigeria in 1916 remained the pivot around which local government was organized throughout Nigeria until and up to the early 1950s.

Under the Colonial Government therefore, the British defined the value of the Central Government and endeavored to localize them. The technique of the British Government then was alien to the local people. It adopted a system which aimed at perpetuating social distance between the rulers and the ruled. It introduced the system of Indirect Rule of Administration. This was used in an attempt to localize the Central Government's policies. The indirect rule system comprised two (2) basic components viz:

(i)   The British political services and

(ii)   The Native Administration.

During the colonial period, Nigeria was divided into a colony and protectorates (later regions) and the regions were subsequently divided into provinces which were in turn sub-divided into districts. They had their British officers known as District Officers (D.Os) in

each area they were equal in status. The native administration was supervised by the British officers. The native Administration consisted of Native authorities and Native Courts. A chief appointed as Native Authority by the Governor headed the native administration. In areas with a tradition of centralized political organisation for example, the emirates in the North, and the Oyo and Benin Empires in the South, native authorities headed by traditional rulers were usually established. The native courts established in areas of difficulties were headed by Warrant Chiefs e.g. Warri, Calabar, Owerri and Onitsha.

Generally, each Native Administrative area was organized into districts with district heads. The essence of the native administration was to link local areas to the centre through the Emirs, Obas and Chiefs.

2.1.7: The Emergence of Reformed Local Government

The immediate stimulus for the reforms of the Native Authority system came from three source viz: nascent nationalist movement which was routing for self-government for Nigeria; Britain's appreciation of the immense contributions of her dependencies, including Nigeria to her would world war II effort and successes; and most importantly, the change in British colonial policy made possible first by the commitment of the victorious allied powers to the right of dependent people to self-determination and sovereign independence, and secondly, by the emergence of the Labour Party (with its attendant avowed interest in decolonization) as the government of Britain following the first post-world war II elections in that country. The combination of these forces pushed the British in the direction of reforms aimed at guiding her colonies towards eventual independences. The Creech Jones Despatch of 1947 to British colonial administrations in Africa was the first articulation of the new dispensation for the development of the colonies. In it, the reform and development of a strong and efficient system of local government was seen as a necessary and essential foundation for the planned socio-economic and Political development of the dependencies. Accordingly, the Despatch observed and directed that:

> The encouragement of local political interest and the building up of a system of efficient and democratic local government is a cardinal feature of British policy in Africa. It is now recognized that the political progress of the territories is dependent on the development of responsibility in local government, that without sound local government, a democratic political system at the centre is not possible, and that if its social services are to be built up and expanded, there must be efficient organs of local government directly representative of the people to control and operate them.

To fully appreciate the difference which accompanied the implementation of this directive in Nigeria, it is necessary to recall that the two sub-units (East and west) created out of southern Nigeria in 1939 were up-graded by the Richards constitution of 1946 into Eastern and Western groups of provinces. With that development, Nigeria came to be composed of three units –North, East, and West in preparation for an eventual Federation of Nigeria. Each group of provinces had its administration under the leadership of Lt. Governor and Legislative (The House of Assembly) composed of nominated native majorities and exercising considerable advisory jurisdiction. There was also a central administration headed by the governor of Nigeria, and a Legislative council (with a native majority) of nominated representatives from all over the country. For our discourse, the significance of this politico-administrative arrangement lies in the fact that local government becomes the responsibility of the provincial administrations. "Hence, they assumed responsibility for implementing the Creech Jones Despatch as it related particularly, to the local government nationwide, another was the incessant tinkering with system as and when it pleased the provincial and later regional administration.

2.1.8: Regional Perspectives

WESTERN REGION

The Local Government Law of 1952 introduced modern Local Government Councils in the West, with membership drawn from elected councillors and traditional office holder consisting one quarter of the entire membership. The president of the council was the traditional office holder. It was a three tier system comprising the City Council, the Divisional Council and the Rural Council. In order to overcome the problems encountered in getting experienced Councillors to handle the personnel administration of Council's employees of all the local government in the region under the control of state appointed Local Government system was created. This consisted of all senior employees of all the local government in the region under the control of state appointed Local Government Service Board. The aim of this was to provide tenure for these officers, make them transferable between the Local Government Council and enhance their promotion prospects. It was later discovered that the prevailing system of Local Government in the region was beset with multi-farous problem arising from:

(a)   Three tier nature;

(b)   Smallness in sizes;

(c)   Poor staffing;

(d)   Poor revenue generation

In order to further streamline the activities, the existing 114 Local Authorities were abolished and replaced with 39 all purpose Local Government and 350 area development Councils by the Western Region Government.

Northern Region

In 1954, native authority law established a two tier system of Local Government Comprising native authority Councils and District Councils. A traditional ruler was made the president or chairman of each of the Councils. Other members of the Councils included elected member and village heads. The traditional ruler, who was the chairman of the native authority council, had a veto power over the decisions of the Council, and he had to inform the Governor of the whenever he exercised this power. A peculiar feature in Northern Region Local Government was "the portfolio council system" (Orewa 1991). This was inherited from the Colonial native authorities whereby members of the Councils taking up headship of a council equality offered leadership to the public servants in the departments. The traditional ruler, who was the Chairman of the Council, made the selection, and this was approved by the Regional Government. This practice persisted up to 1967. The Councils were graded A, B, or C, according to their sizes, volume of transaction, and financial capacity. In the former Northern region, the major areas of reform in the years 1954-75 were the membership of the councils. Districts Councils formed the Electoral College for the election of members into their native Authority Councils – This was a major effort to democratize the Councils. Before the 1976 Local Government Reforms, all the six (6) Northern States' Local Government councils provide the majority of the members being elected.

The Eastern Region

The Nation state called Nigeria came to be in 1914 when the protectorates of the Northern and Southern Nigeria was amalgamated by Lord Lugard, Sequel to this, the earliest form of Local Administration in Eastern Nigeria was Native Authority which was an adoption of prevailing nature-patterns of Government by the British, aimed principally at the maintenance of Law and Order. The native authorities which came into effect with passing into the Law of the Native Authority Ordinance No.14 of 1916 were essentially Local manifestations of a Central Government. The Central figure in this government was the Resident or Provincial Commissioner assisted by expatriate officers who were qualified in diverse fields. The district officers were broadly speaking, responsible for everything that went on in their assigned districts including law, order and good Government, (Adamolekun, Olowu and Laleye, 1988). Unlike the Northern and Western regions with Pre-Colonial

histories of Centralised Government, Local government in eastern Region often met direct frequent involvement of Administrative officers in Local Administration.

Following intense National zeal in the 1940s, the native Authorities were abolished in 1950 and fully elected 3-tier structure of Local Government was introduced. Members who were functional under the direct supervision of the British Administrative Officers (Orewa 1991). The 3-tiers were local, districts and county Councils. In a few all-purpose municipalities and urban councils, Mayor or Chairmen were elected as the team leaders. It follows that all Councils established under the Law were corporate bodies. They lacked executive functions due to encroachment upon their powers by Regional Government. However, the multitier Local Government was beset with lapses arising from its disarticulate structures and general ineffectiveness as a means of generating political participation at the grassroots and allocating resources (Amenities) to rural communities.

In view of this, the Eastern Region Local Government law of 1955 modified the provision of personnel Administration and the management of markets by transferring the management of staff above the lowest grade of government's Divisional Officers and strengthened the position of markets and other Council Administrations. As a result, the Local government Service Board was set up to advice the then Minister of Local Government on personal matters especially as it related to senior local government employees in the region. In 1958, the 3-tier system ran into a hitch. The third-tier, county-Councils were abolished and their functions transferred to the second tier, that is, district council, leaving the local council undisturbed. It was the 1960 local government law that redesigned the district council as county councils without changing the functions or increasing the numbers of tiers beyond two. The local government councils in the Eastern region comprising of the East Central, South Eastern and Rivers states, ceased to function in 1967 due to the outbreak of the civil war. The then east central state introduced the divisional Administration department (D.A.D) by Edict No. 18 of 1971. This lasted up to 1975 (Nwachukwu, 2000). The Local Government system and its problems were given a national approach in order to have a common Administration. It was this that gave birth to the 1976 Local Government reforms, otherwise called the unification of Local Government system in Nigeria. Since the introduction of 1976 reforms, all creations of existing Local Governments in Nigeria have been the acts of the Federal government (Nwachukwu 2000)

2.1.9: Local Government Administration under the Military Rule: 1966-1975

The different regional approaches of local government administration in Nigeria with the advent of the Military into nation's politics. By the time the Military assumed political

leadership in Nigeria in January, 1966, the state of local government was very poor indeed. Democratic participation which was the cornerstone of the 1950 reforms had been thrown over-board and replaced by "Sole Administrators" or caretaker committee of hand-picked local loyalist of the regional ruling party. Local government staff was inadequate and the poorest calibre due to unattractiveness of service, and the local government finances were comparatively on the decline resulting in considerable set-back for local service administration. Based on these, local government commanded dignity and respect only in the Northern region where the pre-1950 system has been largely preserved.

The expectation of Nigerians was that the Military was going to salvage the local governments. That was not to be because efforts made here and there in that direction were stalled by certain measures undertaken by the federal government especially to weaken the authority of regional governments and successive state administrations. These measures, among others include:

(i)   Section 3(2) of the Constitution (suspension and modification); Decree No. 1 of January, 1966 as further strengthened by the Constitution (Repeal and Restoration); Decree No. 13 of 1967 which consolidated the Legislative and Executive power of the federation in the Office of the Head of Federal Military Government and commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces, all empowered him to make laws for any part of Nigeria, and on any subject whatsoever and restricted the legislative jurisdiction of regional military governors to matters of the Executive regional List in the 1963 constitution;

(ii)   The states (Creation and Transitional Provisions) Decree No. 14 of 1967 which replaced the existing four regions of Nigeria with a 12-states structure and by implication reduced to the territory of the component units of the Federation as well as the numbers and size of their local governments;

(iii)   The newly created twelve states were limited to "residual matters" and were warned that exercise of authority over matters on the "Concurrent Legislative List" would require the specific consent of the Federal Military Government;

(iv)   The transfer in 1974 of University education from the "Concurrent Legislative List" to the Executive Federal List, and of Primary and Secondary education from the State "Residual List" to the "Concurrent List"

(v)   The Nigerian Produce Marketing Board Decree of April, 1968 which abrogated the authority of state governments over the sale export produce derived from the territories;

(vi)   The Central Bank of Nigeria (Amendment) Decree No. 50 of 1968which made the Central Bank (CBN) the only body in Nigeria to:

(a)   Grant advances and loans to state marketing boards for purchases at the beginning of a new cropping season;

(b)   Determine the financial requirements of State marketing boards for their service at the beginning of each crop season; and

(c)   Make it obligatory for state boards to consult the CBN before fixing producer prices for their export produce.

(vii)   The weakening of the state government finances through:

(a)   The abolition of export duties on Marketing board produce on 1st April, 1973;

(b)   The assumption by the Head of the Federal military Government of the role of state governments to fix producer prices for export produce; and

(c)   The abolition of producer sales tax in 1974; and

(vii)   The off-shore Oil Revenue Decree No.9 of April, 1971 and the Sea Fisheries Decree No. 30 of 1971 which by dispossessing the coastal states of their continental shelf's robbed them of substantial revenue from oil exploration and fishing.

The implication of the foregoing measure was the expansion of the jurisdiction and resource of the federal government at the expense the state government. The consequence was that the state government has no alternative than to in like manner descend heavily on the existing jurisdiction and resource based on their local government.

The local government thereafter declined considerably both effectiveness public esteem, and status the attendant public outcry particularly from the sector (tier of government) provided the much needed stimulant for federal government attention. in response thereof , the federal government institute in 1976,ia nationwide local government reform ostensibly to revamp the system

2.1.10 The 1976 Local Government Reforms

The 1976 local government reforms can rightly be described as a turning point in the development of local government administration in Nigeria it saw the emergency of a uniform structure of local government from the different forms of local administration which the federal system of government generated. The major aspects of the 1976 reform were incorporated into the 1979 constitution. The constitution guaranteed a system of democratically elected local government specified a list of functions for local authorities, and made it mandatory for the state of and federal government to make financial grants to local authorities.

The new military government that came to power in July, 1975,pledge to return the country to civilian administration within a short period and announced a programme for disengagement of the military from political administration among which the organisation of the local government administration was on important feather . The following were advice as the reason for the shift in that programme s objective:

(a)   A strong preventative local government system was considered to be a pre-condition for a democratic system at the national level.

(b)   After creating 19 state from the formal 12 state structure, local government reform were the next important exercise in the process of building a solid foundation for the return of civil rule. The objective of the reforms therefore were:

(i)   To confer a reasonable measure of autonomy over local affairs on local representative;

(ii)   To encourage citizen participant in local administration;

(i)   To take local institution responsive to local needs and purposes;

(ii)   To mobilize local resources; and

(iii)   To share power between the state and local communities

Main Features of the 1976 Reforms

These include;

(i)   the termination of a divisional administration especially in the eastern state and Bendel ;

(ii)   creation of 299 single tier local authorities all over the country ;

(iii)   the reintroduction of a representative local government in the state and a fundamental change in the conceptualization and organisation of local administration;

(iv)   the opportunity for federal government to strengthen the local authorities vis-a-vis the state by assigning to them a realistic range of features;

(v)   introduction of a new management structure to strengthen the administrative capacity of local council-all state had to establish local government service boards (commission) with the function similar to that of the civil service commission;

(vi)   provision of uniform guideline for recruitment ,promotion, training and discipline in the unified local government service , grading of post to attract more qualified personnel ;

(vii)   redefinition of the role of the ministry of local government ;

(viii) local government was enshrined in the 1979 constitution see section 7(1);

(ix)   Creation of 301 local governments with population ranging from 150,000-800,000. Each of them received grant from the State and the Federal Government to their respective Local Government.

Adamolekun (1988) captured the picture more than when the state distinguishes the 1976 reform, formal previous reform exercise in the country is the formal and unequivocal recognition of local government as constituting a district level of government with definite boundaries ,clearly stated functions, and provision for ensuring adequate human and financial resources. Consequently, a local government is recognized as a partner of the state government in planning and contributing to the development of the state. This responsibility and jurisdiction thus elevated the status of local government from a subordinate to partner position.

Infact, the Local Government Services Commissions in the federation were establish to provide uniform guidelines for recruitment, appointment, promotion, training, discipline and dismissal of staff of the unified local government services in each state. It is thus the duty of commission to lay down uniform and relevant minimum qualification and standard for entry into the especially for senior staff.

It is important to emphasize that the federal government's intervention of 1976 was not in the manner of take-over or of intention to do so at some future time, but as an aspect of needed adjustment to the Nigeria polity in preparation for democratic and responsible governance. Hence, the emergent reform package was couched in the form of suggestions to state governments whose jurisdiction over the subject was not to be compromised.

With regards to local government finance, the 1976 reform was pointed in its admission of inadequacy and in the declaration that "much larger financial resources were required if meaningful local government is to be expected in Nigeria". Accordingly, it made the following far-reaching recommendations:

(i)   the progressive extension of property rating-which is the only source which can be made to yield really large sum-to all governments beginning with the urban areas where it should be applied in the whole area rather than in selected sections of it;

(ii)   the retention by local government of the whole yield of property rates including subvention in lieu of rates on government property;

(iii)   the taxing of underdeveloped plots used for commercial purposes;

(iv)   retention by local government of the proceeds of all development s, community tax, flat rate tax, capitation rate or other form of general rates;

(v)   upward revision of all miscellaneous fees to increase their yield to local government;

(vi)   retention by local government of liquor license fees provided the police is represent on the Licensing Boards;

(vii)   involvement of local government in the sharing of Federation Account from which the sum of n100 million was being provided in that behalf for fiscal years 1976-77 while a new sharing plan would be worked out for subsequent years;

(viii)   federal statutory allocation to local government would be made to state governments who would share it among local authorities on the basis of 25% equality and 75% population size;

(ix)   for 1976, state government would determine the proportion of their internal revenues to be made to their local government; the formular for sharing being as establish for federal funds;

(x)   state and federal allocation are to services recurrent and capital requirement and are excluded from general grants for certain specified services as primary education and health care;

(xi)   capital project are to be funded from revenue surpluses rather than from loans except for a limited range of local government projects which can genet=rate substantial, immediate and direct revenues to cover amortization and interest charges as well as operating cost; and

(xii)   existing revolving loan scheme should operate in all states but its application should be restricted to fast profit-yielding project.

The thrust of these financial measures which were subsequently incorporated into the enabling laws enacted by the various state governments was to ensure for local government an expanded and productive internal revenue base to be supplemented by transferred revenues from both the Federal and state governments. Despite the far-reaching measures, the results seem to belie efforts made in that direction. Reason advanced by Olugbemi (1986) for system failure is:

(i)   Continued jurisdiction of state government over the most important of the function allocated to local government in the Guidelines and as stipulated in the Fourth Schedule of the Constitution of the Federal republic of Nigeria, 1979;

(ii)   Its failure to effect a more equitable sharing of the tax field among three levels of government; and

(iii)   Continued imposition of various central government control-in the selection of councillors, in budgeting and budget control, in policy determination including the

determination of fiscal policies, in personnel management, etc. Which tend to diminish the value of "government" in local government.[18?]

The foregoing may have informed the institution of the Dasuki Committee by the Federal Government in 1984 as a strategy for ameliorating the situation and ensure an adequate local government administration in Nigeria.

The Dasuki Report; 1984-1989 Reforms

This section discusses all the reform actions that took place between 1984 and 1989 beginning with the Dasuki Committee of 1984. The 1984 Dasuki Committee Report was another attempt made by the Federal Government to find solution to find Socio-economic and political problems that still beset the local government system in the country, FTER THE 1976 Reforms. The Committee made a number of recommendations geared towards the revitalization of the local governments. However, the actual reforms implemented by the federal government between 1987-1992 can be grouped as follows:

(a)   **Political Reforms:** Prior to this reform, the power to sack elected councillors/chairmen of Local Government Areas rested with the State Governors who arbitrarily dissolved such councils and replaced them with Sole Administrators who shared their political views. In order to void this ugly experience that made nonsense of the constitutional guarantee of democratically elected system of Local Government, the Local Government Basic Constitutional and Transitional Provisions Decree (No. 15) of 1989 was promulgated. By this decree, the power to remove elected Local Government Officials or the dissolution of the council was vested on the president of the federation. State Governors were required to get clearance/approval of the Federal Government before such dissolution can be effective.

(b)   **Administrative Reforms:** The Administrative Reforms embarked upon were aimed at enhancing the executive capacity of the local governments. Prior to 1987, the Chairman and the Supervisory councillors were elected by an Electoral College comprising mostly of the councillors. By virtue of this, the position of both the Chairman and the Supervisory Councillors were weak. The 1987 Reforms changed all these as the Chairman was directly elected by the entire Local Area. This mandate greatly enhanced his executive powers. The Chairman was equally authorized to appoint supervisory councillors.

(c)   **Financial Reforms:** In order counter financial difficulties such inadequate share of Federation account which stood at 1% and also the diversion of statutory allocations

meant for Local Governments by State Government directed that all the statutory allocations from the Federation account should be directed to the Local Government.

Subsequently, the statutory allocation to the local government was increased. Prior to 1990, the allocation moved 1% to 10% ,in 1990, it was increase to 15%,and in 1992, it move to 20%.to Further ensure the viability of local government, the federal allocation to local government increases from1.177 billion in 1986 to 8.1billion in 1991.the monthly allocation from the federation account move from 675 million in 1991 to 1 billion since January,1992, to ensure accountability, the federal government directed the appointment of the auditor general of local government with a right to audit government account and met out punishment to erring local government

(d)   **Inter Government Relations:** During the period under review, one of the most outstanding reforms was the abolition of the military of local government in 1988. This was replaced with a department of local government in the govern ions office to "provide guidance and supervision (not control) to local governments (Oladimeji, 1995:17). To date this department plays its supervisory role especially in monitoring/evaluating of projects been executed by local government.

The application 1988 civil services reforms in the local government service was another measure of enhancing the status of local government as the third tier of government .the measure was to professionalize the service of local government and to strengthen accountability through the use of audit alarm system and creation of the office of the auditor general for the local government 'the organisation structure of the local government limited number of department to six (6) the office of secretary to the local government was regularly politicized.

The federal government had made numerous reformations in 1989 constitution which were design to remove the inadequate of local government in the preparation for the third Republic. Other provision of the 1989 constitutions which gave power for the remover of local government chairman are contain in section 292 and those of electorate to "recall "any member of the local government council including the chairman and vice chairman specified in section 304, section 7(8) of the same constitution guarantee the local government steady and assured sauces of income. By virtue of this provision the local government system was increasingly become autonomous and recognized as the third ties of government

In the aborted third republic, the federal government in obedience a meaningful grassroots democracy, look further step to guarantee local autonomy so as to facilitate the

development of democratic culture at the grassroots in December 1990, there were collection in to the council. The 1991 reform introduced to the local government the presidential system of the government as it's used to be at the federal and state level. The development was regarded as test tubule for the nation grassroots democracy. The major highlights of the reform in accordance with the implementation of the basic constitutional and traditional provision (amendment) Decree 1991 are as follows:

(1)   The executive chairman cases to be a member of the council

(2)   Councilors were to form the legislator

(3)   Chairman to appoint supervisor from within or outside the council,(but if within the council such a councilor immediately loses his set

(4)   Councilor to elect a leader who will act as council speaker;

(5)   Council clerk now to head the personnel manager department

(6)   Executive arm of the council to consist of the chairman ,vic-chairman , secretary, and the supervisors;

(7)   Council secretary now become Chief Executive officer/adviser to the Executive arm. Under that agreement the local government council which constitutes the legislative arm was change with this function:

(8)   Law maker debate and passing local government legislator

(9)   Debating, approving and possibly amending local government yearly budget, subject to chair man's vote which could be over –ridding by two third majority of the council

(10)   Vetting and implementation project and programmed in the councils yearly budget

(11)   Examine the debating monthly statement of income and expenditure rendered to it by the executive arm

(12)   Impeaching the council chair man who as committed an impeachable offence in accordance with the constitutions

(13)   Advising, consulting and liaising with the chairman who is the head of the executive arm of the local council; and

(14)   Performing such other function as may be assign by the house of assembly of the state in which it is situated

In the same vein, the executive authority was conferred on the local government chairman or the vice-chairman, secretary or supervisor or officer in the service of the council to perform as follows

(a)   To function as the chief executive and the accounting officer of the local government provided his role accounting officer shall exclude signing of cheques and voucher

(b)   Assign to any supervisor of the local government responsibility for any business of the local government including the administration of any department of the local government.

(c)   Hold regular meeting with the vice chairman and all supervisor for the purpose of:

(i)   Determine the general direction of the policies of the government

(ii)   Co-ordination the activities of the local government; and

(iii)   Generally discharging the executive function of the local government

(d)   Set performance targ for each local government employee;

(e)   Observe and comply with the checks and balance spelt in existing guideline and financial regulatory governing receipt and disbursement of public found and other assets entrusted to his care and shall be liable for any breach thereof

(f)   Adhere fully to the finance, control and management Ack 1959 and its amendment

It is essential to note that other innovation introducing during Babangida administration s transition programme include the popular participation and political control of the grassroots, injunction of new breed into the nation body politics ;introduction of two grassroots based political party. National Republic convention (NRC) and social democratic party (SDP),as the introduction of the popular "optionA4",creation of more local governments, and introduction of open voting system these change were conscious attempts to give local government throughout the country some degree of autonomy in achieving the basic objective of their creation .this objective are contain in the 1976 guideline for local governments reform and further amplified in forth schedule of 1979 and 1989 constitution of the federal republic of Nigeria. In addition the local government council (legislators arm) were empowered to make bye-law assented by the chairman of the local government ,however over30 days, if the chairman failed to assent to a bye-law dully passed by the tow-third majority, such a bye-law become law even without the assent of the chair man

This was a novel procedure, which introduce a system of check and balance within the local government chairman and the council. These provisions were geared towards unfettered development and the sustenance of democracy in the third republic. it should also be noted that these development brought presidentialism to the grassroots where there existed a clear cut separation of power between the legislatives and the executive arm of the local government .

On this note we may add that there were various form of autonomy raging from political, legal, fiscal, administrative etc, politically, to develop local government, certain provision decrees and even the 1989 constitution has already spelt out the meaning for

political changes in local government .autonomy to popularly elect the chairman and the councilors is contain in chapter 8 part 1 section 283-307 of the 1989 constitution. Financially, the spending limit of local council had been abolished.

As a result local government would no longer seek approval from the state government before embarking on any project so far as it was contained in their estimate .approval of annual estimate or budget was done by the local government council instead of the state department of local government these presumable was to enhance their effective performance and thus prevent the unnecessary delay in the execution of capital project council .the administrative dimension of autonomy of the local council was given to the chairman to appoint staffers up to GL.06wereas the 1979 local government reform ,the 1979 constitution and chapter 8 section 308 of 1989 ;charge the local government service commission with the responsibility for employment posting , promotion , discipline and training of member of staff from GL.07 and above

On the other hand, the council enjoy the social autonomy of providing social service to the community, for instance, the local government was vested with the responsibilities of health services delivery with the transfer of primary health care to the council, thus enhancing the grassroots health care delivery system.

2.1.11: Job-Related Stressors

Rapid technological and social change has created highly stressful lifestyles. In fact, statistics indicate an increase in general psychological tension, and a dramatic rise in such stress-related diseases as hypertension and coronary disease (Levi, 1981; Schnall, 1990; Woolfolk & Richardson, 1978). Chronic stress is known to cause a host of physical, psychological, social and behavioural ills (Brief, Schuler, & Van Sell, 1981; Quick, Bhagat, Dalton, & Quick, 1987). Most adults spend about half of their waking lives in work-related activities; therefore, work conditions significantly influence their health. When properly handled, work stress can be positive and energizing; however, overwhelming job stress can cause a staggering array of problems for individuals and organisations (Beehr & Newman, 1978; Brief, 1981; Jean 1993). In addition, certain occupations are especially stressful. People whose positions involve interpersonal contact typically show increased pulse rates, higher diastolic blood pressure, and among smokers, increased smoking (Forbes, 1979; Pelletier, 1985; Schnall, 1990).

Many stress-related disorders also result from environment factors such as crowded work areas, noise, inadequate light and poor ventilation; and from physiological stressors, such as aggressive or absent communication between employees and management, rush

deadlines and job insecurity (Pellitier, 1985). The Holmes and Rahe (1967 scale of major life events, which includes a significant number of items related to work, is accepted as a reasonably accurate predictor of illness. Lazarus (1981), however has suggested that major life events may not be the best indicators of stress levels. Rather, he urges that everyday hassles and annoyances contribute more to stress, illness and depression. Such a proposition suggests the person environment theory as a strong conceptual framework for understanding stress at work.

Job Characteristics

Although stress experience is individualized, certain stimuli are almost universally considered unpleasant. The job characteristics approach holds that aspects of the job itself cause work stress. Though this approach does consider how personality moderates or heightens stress, it asserts that job characteristics are the dominant cause of stress (Beehr, 1985; McDonold & Korabik, 1991).

Intrinsic characteristics are properties inherent in a job's function, technology, or materials. Police officers, for example, risk criminal attack; assembly line work is repetitive; and air traffic controllers are responsible for people's safety. Intrinsic factors can be modified through technology, reduced exposure, or improved employee coping(Duncan, 1995;Kahn, 1987). To identify differences in work stress, Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison and Pinneau (1980) compared four types of jobs: unskilled blue-collar, skilled blue-collar, white-collar non professional and white-collar professional. Complaints of boredom, depression and illness were most common among unskilled blue-collar workers, while professionals, administrators and supervisors experienced more stress according to physiological measures like blood pressure, heart rate, and cholesterol level.

- Role demands, particularly role ambiguity and role conflict, have been linked with increased employee stress. Role ambiguity is an objective situation in which the individual has inadequate or misleading information about how a job should be done. This results in job dissatisfaction, high tension levels, and low self-confidence. Additionally, increase in blood pressure, pulse rate, depression, and employee turnover have been associated with role ambiguity (Beehr, 1985; Kahn, 1987). Role conflict, however, refers to either conflicting demands or pressures to behave in ways that cause discomfort. For example, a middle manager may experience stress when conveying orders from upper management that conflict with the manager's personal beliefs (Beehr, 1985; Kahn, 1987).

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- Over-and under work cause job stress as well (Levil, 1981; McDonald & Korabik, 1991). Quantitative work overload results when an individual simply has too much to do. This stressor is particularly prevalent during economic depressions, when employees may carry the equivalent of 1.5 to 2 jobs. Qualitative overload, on the other hand, occurs when an individual lack necessary skills or knowledge. A third form of workload stress is underutilisation, which occurs when job scarcity forces skilled workers to accept unskilled positions (Beehr, 1985; Jick, 1985; Quick & Quick, 1984). Beehr (1985) also found that workplace stress results when employees are not included in problem solving and decision making. In this situation, individuals may not know the organisation's policies and priorities, or what level of performance their employers expect. In contrast, employees with opportunities to solve problems and make decisions are move likely to understand and meet expectations, and to report greater job satisfaction.

Job insecurity and loss are undeniable components of work stress. Studies on stress resulting from fiscal cutbacks suggest that economic changes tend to increase health problems among employees. In addition, corporate cutbacks exacerbate other stressors (Kahn 1987; Wilson, Larson & Stone, 1993). For instance, vulnerability to termination increases anxieties about a poor job market. Even if no layoff risk exists, a performance evaluation can be a stressful event. Employees have reported experiencing "text anxiety" during evaluations. It is rare for individuals to respond constructively to employer criticism. Employees usually behave defensively when discussing areas that need improvement.

Therefore, negative performance feedback serves as a stressor. Also, anticipated defensiveness can cause stress in the evaluating supervisor (McLean, 1979; McDonald & Korabik, 1991). Interpersonal relations are a frequent source of stress at work, just as they are in family life. Here, stress can arise from isolation or from conflict. In the latter case, it can stem from rejection by co-workers, or from perceived discrimination. Contact with the public can also create stress, especially when it involves prejudice, hostility, or physical danger (Warshaw, 1979; Walcott-McQuigg, 1994).

- Individual characteristics are primary factors in each worker's unique response to stress. Studies pair such characteristics into opposing traits, such as extroversion and introversion. Extroverts tend to be active, outgoing, and less stressed. Introverts, on the other hand, are self-oriented, and experience stress when they must interact with others. Another key comparison can be drawn between flexible and rigid

personalities. Despite the common perception that rigid people are more stressed, their stability and determination result in less stress, while flexible people frequently lack the ability to say "no" (Brief, 1981).

Internal and external control also is important stress-related personality characteristics. Internally oriented individuals believe that they control their lives, and that rewards result from their own behaviour; external believe in fate and luck. Externals tend to respond with increased stress when confronted with similar stressors (Brief, 1981). These reports suggest that rigid, extroverted internals are less likely to experience work stress than those with the opposing personality structure. Two cardiologists, Friedman and Rosenman, discovered in the late 1950s that heart patients which they termed type A's tend to share certain characteristics, including excessive competition, devotion to work, and time urgency; absence of these characteristics was called type B behaviour. Studies suggest that type A's report higher levels of stress than type B's on every indicator (Friedman & Rosenman, 1974; Quick, 1987). However, controversies surround these issues and type of behaviour is often not seen as a problem since it reflects the western work ethic. Type A individuals often rise to higher occupational levels, which results in time pressure, conflicting demands, and heightened responsibility (Chesney & Rosenman, 1980). While type A personalities show an increased risk of CHD, one must resist stereotyping work behaviour as either good or bad. On the continuum of work-related behaviour, with type A and B representing two extreme poles, there are many effective work styles (Pellitier, 1985).

Symptoms of Workplace Stress

The signs of job stress vary from person to person depending on the particular situation, how long the individual has been subjected to the stressors, and the intensity of the stress itself.

Typical symptoms of job stress can be:
- Insomnia,
- Loss of mental concentration,
- Anxiety, stress,
- Absenteeism,
- Depression,
- Substance abuse
- Extreme anger and frustration,
- Family conflict

- Physical illness such as heart disease, migraine, headaches, stomach problems, and back problems

Job stress may be caused by a complex set of reasons. Some of the most visible causes of workplace stress are: Organized workplaces are going through metamorphic changes under intense economic transformations and consequent pressures. Reorganisations, takeovers, mergers, downsizing and other changes have become major stressors for employees, as companies try to live up to the competition to survive. These reformations have put demand on everyone, from a CEO to a mere executive.

Unrealistic expectations especially in the time of corporate reorganisations, which, sometimes, put unhealthy and unreasonable pressures on the employee, can be a tremendous source of stress and suffering. Increased workload, extremely long work hours and intense pressure to perform at peak levels all the time for the same pay, can actually leave an employee's physically and emotionally drained. Excessive travel and too much time away from family also contribute to an employee's stressors.

Technology

That expansion of technology-computers, pagers, cell phones, fax machines and the internet-has resulted in heightened expectations for productivity, speed and efficiency, increasing pressure on the individual worker to constantly operate at peak performance levels. Workers working with heavy machinery are under constant stress to remain alert. In this case both the worker and their family members live under constant stress to remain alert. In this case both the worker and their family members live under constant mental stress. There is also the constant pressure to keep up with technological breakthroughs and improvisations, forcing employees to learn new software all the times.

Workplace Culture

Adjusting to the workplace culture, whether in a new company or nor, can be intensely stressful. Making one adapt to the various aspects of workplace culture such as communication patterns, hierarchy, dress code if any, workspace and most importantly working and behavioural patterns of the boss as well as the co-workers, can be a lesson of life.

Maladjustment to workplace cultures may lead to subtle conflicts with colleagues or even with superiors. In many cases office politics or gossips can be major stress inducers. Also employees going through personal or family problems tend to carry their worries and anxieties to the workplace. When one is in a depressed mood, his unfocused attention or lack of motivation affects his ability to carry out job responsibilities.

2.1.12: Causes of Organisational Stress

According to Manning and Preston (2003), there are many causes of stress within an organisation including organisational structure, leadership style and quality, the demands of tasks and roles, balancing efficiency of services with high quality standards, the increasing "24/7" mentality, structural changes and changes in business processes, and the quality of communication throughout the organisation.

2.1.13: Organisational Change

Change is difficult for an institution and for its employees. There is uncertainty about the future, about what the organisation will "look like, " and how the employees feel they will fit into the new structure. While some individuals embrace change, most simply accept it- and with widely varying degrees of willingness. There are those, however, who refuse to change. The subsequent rejection of cooperative progress puts increased stress on supervisors, colleagues, and the institution as a whole. Pritchett and Pound (1995) contended that "resisting change is one of the most common causes of stress on the job".

Employees frequently become fearful during times of organisational change because of the instability changes causes. They question their abilities to perform in an unknown future. There is a tendency to leave "circle of influence" and spend significant time in their "circle of concern", worrying over possibilities outside their span of control (Covey 1989). Ironically, by clinging to the security blanket of what is known to them, employees can increase their stress levels exponentially. The large-scale result is infectious damage to the organisation.

2.1.14: Leadership and Work Stressors

The quality of leadership is a critical factor relative to the stress of the organisation. Are organisational leaders viewed as competent, ethical, strategic, approachable, and fair? Do they have reasonable expectations? Do they clearly communicate their vision and directions? If not, the organisation will experience stress. True leadership does not come from the position held but rather from creating a vision, setting an example, and inviting participation. An intelligent leader reads and understands books, but a great leader reads and understands people.

As noted by Kouzes and Posner (1995), "Leaders don't command and control; they serve and support". Leaders can create stress if employees do not think they have the good of the institution or organisation and its people in their mind and in their hearts.

2.1.15 Changes in Roles and Tasks

Many organisations are finding it necessary to examine the ways in which business is conducted. Whether seen as positive or negative, many colleges and universities are re-examining processes and services, as well as staffing, and are taking on more "business-like" approaches to how work is accomplished. This may mean streamlining or greater use of technology (including less in-person contact and more online interactions). It generally requires that employees learn new skills and commit to continuous learning.

While exciting for some, and taken in stride by many, it is resented or rejected by a percentage of employee populations. As roles and tasks change, there is the potential for stress-producing ambiguity, placing increased emphasis on the importance of adequate and timely communication. Clarity of job descriptions, reporting relationships, and performance standards are critical in combating the potential stress caused by changes in role and/or tasks.

Balance in Work and Life

As technology increases, people witness a struggle-not just with continuous learning and the expectation that work will be accomplished more quickly, but also with a quality dilemma. For those who provide a service rather than a product, there is stress inherent in balancing process efficiencies with customer expectations for quality and personal hands-on assistance. Another significant contributing factor to organisational stress is the "24/7" expectation in an increasing number of jobs. Many employees express concerns that they do not have a "life outside of work" anymore. Office-related e-mails infringe on employees' evenings and weekends. With the abundance of laptop computers, the expectations seems to be growing that we can work wherever we go. Employees risk becoming resentful and are vulnerable to burnout. Some cease to have the energy and the enthusiasm they had in the past. As they lose their spark and creativity, the organisation loses a major resource.

2.1.16: Consequences of Job Stress

Employee distress costs organisations directly and indirectly. Direct costs come from absenteeism, tardiness, sick leave, and court-ordered compensation. Indirect costs include poor communication, decreased productivity, job dissatisfaction, and poor performance (Alluisi & Fleishman, 1982; Nelson & Elsberry, 1993). Numerous studies demonstrate that stress alters mental and physical health. Job stress can lead to a staggering array of health problems, including heart disease, stroke, gastrointestinal disorders, respiratory problems, backache, headache, diabetes, liver cirrhosis, skin disease, and fatigue (Brief, 1981; Quick & Quick, 1984; Quick, Horn & Quick 1986).

Research findings demonstrate that work stress is associated with a number of negative psychological states. Depression, the most common and significant, varies from mild to severe which can lead to suicide. Anxiety, a well-known consequence of work stress, often accompanies depression (Brief, 1981; Caplan, Cobb & French, 1975). Other consequences include sleep disturbances, sexual dysfunction, tension, boredom, and fatigue, feelings and futility, inadequacy or alienation, and loss of concentration (Beehr & Newman, 1978; Brief, 1981; Quick, 1986). Quick et al. (1986) stated that disordered behaviour constitutes the earliest sign of increased stress.

Behavioural effects of work stress include drug use and abuse, over-and under-eating, poor interpersonal relations, accident proneness, abusive behaviour, and violence. In addition, McDonald and Korabic (1991) enumerate a series of behaviours used to deal with job stress; these include action, humor, avoidance, withdrawal, anger, and seeking revenge. Clearly, the less adaptive responses on this list can end in violence. Unresolved job stress spills over into family relations as well. Rook, Dooly, and Catalano (1991) and Wilson, Larson & Stone (1993) stated that stress resulting from job insecurity directly affects both family function and the spouse's emotional well-being. In fact, job stress strains marriages and families, reducing the social support available to stressed employees.

These behavioural consequences, if left unattended, can produce violence. Characteristic symptoms generally precede violence. Violence-prone individuals may complain chronically, show difficulty relating to others, and cast blame. They are likely to become suspicious and to resist help. As their frustration grows, they become more aggressive, uncooperative, and abusive; their behaviour may be marked by emotional outbursts, hyperactivity, and mood swings, and they may condone physical abuse o carrying weapons. Often, offenders were known as problem employees; many had grievances or disciplinary actions pending at the time of their attacks (Duncan, 1995; Lambert, 1994; Sandler, 1994; Sandler, 1994).

2.1.17: Managing Stress at Work

Since stress results from both a given environment and individual appraisals of that environment, individuals and organisations must collaborate to manage stress. Coping strategies are not a stable personality characteristic; rather, individuals modify coping strategies according to the nature of the stressor and experiences during and between stressful episodes (Folkmn & Lazarus, 1980). This indicates that employees can learn to manage stress effectively.

2.1.18: Individual Coping Strategies

It is important to note that there are methodological concerns connected with the study of coping. Coping commonly is perceived as a positive, health-enhancing activity. However, coping behaviours are generally unhealthy involving drinking, smoking and getting sick. Therefore, it can be difficult to identify coping activities and to determine their effectiveness (Murphy, 1985). Also, coping is often used in an intuitive sense, and adequate scientific definitions are scarce and controversial. Murphy (1985) defined coping as any cognitive, behavioural, or somatic response to stressors. When used in this sense, coping includes eliminating or reducing stress, modifying one's appraisal of stressors, or managing discomfort. Coping is distinguished from defensive behaviour, in that coping is flexible, purposive, reality-oriented, and differentiated, while defensive behaviour is rigid, reality-distorting, and undifferentiated. To assess coping styles and study their consequences, new research is needed to create a broad system of classification detailed enough to contain individual patterns within each main category.

This system must be theoretically coherent, linking observable antecedents and measurable responses. Although no adequate system presently exists, schemes with varying mixtures of theoretical and empirical support have been offered. Menaghan and Merves (1984) studied the effectiveness of four occupational coping efforts: direct action toward resolution; optimistic comparisons to the past or to peers' situations; concentration on positive features; and restricted expectations for job satisfaction, combined with a focus on monetary rewards. It was concluded that restricting expectations heightens distress, and optimistic comparisons reduce it. Latack (1986) indicates that it is necessary to categorize coping tactics empirically. The three elements identified were coping, escape, and symptom management.

The first two consist of cognitive appraisals of stressful situations followed by either a proactive response or escape. Symptom management consists of activities intended to manage existing stress, such as exercise. A variety of programs exist to help individual employees cope with stress. The most common approach, the medical model, aids individuals already suffering from stress. Such programs evaluate symptoms, diagnose causes, and offer treatment. This model generally takes a curative approach, using medication to alleviate symptoms such as high blood pressure. Another large group of programs aims to reduce individual vulnerability to stress. These programs help individuals to identify and control stress by teaching meditation, relaxation, developing positive attitude, improving exercise and diet (Benson, 1975; Warshaw, 1979).

2.1.19: Organisational Coping Strategies

Without a wider consideration of the organisational factors, focusing on individuals is insufficient in dealing with work related health problems (Cox, 1997). In accordance with social norms emphasizing individualism, the clinical approach focuses on individuals. However, since stress often stems from employment trends, companies, too, must labor to alleviate stress. Cautious hiring and retention can avert problems; other helpful strategies include identifying employee concerns, restructuring jobs, and intervening in employee relations.

Dysfunctional organisations burn out employees (Kets de Vries & Miller 1984); therefore, it is important for organisations to encourage employee involvement and discourage overwork (Brott, 1994). Stress management is part of good company management (Johnson & Indvic 1994; Warshaw 1979, 1984). Additionally, the Occupational Safety and Health Administration General Duty Clause requires employers "to provide a Safety and Health Administration General Duty Clause requires employers "to provide a safe and healthful working environment for all workers covered by the Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970" (Fingeret, 1994).

This is particularly important since women of color face a greater risk of workplace violence than others, according to the Center for Women in Government and the American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees (Office of Minority Health, 1996). Organisations can also alleviate work stress by providing appraisal, informational, instrumental and emotional support (Cohen 1990; Dewe & Guest, 1990).

The Impact of Work Stress

Over the last decade, the escalating costs associated with workplace stress indicate an international trend among industrial countries (Karasek & Theorell, 1990; Shergold, 1995). For instance, in the United States the number of stress claims has trebled in the last year with 15 percent of all workers compensation claims being for stress. The cost to organisations of this level of occupational stress lies anywhere between 200 and 300billion dollars per year as a result of high staff turnover, increased health and workers' compensation claims and decreased productivity (Wojcik, 1999).

In addition, recent figures emanating from Britain have indicated that approximately 70,000 workers are absent from work due to occupational stress every year (McKee, 1996),costing the nation around seven billion pounds in lost productivity, worker entitlements and health care. A subsequent result of these factors is the loss of 40 million working days per year (Shergold, 1995). Hodgson, Jones, Elliott and Osman (1993) reported that in the

year, 5.9 percent of workers surveyed in England and Wales recorded having an illness that was caused or made worse by work. Almost 14 percent of the population reported they had suffered work stress or depression in the previous year. Three occupational groups showed raised rates or stress, namely teachers, welfare workers and other health professionals. The stress rate among teachers was particularly marked, being over four times the average. The Canadian Compensation Board (1996) found that 60 percent of Canadian workers 'felt negative stress in the workplace' and 80 per cent of this group stated that stress was adversely affecting their job performance and health. Workers between the ages of 25 and 44 years, as well as managerial and professional employees were identified as the groups that tended to be more likely to lodge a stress claim.

In another study conducted by the Northwest Life Insurance Company (1991) in America, 35 percent o those interviewed said that their job was extremely or very stressful and 26 percent said that their job was the greatest stressor in their life. This study also found that the incidence of stress-related disabilities had doubled from 6 percent to 13 percent between 1982 and 1991.

In line with these trends, Australia has also witnessed a significant rise in reports of occupational stress, in both the private and public sectors. Indeed, one of the most visible costs of occupational stress is that associated with workers' compensation claims (Toohey, 1993). Although a relatively limited number of claims are related to workers who experience occupational stress, the cost of returning these individuals to the workplace is considerable. This cost is mostly associated with the delay of lodgments and/or acceptance of claims, compounded by the potential chronicity of the condition (Kenny, 1998; Toohey, 1993).

Other factors that can increase the cost of stress claims include the likelihood of misdiagnosis and the negative perception of key stakeholders such as employers, co-workers, and rehabilitation providers that hinder appropriate treatment (Kenny, 1995a; Kenny, Kable, Kroon, Quinn & Edwards, 1999). In his review of the common wealth compensation system during the year 1991 – 1992, Toohey (1993) revealed that only 4 percent of claims were stress related, but accounted for 18 percent of the costs of overall claims for that year. Similarly, recent research relating to workers' compensation claims in Western Australia revealed that 2.2. Percent of overall lost-time claims were lodged for occupational stress, and these claims accounted for an excessive amount of claim-related costs (WorkCover WA, 1999).

Trends showed that there has been a decrease in the number of stress claims for which liability had been accepted in the Western Australian system. Indeed, between the period

1998 to 1999, although the percentage of stress claims remained constant (i.e approximately nine percent of all claims received), there was a notable decline in acceptance of claims. Of the 713 occupational stress claims lodged in Western Australia during this period, only 221 were accepted (30.9 percent). Similar trends have been found in Commonwealth and other State compensation systems, whereby there has been an increase in claims lodged but a reduced rate of acceptance. Further, other jurisdictions have also found that the small percentage of accepted stress claims tend to be accompanies by high costs. In researching the costs associated with workplace injuries, the direct costs, including weekly payments, medical and rehabilitation costs can be calculated readily. However, the indirect costs of workers compensation are estimated to be between four to weight greater than the direct costs (CCH Australia, 1990). Indirect costs for work place injuries for employers include increased insurance premiums, lost productivity time, additional labour costs, for a replacement worker and costs involved in administering the claim. Furthermore, as the CCH Australia report described, workplace injuries ultimately impact on the community through the effect they have on family, unemployment, loss of prospects for further career development and the potential to create a general decline in quality of life (Foley, Gale & Gavenlock, 1995; Kelley, 1995; Sarantakos, 1996).

There is evidence that the incidence of stress in the workplace is greater than indicated by available statistics, not only because of the inadequacy of the statistics but also because these claims only represent a small proportion of the actual incidence of work stress. For example, data from the United States showed that the percentage of the general population that develops a psychological disorder in any year is between 28 and 30 percent and that, in the workplace, the incidence could be as high as18 to 20 percent of employees (Cotton & Jackson, 996). Recent research in Australia had indicated that while over one in four workers had taken leave for stress, only four percent had claimed workers' compensation (The Australia Council of Trade Unions ACTU, 1998).

Justification in workers' reluctance to report stress at work include "fear of retribution and difficulty in gaining acceptance from employers and medical practitioners that stress at work is a legitimate explanation for ill health...they are unwilling to claim workers' compensation" (ACTU, 1998). The associated stigma of acquiring a mental health condition may also negatively impact on the lodgment of a worker's compensation claim for stress.

Many workers may suffer from occupational stress for some time without reporting it to their employers or claiming for occupational stress through the workers compensation system. A study conducted by McKenna (1996) showed that 42 percent of workers who

participated in the study had taken leave from work during the past 12 months due to stress. Most leave was taken as sick leave and only five percent claimed workers' compensation. Research has also uncovered the possibility that many workers do not report their 'injury' until the situation and the injury have become very serious and, therefore, difficult to treat and rectify. For instance, Douglas and Bain (1996) found that the prevalence of work stress did not equate with the frequency of claims for psychological injury. They associated this discrepancy with several factors, particularly highlighting organisational deterrents and access to information about entitlements. Over the last decade occupational stress, regardless of whether a claim has been lodged or not, has become an issue of great concern.

Where workplace matters once focused on the safety issues of physical working conditions (such as hazardous materials, noise, cleanliness, lighting and physical work overload), concern is now concentrated on the escalation of complaints relating to psychological pressures (Ivanevich, Matteson, Freedman & Phillips, 1990; Toohey, 1995; Vagg & Spielberger, 1998). Several studies have linked stress in the workplace to such factors as increased absenteeism (Cooper & Cartwright, 1994), poor work performance (Kohler & Kamp, 1992), health problems and staff turnover (Cooper, 1986; Farrington, 1995; Guppy & Gutteridge, 1991; Kalimo & Vuori, 1991). A recent study that examined the effects of stress on allied health professionals, found that high levels of stress were associated with depression, anxiety, sick leave and prosperity to leave (Quine, 1998).

Several studies over the last fifteen years have provided support for the involvement of stress as a risk factor in the etiology of illness and disease (Cooper & Cartwright, 1994: Lazarus and Folman, 1984; Quick, Quick, Nelson & Hurrell, 1997). Indeed, Guyton (1981) postulated that a person who experiences long term or chronic stress may potentially experience such debilitating illnesses as hypertension, coronary heart disease, stroke or peptic ulcer. Moreover, Humphrey (1998) in a recent review of the medical literature, found that prolonged and unyielding nervous tension developing from psychological stress, can result in psychosomatic disorders which can lead to serious diseases. These include cirrhosis of the liver, high blood pressure, cancer and heart disease. Clearly, unresolved stressful situations keep a body in a constant state of activation and increase the likelihood of 'wear and tear' to biological systems.

Fatigue results as a compromise in the body's ability to defend itself; and an increased risk of illness, injury and disease have all been found to escalate with stress (National Institute of Stress and Health – NISH, 1999). Stress is therefore held to be casually responsible for a vast and varied range of negative health outcomes that not only affect the

individual, but also the employer and society in general. These outcomes contribute to the hidden costs of stress in the workplace that are difficult, if not impossible, to quantify.

The Work Stress Process

Any movement into employment involves a match between an employer or organisation and an employee. As many researchers have agreed, both the job itself and the person bring vulnerabilities and characteristics that contribute to the stress process (Kenny, 2000). For instance, research has clearly acknowledged the fact that some individuals have a predisposition towards negative thinking or affect, have fewer cooping resources than others or an inability to utilize effective coping strategies (Netmeyer,2000). Although vulnerabilities are important, there is growing presence of people in the workforce who already have a psychiatric condition or have experienced psychological difficulties in the past.

Any attempt to mange and eliminate the 'risk' of psychological injury by screening employees for vulnerability will impact negatively on the humanistic movement towards fairer and more equitable employment practices. Rather than screening for vulnerability and focusing negatively on workers, it is important to understand the demands associated with particular jobs, in an effort to ensure that those demands are reasonable. Although jobs differ in the level of demand they place on individuals, research has identified a set of reasonably common pressures, role difficulties, conditions and negative events that are likely to contribute to the stress process.

It is important to note that irrespective of the demands of particular jobs, stress seems to have become an inevitable part of working life in the current labour market. Trends in the global economy have altered the way in which the employee-employer relationship is defined and have escalated the demands placed on both parties. Many of these forces are unchangeable and non negotiable. Rather than focusing on either the worker or the job, most contemporary organisational theories have acknowledged Lewin's (1952) proposition that behaviour is a function of both factors. Stress cannot be attributed to the vulnerabilities of the person or the demands of the job/environment independent of each other. Instead, stress results from the degree to which the two fail to 'fit' together (Blu, 1981). The fit between the person and the environment can depend on how well the individual's skills and abilities match the practical job demands and requirements, or how well the individual's psychological and social needs are matched by the job environment. The greater the discrepancy, the greater the likelihood of work stress (Lofquist & Dawis, 1969). Researchers have questioned the notion that perfect fit is associated with the absence of work stress and clearly, this is unlikely (Dollard, 1996). Highly stressful work can be offset by the fact that

some workers derive satisfaction from challenge, risk or change. Without these qualities, the person-environment fit would be deficient (Dollard, 1996).

While the interaction between the worker and the job is an integral component of the work stress process, the interaction occurs in the strong socializing context of work. Over time, this context transforms newcomers into participating and effective-or ineffective-members of that work-culture. Particular work cultures and socialization process are likely to encourage specific definitions, interpretations and responses to stress. In addition, certain types of workplace practices, coping strategies or vulnerabilities may be associated with different cultures. The process of socialization itself is considered to be stressful, particularly during the first nine months or so when workers are attempting to define the expectations of their workplace (Nelson 1987). In many cases, the expectations that accompany the culture may be unreasonable or conveyed in such a subtle manner that workers can only learn by trial and error, leaving them vulnerable to costly repercussions when cultural norms are inadvertently violated. According to Nelson (1987), socialization failures leave new workers feeling alienated and stressed. In contrast, those who have been 'well socialized' may be less likely to experience stress in response to unreasonable demands of the job. An even more negative outcome of socialisation is the possibility that workers may become either less or more likely to report stress, irrespective of their experience, depending on the requirements of the work-culture.

Socialisation is not a one-way process (Kielhofner, 1995). Indeed, socialization is usually accompanied by a process of 'contracting' and relationship-building that occurs between employees and employers. During this process of contracting, an individual who fills a new role will negotiate with his or her employer and may shape the work environment as much as the environment shapes its workers (Swanson & Fouad, 1999). Employment is a reciprocal relationship – both at the practical level and at the psychological level (Jones, Flynn & Kelloway, 1995). At the practical level, employees simply exchange labour for remuneration – an exchange that is often governed by a physical employment contract. However, at the psychological level, employees offer commitment to an organisation in return for perceived support from that employer. In the optimum employment relationship, the psychological contract will be flexible in response to changes in the employment context. Stress-related difficulties are most likely to occur when violations of the psychological contract are seen as deliberate. In this case, one party is perceived as having been able to keep the implicit commitment but not having done so, either due to self-serving actions or negligence. When a violation of contract is perceived to have occurred, individuals will

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interpret their situation and seek to understand the meaning of their loss. This subjective interpretation or appraisal of the situation forms the centre of most theories of work stress (e.g. Lazarus & Fokman, 1984).

Once the loss associated with a contract violation has been appraised as being stressful, the bond between the worker and the employer is likely to being deteriorating. Ironically, the relationship between workers and employers is further damaged by the responses that are often instigated when the symptoms of stress become evident (i.e. human resource management strategies such as performance appraisal). As the worker moves further away from the important role of worker, the social relationships and supports that accompany that role deteriorate (Keilhofner, 1995). At some point in this process, the worker's condition becomes a medical and/or legal problem as well as an organisational problem. Cotton (1996) suggested that the entire work stress process tends to be 'over-medicalised' and is more appropriately managed in the workplace than by medical practitioners. Specifically, he concluded that many people are not well suited to their occupational choice, and that problems arising from this mismatch (including stress) should not become medicalised and legalized under the compensation system. The medicalisation process is likely to introduce third parties into the already disrupted relationship between the worker and his or her work place.

Higgins (1996) warned that it is the responsibility of this 'third party' (i.e. the medical practitioner) to ensure that the medical certificate is not used as a "device to shift the focus from a management issue to a medical problem". If a claim for psychological injury is lodged, the period for which the individual is without a functional role or relationship with an employer, is extended markedly. Indeed, at this stage the relationship with the employer can become hostile, or at least oppositional and adversarial. The situation places both the worker and the employer in 'victim' roles, having to prove their argument and defend their position. More players enter into the relationship and the likelihood of resolution is minimized. The work stress process becomes a legal and statutory process that is poorly understood by both workers and their employers, leading to increased stress. The concurrent medical, legal and statutory processes can exacerbate psychological conditions and obscure the impact of work stress on the injured worker, thus inhibiting recovery.

Keilhofner (1995) noted that if the employer-employee relationship is not restored quickly or, at least replaced, the long-term outcome for the worker is likely to be negative. In cases of work stress, the loss of work-related roles and relationships has the potential to exacerbate the psychological condition of the worker, thus complicating the diagnosis and

management of work-related injury. While the process represents a similar experience to that associated with most work-related injury. While this process represents a similar experience to that associated with most work-related injuries, the weakening of the bond between employer and employee represents a particular problem in cases of occupational stress as the bond is likely to have already deteriorated significantly prior to the formal recognition of injury. A major implication of the formal medical, statutory and legal processes used to manage work-related injury is that no new roles or relationships are developed for sometime. Thus rehabilitation practices are likely to confront significant challenges that could be avoided. Further, vocational rehabilitation usually involves graduated return to the workplace, preferably the existing workplace.

However, in cases of work stress, return to the workplace represents a return to the factors that precipitated the work stress process initially. As a result of the focus on the worker during medical, statutory, legal and rehabilitation practices, it is unlikely that the workplace will have significantly altered. This situation leaves the worker vulnerable to repeated psychological injury, but with less resilience and the added stigma of a mental health condition. At a primary prevention level, management of stress has involved the development of occupational health and safety legislation in an attempt to create 'healthy organisations'. The most common method of management, however, occurs at the secondary level, once stress has been identified. These strategies include interventions such as Employee Assistance Programmes and Psychological Counselling. Tertiary management begins once stress, and its symptoms, has been identified as a 'condition'. At this stage, workers are usually managed individually though medical or psychiatric interventions. When, or if, a claim for compensation is lodged, management becomes a statutory and legal task that can differ across the various jurisdictions. Significant complications arise as a result of these statutory and legal management systems as they profoundly alter the nature of the relationship between employers and employees. Often it is only when the administration of a claim has been finalized, that workers move into a 'return-to'work' phase. At this point, they must change the mindset that has developed during prior phases (i.e., medicalisation and legalisation) and must now willingly attempt to return to either the existing workplace or a new position. The management strategy that most commonly guides rehabilitation is case management and/or injury management.

If managed well, the injury management and vocational rehabilitation process has the potential to create a cyclical effect in that the experiences of both rehabilitated employees and employers will influence the manner in which they manage the workplace in future.

Unfortunately, however, each phase of work stress management appears to be unconnected to other phases. Management of the work stress process could be defined as a series of 'bandaids', each needing to be slightly larger that the one before as problems and issues have become ingrained in previous stages.

Personal Vulnerability to Stress

Specific personal characteristics appear to affect the degree to which particular events or conditions are perceived as being stressful (Ganster &Schaubroeck, 1991; Kobasa, 1979; Perlin & Schooler, 1978; Watson & Pennebaker, 1989). Since the 1940s, a massive volume of research has identified an infinite list of personal variables that are likely to contribute to the experience of stress. These factors are assumed to be associated with a greater likelihood that individuals will experience stress, be unable to manage stressful demands, take longer to recover from the effects of stress, or suffer negative outcomes as a consequence of stress. It has also been claimed that such factors may even increase individuals' susceptibility to events that result in negative experience or emotions (George, 1992).

The factors that have been identified include ingrained personality variables, cognitive behavioural or affective response styles, and access to practical or emotional resources. This section will review the most commonly cited factors considered to be associated with increased stress at work.

- **Personality Factors**

According to Cotton (1995), there cannot be a 'work-caused' personality disorder. He stated that workplace factors may aggravate a pre-existing personality disorder or accelerate its manifestation, but not cause it. Further, some personality conditions may be associated with episodic reductions in personal and vocational functioning, irrespective of current employment conditions. In some cases, the personality disorder itself may be a factor in the generation of stressful employment conditions, such as interpersonal conflict with colleagues and supervisors. This conflict may inaccurately appear to be causally related to the onset of stress symptoms in the individual. In this regard, Cotton found that among claimants reviewed for 'fitness for continued duties, there were several undiagnosed personality conditions that were likely to have precipitated long-term, but low level, interpersonal and vocational difficulties for those claimants.

- **Negative Affectivity**

There is a fairly consistent finding that some individuals exhibit a general tendency towards negative responses irrespective of the type of stimuli experienced in their

environment. This general tendency, called negative affectivity (NA), was identified in early research conducted on personality psychology (Watson & Clark, 1984) and refers to a "broad range of aversive mood states including anger, disgust, guilt, fearfulness and depression" (Watson & Pennebaker, 1989). NA is believed to be a stable disposition towards a negative mood-state that permeates much of the individual's attitude and behaviour towards events, oneself and others, regardless of the situation (Watson & Clark, 1984). Researchers have proposed three mechanisms that underlie the relationship between NA and stress. These are:

(a)   a predisposition to interpret situations negatively (Watson & Clarke, 1984),

(b)   an increased tendency to selectively process information that emphasises negative aspects of a particular situation (Necowitz & Roznowski, 1994);and

(c)   a decreased tendency to actively control the environment (Goerge, 1989; Judge, 1993).

According to Watson Pennebaker and Foger (1987), individuals with high NA are capable of experiencing a great deal of stress and discomfort, even in relatively innocuous contexts and their perception of stress is likely to persist even if negative working conditions are altered dramatically. This trait is likely to influence how individuals experience their environment as well as how they perceive their own wellbeing. As such, NA has been thought to account for many relationships that emerge between self-reported events and subjective well-being (Brief, Burke, George, Robinson &Webster, 1983). Long-term psychological stress may be confused with NA because it is highly related to measures of depressive symptoms (Brief wet al., 1983) and may also influence an individual's evaluation of perceived stress (Watson & Pennebaker, 1989). Indeed, researchers have found that NA is inherently confounded with typical measurers of stress both work and non-work. As a result, the presence of NA is likely to result in artificially inflated correlations between stress and outcome (Brief. 1983).

In fact, researchers have found that NA could account for much of the relationship between work stress and burnout (Brief, 1983) and may be the construct that underlie both perceptions of stress symptoms and negative mood (Watson, 1987). Consequently, NA is an important factor for consideration in relation to an individual's work-related stress.

In a study of first level managers, Parasurman and Cleek (1984) reported that NA increased the dissatisfaction associated with role overload. Despite the fact that only a few of the interactions tested in this study were found to be significant, NA showed direct effects with perceived stress and job satisfaction. The researchers concluded that such findings demonstrate the importance of prior susceptibility in influencing stress reactions. Further,

Parkes (1990) found an interaction effect between NA and work demands in the prediction of mental strain in trainee teachers.

However, NA did not moderate the work support-outcome relationship, prompting the interpretation that only impersonal quantitative stressors, such as work load, rather than interpersonal forms of stress, such as lack of support from colleagues and peers, are affected by an NA bias. Overall, the evidence is more supportive of NA having a direct effect, rather than a moderating effect, on work stress.

- **Cognitive distortion and negative thinking patterns**.

Cognitive theorists have postulated that the range of "thinking "patters are likely to impact on whether or not individual s experience stress in the workplace. Beck (1984) and Ellis (1992) have identified patterns that occur regular among those who experience difficulties coping with life demands. Specifically, individuals, whose interpretations of event are characterized by over-organisation, passim,extrme or dichotomous views, catastophising, the attribute of blame and rigid or inflexible ideas are most at risk or experience stress. Those patterns are responsible for the onset of significant depression and distress (Beck, 1984; Seligman, 1994).

The work of Rotter (1966; 1982) and Seligman (1994) added an important dimension to this researchers identified the importance of the patterns with which individual interpreted their ability to control their circumstances. Rotter noted that some individual tend to consistently interpret their circumstances as being control by external force. This external locus of control (Rotter, 1966, 1982) has been linked to negative outcome following events, owner performance and ongoing depression (hiroto, 1974; Rotter, 1982; Seligman, 1994).

Further, when faced with similar stressful situation, individuals with an external focus of control are less likely than individual with an internal locus of control to believes that they have a significant effect on outcomes. People with an internal locus of control are more likely than those with an externals locus of control, however, are likely to be passive and defensive ,feel helpless in a stressful situation and experience stress (Anderson, Hellriegel & Slocum,1977;Gemmill & Heisler,1972).finally, those with an internal locus of control are more likely to attribute positive and negative organisation outcomes to their own action and ,cope better with higher levels of stress .this leads to lower incidence of sickness, and hence, lower absenteeism (Robbins, Marsh,Cacioppe & Millett, 1994).

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than those with an external locus of control to take charged of the event and act to re-negotiate their situation. Those with an external locus control, however are likely to be passive and defensive, feel helpless in stressful situations and experience stress (Anderson,Hellriege & Slocum, 1977 Gemmill,& Heisler, 1972).finally those with an internal locus of control are more likely to attribute positive and negative organisational outcome to their own actions and, cope better with higher level of stress. This lead to low incidents of sickness and hence, lower absenteeism (Robbins, Marsh, Cacioppe & Millett, 1994).

- **Psychological Hardiness**

In contrast to negative affectivity and pessimism, 'hardiness' is a term given to a particular cluster of personality characteristics that have been identified among people who appear to cope well with stress (Kobasa, 1979). Hardy individuals believe they can influence their environment, are deeply involved in or committed to the activities of their life, and view change as a challenge (Roisenweig & Kast, 1984). In fact, psychological hardiness has been shown to moderate the stress-strain relationship and people with high levels of these three qualities have found to be resistant to the deleterious effects of stress (kobasa, 1979). A central characteristic of hardy individuals is their capacity to perceive stressful situations as a challenging instead of threatening or overwhelming. Research has found that this individual difference variable significantly moderates the stress-strain relationship. For example, in a study of middle to upper class businessmen, Kobasa (1979) found that executives who experienced highly stressful events and who displayed hardiness recorded significantly less illness than those without hardiness. Similarly, a longitudinal study found that hardy workers shoed smaller increases in blood pressure and serum triglycerides in response to increasing role ambiguity (Haword, Cunningham & Rechmitzer, 1986). Further, Manning, Williams and Wolfe (1988) found a direct, rather than moderating role, of hardiness in that hardy individuals reported higher levels of job satisfaction, fewer somatic complaints, less depression and less anxiety compared to non-hardy individuals. It would seem, therefore, that hardy individuals seek ways to gain control and tend to view their situation more optimistically than non-hard individuals and are, therefore, less likely to perceive the existence of work-related stress.

It important to note that these personal vulnerability factors are static and can vary in the individual across time and context. For example, individual determination together with support and assistance from management can aid an individual to take more control over their work events. Further, organisations can assist employees by structuring rewards and

recognition for individual initiatives and performance in order to help them to move towards a more internal orientation (Robbins et al., 1994).

The ways in which individuals cope with stress is thought to have a significant impact on outcome, presumably because it enable individuals to execute some control over the demands that are place on them (Diamond, 1990). In defining the way of coping, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) identified tow broad type of coping strategies, namely, problem-focus coping and emotion-focused coping. The primary aim of problem focused is to confront the effect either by altering the situation (environment directed) or by acquiring necessary information, skill or assistance (self-directed). In contrast, emotion-focused coping in a palliative response, the aims to eliminate negative emotional reactions to the event. Emotion-focused strategies usually involve attempt to avoid the negative emotion associate with a problem situation in thinking or distraction. Through strategies such as suppress, wishful thinking or distraction.

Researcher have propose that a third group of coping responses can be identified, namely perception-focus coping (Pearlin & Schooler,1978). These group can includes strategies such as positive re-appraisal, minimization or seeking meaning (Parry, 1990), and generally involve attempt to minimize the threat associated with a problem, redefining the problem or redirecting attention to a deferent aspect of the situation. The characteristic that appears to differentiate these strategies from emotion-focused and problem-focused coping is that they tend to focus on cognitions and perceptions rather than on emotions or behaviours (Holoham & Moos, 1983).

Coping research has become fairly sophisticated over recent years (Lazarus, 1993). Researchers are examining the possibility that specific types of coping strategies are most effective in response to particular situations and conditions. Although the findings are still inconclusive in relation to this goodness-of-fit hypothesis, it is generally accepted that coping skills are an asset for most people. Nevertheless, there is some evidence that negative consequences are associated with the use of maladaptive coping strategies, namely drinking and smoking, avoidance and suppression (Sulsky & Smith, 1999).

- **Inadequate Personal or Environmental Resources**

According to some research findings, access to sufficient personal or environmental resources should mediate the relationship between stressors and outcome by encouraging individuals to interpret their circumstances positively and implement successful coping strategies. However, researchers have found multiple functions for resources, suggesting that the means by which they influence outcome following stress is unclear. For instance, some

researchers have found that resource, or lack of resources, have a direct impact on outcome (Norris & Murrel, 1987). In this case, resources appear to have a 'symptomdamper' effect, in that individuals with more resources tend to experience better outcomes than those with low resources, irrespective of the existence of stress. In contrast, other researchers have found that resources act as 'stress-buffers' by eliminating the negative relationship between stress and outcome (Cohen & Edwards, 1988). The stress-buffer or moderator hypotheses suggests that resources reduce individuals' susceptibility to stress-related pathology and protect them from its deleterious impact. Thus, those with high levels of resources experience less intense reactions to stress or recover from the negative impact of stress more quickly than those with fewer resources (Stroebe, Stroebe, Abakoumkin & Schut, 1996).

Personal resources have been defined as the relatively stable characteristics that enable some individuals to resist the deleterious effects of stress and adjust effortlessly across a range of situations (Menaghen, 1983). Although the stress and adjustment literature is replete with studies demonstrating the beneficial effect of personal resources on wellbeing, the most commonly cited resource is self-esteem. Self-esteem is usually considered to reflect the extent to which individuals believe themselves to be capable, successful and worthy (Kivimaki & Kalimo, 1996). It is widely recognized that individuals who have positive beliefs about themselves and their abilities are more likely to demonstrate successful outcomes following a stressful life event than individuals who have negative beliefs (Cohen & Edwards, 1988; Holohan & Moos, 1985; Terry, 1991). Indeed, evidence has supported the important role of self-esteem as a predictor of wellbeing (Ellsworth, 1995), especially in the emotional and behavioral domains (Leary, Schreindorfer & Haupt, 1995).

However, the specific mechanism by which self-esteem is associated with positive outcomes is unclear (Greenberg, 1992). Several researchers have speculated that high self-esteem protects individuals from the threats associated with stressful events because they are more likely to seek positive information about themselves and their situation (see Kernis, Cornell, Sun, Berry & Harlow, 1993). Specifically, it has been found that individuals with high self-esteem tend to overestimate their abilities (Smith, Norrell & Saint, 1996) and can hold unrealistic views about the degree of control they have over situations (Taylor & Brown, 1988). In addition to personal resources, aspects of the environment are likely to represent valuable coping resources for individuals who are confronting major life events. In this respect, an extensive body of research has corroborated the importance of social support for psychological well being following a life crisis (see Kessler, Price, & Wortman, 1985).

Social support is defined as the existence of availability of people on whon the individual can rely and who are a source of self-validation (Sarason, Levine, Basham & Sarason, 1983). Thoits (1986) took this definition further and conceptualized social support as coping assistance because it supplements coping efforts, whether they are focused on emotions, problems or perceptions. In line with suggestion, research has found that support usually consists of three types, namely practical assistance, emotional comfort or information and advice (House, 1987). These categories of support mirror the coping styles that are most often proposed to exist (McColl, Lei & Skinner, 1995). For some time, researchers have focused on the amount of contact individuals have with their support sources and the size of their support network (Kessler, 1985).

However, considerable evidence has accumulated to suggest that unhelpful interactions or misguided attempts to be supportive can be damaging (Thoits, 1986), and that the subjective sense of being supported is more important to eventual adjustment than the actual size of the support network (e.g. Cobb & Jones, 1984). Many studies have confirmed that low levels of perceived support are related to higher levels of distress following negative events, both in the short-term (Rogers & Kreutzer, 1984) and the long-term (Hall, 1994). However, other findings relating to social support have yielded different results. For instance, in a study of people who have contracted HIV, Pakenham, Dadds and Terry (1994) found that social support did not protect individuals from the stress associated with their illness. Similarly, Rahim and Psenicka (1996) found no role for workplace social support in the prediction of psychological symptoms following work-related stress. Other researchers have suggested that excessive social .

Coping skill enhancement in the treatment of pathological addictions: The development of new skills is necessary for a person to overcome an addiction such as gambling, a sex addiction, alcohol and drug abuse, internet addiction, an addiction to food, work, or shopping.

Organisational skill enhancement training: This is utilized in organisations where employees and/or managers do not effectively respond in certain crucial situations. Organisational skills like problem solving, assertiveness, time management, relaxation responses, etc. are essential for beter functioning of any company.

2.1.20: Organisational Factors and Job Performance

Leadership Style and Worker's Performance

Leadership has been described as "a process of social influence in which one person can enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task" Chemerus

(1997). Other in-depth definitions of leadership have also emerged. Leadership is "organizing a group of people to achieve a common goal". The leader may or may not have any formal authority. Studies of leadership have produces theories involving traits, situational interaction, function, behavior, power, vision, and values, charisma, and intelligence, among others. Somebody whom people follow: somebody who guides or directs others.

A leadership style is a leader's style of providing director, implementing plans, and motivating people. It is the result of the philosophy, personality, and experience of the leader. Rhetoric specialists have also developed models for understanding leadership (Robert Hariman, *Political Style Hariman (1995)*.

Burman and Evans (2008) argue that it is 'leadership' that affects culture rather than 'management', and describe the difference. When one wants to change an aspect of the culture of an organisation one has to keep in consideration that this is a long term project. Corporate culture is something that is very hard to change and employees need time to get used to the new way of organizing. For companies with a very strong and specific culture it will be even harder to change.

Prior to a cultural change initiative, a needs assessment is needed to identify and understand the current organisational culture. This can be done through employee surveys, interviews, focus, groups, observation, and customer surveys where appropriate, and other internal research, to further identify areas that require change. The company must then assess and clearly identify the new, desired culture, and then design a change process. Cummings & Worley (2004, p. 491 – 492) give the following six guidelines for cultural change, these changed are in line with the eight distinct stages mentioned by Kotter (1995, p. 2).

Formulate a clear strategic vision (stage 1, 2 and 3). In order to make a cultural change effective a clear vision of the firm's new strategy, shared values and behaviors is needed. This vision provides the intention and director for the culture change (Cummings & Worley, 2004, p. 490).

Display top-management commitment (stage 4). It is very important to keep in mind that culture change must be managed from the top of the organisation, as willingness to change of the senior management is an important indicator (Cummings & Worley, 2004, p. 490). The top of the organisation should be very much in favour of the change in order to actually implement the change in the rest of the organisation. De Caluwe & Vermaak (2004, p. 9) provide a framework with five different ways of thinking about change.

Model culture change at the highest level (stage 5). In order to show that the management team is in favour of the change, the change has to be notable at first at this level.

The behavior of the management needs to symbolize the kinds of values and behaviours that should be realized in the rest of the company. It is important that the management shows the strengths of the current culture as well, it must be made clear that the current organisational does not need radical changes, but just a few adjustments. (See for more: Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Sathe, 1983; Schall; 1983; Weick, 1985; DiTomaso, 1987). This process may also include creating committee, employee task forces, value managers, or similar. Change agents are key in the process and key communicators of the new values. They should possess courage, flexibility, excellent interpersonal skills, knowledge of the company, and patience. As McCune (1999) puts it, these individual should be catalysts, not dictators.

Modify the organisation to support organisational change. The fourth step is to modify the organisation to support organisational change. These includes indentifying what current systems, policies, procedures and rules need to be changed in order to align with the new values and desired culture. This may include a change to accountability systems, compensation, benefits and reward structures, and recruitment and retention programs to better align with the new values and to send a clear message to employees that the old system and culture are in the past.

Select and socialize newcomers and terminate deviants (stage 7 & 8 of Kotter, 1995, p. 2). A way to implement a culture is to connect it to organisational membership, people can be selected and terminate in terms of their fit with the new culture (Cummings & Worley, 2004, p. 491). Encouraging employee motivation and loyalty to the company is key and will also result in a healthy culture. The company and change managers should be able to articulate the connections between the desired behavior and how it will impact and improve the company's success, to further encourage buy-in in the change process. Training should be provided to all employees to understand the new processes, expectations and systems.

Develop ethical and legal sensitivity. Changes in culture can lead to tensions between organisational and individual interests, which can result in ethical and legal problems for practitioners. This is particularly relevant for changes in employee integrity, control, equitable treatment and job security (Cummings & Worley, 2004, p. 491). It is also beneficial, as part of the change process, to include an evaluation process, conducted periodically to monitor the change progress and identify areas that need further development. This step will also identify obstacles of change and resistant employees and to acknowledge and reward employee improvement, which will also encourage continued change and evolvement. It may also be helpful and necessary to incorporate new change managers to refresh the process. Outside consultants may also be useful in facilitating the change process

and providing employee training. Change of culture in the organisations is very important and inevitable. Culture innovations is bound to be because it entails introducing something new and substantially different from what prevails in existing cultures. Cultural innovation is bound to be more difficult than cultural maintenance. People often resist changes hence it is the duty of the management to convince people that likely gain will outweigh the losses. Besides institutionalization, deification is another process that tends to occur in strongly developed organisational cultures. The organisation itself may come to be regarded as precious in itself, as a source of pride, and in some sense unique. Organisational members begin to feel a strong bond with it that transcends material returns given by the organisation, and they begin to identify with it. The organisation turns into a sort of clan.

Different situations call for different leadership styles. In an emergency when there s little time to converge on an agreement and where a designated authority has significantly more experience or expertise than the rest of the team, an autocratic leadership style may be most effective; however, in a highly motivated and aligned team with a homogeneous level of expertise, a more democratic or laissez-faire style may be more effective. The style adopted should be the one that most effectively achieves the objectives of the group while balancing the interests of its individual members (Lewin; Lippitt; and White 1939).

Engaging Style

Engaging as part of leadership style has been mentioned in various literature earlier. Dr. Stephen L. Cohen, the Senior Vice President for Right Management's Leadership Development Center of Excellence, has in his article Four Key Leadership Practices for Leading in Tough Times has mentioned Engagement as the fourth Key practice. He writes, "These initiatives do for the organisation is engage both leaders and employees in understanding the existing conditions and how they can collectively assist in addressing them. Reaching out to employees during difficult times to better understand their concerns and interests by openly and honestly conveying the impact of the downturn on them and their organisations can provide a solid foundation for not only engaging them but retaining them when things do turn around (http://www.linkageinc.com/agileleader/).

Autocratic or Authoritarian Style

Under the autocratic leadership style, all decision-making powers are centralized in the leader, as with dictators. Leaders do not entertain any suggestions or initiatives from subordinated. The autocratic management has been succeddful as it provides strong motivation to the manager. It permits quick decision-making, as only one person decides for

the whole group and keeps each decision to him/herself until he/she feels it needs to be shared with the rest of group Lewin, K.; Lippitt, R.; White, R.K. (1939).

Participate or democratic style

The democratic leadership style consists of the leader sharing the decision-making abilities with group members by promoting the interests of the group members and by practicing social equality. This has also been called shared leadership.

Laissez-faire or free-rein style

A person may be in a leadership position without providing leadership, leaving the group to fend for itself. Subordinates are given a free hand in deciding their own policies ad methods. The subordinates are motivated to be creative and innovative.

Toxic leadership

A toxic leader is someone who has responsibility over a group of people or an organisation, and who abuses the leader-follower relationship by leaving the group or organisation in a worse-off condition than when he/she joined it.

In the business context, leadership style can be defined as the processes used to manage to accomplish a specific objective. It includes setting a clear vision for your employees, communicating that vision to them and resolving obstacles and conflicts that may get in the way of achieving that vision. There are many different leadership styles Gomez, (2012).

Employees will be unhappy if they feel that their every move is being scrutinized and that managers tell them how to do even the simplest of tasks. On the other hand, a complete lack of direction from a hands-off manager may result in frustration. A middle-of-the-road approach, where employees feel that they have the needed director to accomplish their tasks but are also empowered to use their own judgment to determine how to go about their jobs, is likely to result in the most employee contentment. A democratic, versus an authoritarian, leadership style can also make employees feel more like valuable team members rather than fungible automatons. Happy employees will be easier to work with, but the effects of leadership style go way beyond contentment to performance. Employees who are content with their jobs as the result of an effective leadership style on their managers' part are less likely to job-hop and more likely to seek ways to grow professionally where they are by taking on new projects or displaying initiative. Increased employee retention means decreased costs in recruiting and hiring replacement employees. Plus, employees who feel appreciated and share their manager's vision are more likely to roll up their sleeves and get to

work when asked to take on additional duties or aim for increased productivity Gomez, (2012).

2.1.21: Employees' Promotion and Workers' Performance in the Civil Service

Sohrab Ahmad and Khurram Shezad (2011) did a study on the impact of compensation, promotion and performance evaluation practices on the performance of university teachers of Azad Jammu and Kashmir. Authors concluded that compensation has strong and positive impact on performance of university teachers of AJK. Compensation is the major element of influence teachers. The more teachers are compensated fairly the more they will perform better. On the other hand the performance evaluation and promotion practices were insignificant with the performance of university teachers of AJK. The reason for this is most promotion and performance evaluation procedures are vague and not properly practiced.

Baloch et al. (2010) did a study about the HRM practices in order to examine their relationship with the perceived performance of employees in private and public section banks of NWFP. Compensation, promotion and performances evaluation practices were significantly found to be correlated with employee performance. Banks are encouraged to pay proper attention to these three practices Tahir Masood Qureshi et al. (2010) did an empirical study on the impact of HRM practices on financial performance of banks which were selection, training, performance appraisal system, compensation system, career planning system and employee participation. All the practices were positively related to financial performance. But selection training, compensation and employee participation have stronger influence on financial performance of banks.

Muhammad Asif Khan (2010) empirically investifated the effects of HRM practices on organisational performance in oil and gas industry in Pakistan. He observed that recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, compensation and employee relations, all were associated with organisational performance and they do impact on organisational performance in oil and gas industry in Pakistan.

Md Zohural Islam and Sununta Sienfthai (2010) investigated the impact of recruitment and selection, performance appraisal, unionization, training and development and compensation on firm performance in Dhaka export processing zone. Authors concluded that training and development, compensation and performance appraisal all are positively correlated with firm performance where as unionization was found to be insignificantly correlated with firm performance.

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Shezad et al. (2008) did a study on impact HRM practices on perceived performance of university teachers of Pakistan. It was hypothesized that compensation, promotion and performance evaluation practices are significantly and positively related to perceived performance of university teachers of Pakistan. Compensation and promotion practices were found to be significantly correlated with perceived performance of university teachers of Pakistan. Performance evaluation practice was found to be insignificantly correlated with the performance of university teachers of Pakistan.

Mark A Huslid (1995) did a study on the impact of HRM practices on turnover, productivity and corporate financial performance. He found by investing in HR practices there will be enormous decrease in turnover. Definite increment will be observed in productivity. Also financial performance will be positively affected.

Bilal Jamil, Naintara Sarafaz Raka, (2011) concluded that promotion practices were found to be insignificantly associated with employee performance of both public and private sector organisations. There are certain reasons for it. Mostly promotions are done without following any criteria and merit. Promotional activities are unclear and vague. Results of such type of activities are often kept hidden.

Coping Skills and Worker's Performance

The role that coping plays in the stressor-symptom relationship proves to be quite complex, and the nature of this relationship appears to vary by type of coping. In this paper, we refer to two broad categories of coping strategies*/active coping (i.e. active effort to manage or control aspects of the stressful event such as problem-solving, cognitive restricting, and seeking social support) and avoidance coping (i.e. efforts to avoid the stressful situation or thinking about the stressful event). Support for conceptualizing active and avoidance coping as two higher-order dimensions of coping derives from both theoretical and empirical literature (Koeske, Kirk, & Koeske, 1993; Mullen & Suls, 1982; Scheier, Weintraub, & Carver, 1986; Tobin, Holroyd, Reynolds, & Wigal, 1989). In the case of active coping, there is substantial research, primarily cross-sectional in nature, indicating that it functions as protective factor, either through its direct positive effects on outcomes or as a moderator of the stressor-symptom relationship. In the first instance, active coping would offset the negative effects of stressors by contributing directly to decreased symptoms or improved adjustment. A number of cross-sectional analyses have demonstrated direct effects of active coping, either through a negative relationship to psychological symptoms, or a positive relationship to indices of increased adjustment (Decker & Borgen, 1993; Ingledew, 1997; Kirkcaldy, Cooper, & Brown, 1995; O'Neil & Zeincher, 1985; Parkes, 1990; Shinn,

1989; Srivastava & Singh, 1988; Work stressors, coping, social support and symptoms, Whatley, Foreman, & Richards, 1998).

One recent study (Day & Livingstone, 2001), however, found no relationship between active coping strategies and psychological symptoms, contrary to predictions. Relatively few longitudinal studies have been reported assessing the direct effects of active coping. These studies suggest that active coping may have longer-term benefits as well. Aspinwall and Taylor (1992) observed that active coping was positively related to later adjustment, and Ingledew. (1997) found that Time 1 to Time 2 change in active coping was negatively related to change over the same time period in psychological symptoms. This finding suggested a beneficial effect of active coping on well-being. Again, their use of change-change analysis limits the ability to make causal inferences about the longitudinal effects of active coping on symptoms.

In examining the direct effects of active coping, it also appears that the use of these coping strategies operates relatively independently of work stressors (i.e. active coping does not serve as an indirect or mediating pathway between stressors and symptoms). The preponderance of evidences shows that correlations between job stressors and active coping are not significant (Bhagat, 1991; Griffith, Steptoe, & Cropley, 1999; Ingledew, 1997; Parkes, 1990; Shinn et al., 1989). When significant correlations are observed (Day & Livingstone, 2001; Frone, 1991; Kirkcaldy, 1995; Nelson & Sutton, 1990), they tend to be relatively modest and are not consistently positive or negative. Many factors may contribute to the nature of this relationship. Certain stressors may not influence active coping while others may be differentially predictive of greater or lesser utilisation of this type of coping strategy.

For example, Day and Livingstone (2001) found that among four chronic work stressors assessed, role overload and role responsibilities were positively correlated with problem-focused coping, while lack of job stimulation and work-role ambiguity were negatively correlated. A weak-to-moderate negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover has been reported by some studies. High job satisfaction will not keep turnover low, but it does seem to help. On the other hand, if there is considerable job dissatisfaction, there is likely to be high turnover. Obviously, other variables are age, geographical constraints, family responsibilities, bad economic conditions, and very specialized skills, for example. Some people cannot find a new job or dare not to change a job, so they stay regardless of how dissatisfied they are.

Although employees are satisfies, some are willing to leave for better opportunities at other organisations. On the overall basis, however, it is accurate to say that job satisfaction is important to employee turnover. A low turnover rate is usually desirable to the organisation because of the recruitment and training costs and the drawbacks of inexperience (Arnold & Feldman, 1986; Green, 2000). Also, employees who are satisfied with their jobs are less likely to be absent than employees who are dissatisfied. Additionally, it is important to understand that although high job satisfaction will not necessary result in low absenteeism, low job satisfaction is more likely to increase absenteeism. Absence is influences not only by job satisfaction but also by, for example, pressure or lack of pressure to attend (Luthans, 2001).

Determinants of Job Satisfaction

Researchers have found that a number of variable are related positively to job satisfaction while other are more of an indicator of job dissatisfaction. A review of the literature indicates that most studies have focused on personal variables and work-related factors. The personal variables include factors such as age, gender, and education. The relationship between age and job satisfaction tends to be a U-shaped function where job satisfaction with younger employees is initially high and then drops for several years, and finally raises again with employees age (Waskiewicz, 1999). Older people seem to be generally more satisfied with their jobs than younger ones (Wangphanich, 1984). However, Coll and Rice (1990) found that age was not related to job satisfaction (Green, 2000). While research on the relationship between gender and job satisfaction also was unclear, Hollen and Gemmell (1976) compared job satisfaction levels of community-college male and female professors and reported males express higher levels of overall job satisfaction than females (Wangphanich, 1984).

In the study of job satisfaction of faculty members at NIDA, Sagol Jariyavidyanont (1978), found no significant differences in those faculty's job satisfaction among gender, age education and work experiences. A review of literature that included education as a variable indicates that the relationship between education and job satisfaction can be negative or positive. For example, Carrel and Elbert (1974) reported negative relationship between education and job satisfaction. They concluded that employees, who have high level of education, are dissatisfied with performing the routine tasks required in most jobs. On the contrary Quinn and Baldi de Mandilovitch (1980) concluded that there was a positive relationship between educational level and overall job satisfaction (Green, 2000). Work-related factors were also found to influence job satisfaction. The work itself plays a major

role in determining how employees are satisfied with their jobs. Employees tend to prefer challenging jobs that let them apply their abilities and skills and embody a diversity of tasks, freedom, and performance feedback (Arnold and Feldman, 1986). Locke (1976) found that the interesting and challenging of the work itself led to the higher level of job satisfaction (in Soranun, 1994). Having friendly and cooperative coworkers is a modest satisfaction. Ducharme and Martin (2000)'s findings revealed that affective coworker support significantly enhance employee job satisfaction (in DeMato, 2001). Pay could be one of the important determinants of job satisfaction because it helps fulfill so many of employee needs including their basic needs and upper-level needs.

Employees often see pay as a reflection of how management views their contribution to the organisation (Luthans, 2001). Also, fringe benefits contribute to job satisfaction but would not be as influential as pay. Derlin and Schneider (1994) stated that researchers in some studies have concluded that pay and fringe benefits are an important variable to be considered in the study of job satisfaction (in Waskiewicz, 1999). Opportunity for advancement seems to have a varying effect on job satisfaction. This is because opportunity for advancement takes a number of forms and has a variety of accompanying rewards (Luthans, 2001). A positive environment and opportunities to grow intellectually and broaden their skill base has become more important than traditional promotion opportunities. Employees who are given opportunities to learn to widen their knowledge and improve their skills are more satisfied with their jobs (Waskiewicz, 1999; Luthans, 2001). Styles and quality of supervision also play an important role on job satisfaction. A number of research indicated that employee's attitude was directly related to the quality of supervision provided to them (i.e. DeMato, 2001). In terms to organisational communication, Brunetto (2002) found that there is a positive relationship between the satisfaction with organisational communication and employee commitment.

2.1.22: Financial Situations and Worker's Performance in the Civil Service

Personal finance in America is an important issue today. Financial matters are related to individual, family, and work life. Work outcomes reflect worker's attitudes, behavior, and performance at the workplace. Job performance, worker productivity, tardiness, absenteeism, retention, turnover, work commitment job satisfaction, morale, and loyalty are human satisfaction indicators of employee outcomes at workplaces (Benton, 1998; Family and Work Institute, 1997; Robbins, 1998).

Workers' personal finances are related to work outcomes. Problems in workers' lives affect their psychological states and behavior at work (Family and Work Institute, 1997).

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Financial concerns spill over into workers' responsibility at the workplace. Brown (1993) suggested that 10% of all employees experience financial difficulties, which, in turn, affect their workplace productivity. Garman, Leech, and Grable (1996) estimated that around 15% of the workers in the United States are experiencing personal financial stress that impacts their productivity. Joo (1998) found that a higher level of financial well-being was associated with higher performance ratings, less absenteeism, and less work time loss. This study focuses on the relationships between financial satisfaction, personal finance-work conflict, and work outcome measures, which include productivity, organisational commitment and pay satisfaction.

Financial satisfaction is satisfaction with personal finance. Porter (1990) defined perceived attributes as "an individual's subjective evaluation of his/her own financial situation." She used satisfaction with income, level of living, net worth, general financial management, cash management, credit management, risk management, capital accumulation, and retirement/estate management for perceived indicators of financial well-being. Hira (1986) studied financial satisfaction level among 201 money. The domains established for her study were satisfaction with money management practices, level of living, level of saving, ability to stay out of debt, ability to pay back money owed, level of assets, willingness to discuss money matters, and ability to meet large emergency expenses. Scannell (1990) analyzed satisfaction with present standard of living, emergency savings, past investments and savings, and general financial situation presently, in 5 years, last year, and next year. Households who used financial management practices had higher satisfaction with their financial situation.

Personal finance-work conflict is the extent to which personal financial concerns interfere with a worker's workplace responsibility. Since a worker is a personal financial manager, work and personal finance are interrelated. Personal finance interferes with work and work interferes with personal finance. Examining the relationship between personal finance and work, previous studies relied on the stain-based conflict, and examined the relationship between financial concerns and work outcomes. Financial stress from mismanagement spills over into workers' performance at workplace. Financial problems are the second most important source of employee stress (Cash, 1996). Williams, Haldeman & Cramer (1996) argued that there is a direct relationship between financial problems and productivity. They stressed the indirect effect of personal finance concern on potential turnover. Cash (1996) found a positive relationship between stress level and absenteeism. In spite of these studies, there is little research on how much financial concerns influence

workplace behaviours. Joo (1998) found that the level of financial well-being was negatively related to worker's productivity. Orthner and Pittman (1988) found that worker's income adequacy is related to work commitment.

Few studies asses the extent to which how much workers feel their financial concerns interfere with their work life. Since workers manage their personal finance at home as well as at the workplace, personal finances interfere with work as well as work interferes with personal finances.

2.1.23: Personal Problems and Workers' Performance in the Civil Service

Workers problems are a stumbling block to attaining peak performance in the workplace. Problems hinder employees from translating their latent potentials into results. The ability to deliver to expectations is partly determined by employees' state of personal well-being. When confronted with problems, workers tend to experience frustrations, get demoralized, stressed and lose confidence in their work performance. This eventually transforms into poor performance. In a bid to keep workers more effective and efficient, the management should develop a culture of solving their problems. Work –related and personal problems form the main bottlenecks in achieving remarkable performance. Perhaps, personal problem are sometimes left out when dealing with problem solving. When this happens, a loophole is created, which in turn impairs employees from achieving the desired results. What happens is that, before the management realizes that the root cause of poor performance is the personal problems within the workforce is when the performance of workers continues to deteriorate despite solving the work-related problems.

Notably, all employees do not experience personal problems at the same time. And only a small number of workers may be experiencing these problems in any particular time. Therefore, this calls for an intensive evaluation and appraisal of every employee's performance. It also requires intellectual and intuitive skills to influence the employees to admit and disclose that they are indeed being faced with personal issues that conceivably contribute to their poor performance in the workplace. A cohesive and articulate interaction of the managers with the employees is required to establish these constraints. In fact, a manager who lacks people's skills may fail to establish these problems.

It must be emphasized that workers tend to keep within themselves issues that they consider as personal no matter how harmful they may be to their workplace well-being. For instance, family wrangles affect the workers ability to concentrate on their duty performance. The employees become stressed to the point of recording poor performance but restrain from disclosing these issue to the other workmates.

Although it may seem less important to focus on personal issues, it must be agreed that these problems significantly contribute to employees' under-performance. Therefore, emphasis must be place on these personal issues. When handling employees' problems, a holistic approach is called for. This is what is termed as creative problem solving. It entails reading between the lines to identify workers problems and provide solutions amicably.

When employees realize that their managers are concerned with their personal problems, they gain more confidence and encouragement. This enable them develop a sense of responsibility, self-initiation and dedication in their duty performance. A mutual bond is developed between the employees and the managers as this is critically essential for the business success.

Employees on the other hand should acknowledge that they have problems that need to be settled. They should share these issues with their co-workers. It's said that a problem shares is a problem half-solved. Surprisingly, people tend to shy off from disclosing their personal issues and this is out of ignorance. An employee who informs the other workers of a particular burning issue may find sympathy, support and assistance in overcoming the mishap. Employees in the workplace live as a family and they would not like to see their counterparts going through difficult times when they could actually give a helping hand.

2.1.24: Coping Skills and Workers' Performance in the Civil Service

The role that coping plays in the stressor-symptom relationship proves to be quite complex, and the nature of this relationship appears to vary by type of coping. In this paper, we refer to two broad categories of coping strategies*/active coping (i.e. active effort to manage or control aspects of the stressful event such as problem-solving, cognitive restricting, and seeking social support) and avoidance coping (i.e. efforts to avoid the stressful situation or thinking about the stressful event). Support for conceptualizing active and avoidance coping as two higher-order dimensions of coping derives from both theoretical and empirical literature (Koeske, Kirk, & Koeske, 1993; Mullen & Suls, 1982; Scheier, Weintraub, & Carver, 1986; Tobin, Holroyd, Reynolds, & Wigal, 1989). In the case of active coping, there is substantial research, primarily cross-sectional in nature, indicating that it functions as protective factor, either through its direct positive effects on outcomes or as a moderator of the stressor-symptom relationship. In the first instance, active coping would offset the negative effects of stressors by contributing directly to decreased symptoms or improved adjustment. A number of cross-sectional analyses have demonstrated direct effects of active coping, either through a negative relationship to psychological symptoms, or a positive relationship to indices of increased adjustment (Decker & Borgen, 1993; Ingledew,

1997; Kirkcaldy, Cooper, & Brown, 1995; O'Neil & Zeincher, 1985; Parkes, 1990; Shinn, 1989; Srivastava & Singh, 1988; Work stressors, coping, social support and symptoms, Whatley, Foreman, & Richards, 1998). One recent study (Day & Livingstone, 2001), however, found no relationship between active coping strategies and psychological symptoms, contrary to predictions.

Relatively few longitudinal studies have been reported assessing the direct effects of active coping. These studies suggest that active coping may have longer-term benefits as well. Aspinwall and Taylor (1992) observed that active coping was positively related to later adjustment, and Ingledew et al. (1997) found that Time 1 to Time 2 change in active coping was negatively related to change over the same time period in psychological symptoms. This finding suggested a beneficial effect of active coping on well-being. Again, their use of change-change analysis limits the ability to make causal inferences about the longitudinal effects of active coping on symptoms.

In examining the direct effects of active coping, it also appears that the use of these coping strategies operates relatively independently of work stressors (i.e. active coping does not serve as an indirect or mediating pathway between stressors and symptoms). The preponderance of evidences shows that correlations between job stressors and active coping are not significant (Bhagat, 1991; Griffith, Steptoe, & Cropley, 1999; Ingledew, 1997; Parkes, 1990; Shinn, 1989). When significant correlations are observed (Day & Livingstone, 2001; Frone, 1991; Kirkcaldy, 1995; Nelson & Sutton, 1990), they tend to be relatively modest and are not consistently positive or negative. Many factors may contribute to the nature of this relationship. Certain stressors may not influence active coping while others may be differentially predictive of greater or lesser utilisation of this type of coping strategy. For example, Day and Livingstone (2001) found that among four chronic work stressors assessed, role overload and role responsibilities were positively correlated with problem-focused coping, while lack of job stimulation and work-role ambiguity were negatively correlated with it. The second mechanism, involving active coping as a moderator of the effect of stressors on outcomes, would be operative if the beneficial effects of active coping strategies were observed a Stress/Coping interaction in which those individuals making greater use of active coping strategies would show fewer symptoms in high stress situations than those making less use of active coping. Under conditions of low stress, differences in the use of active coping would not affect symptoms (Wheatonm 1985). Findings in this area are mixed. In some instance, the moderating effects of active coping are not observed (Day & Livingstone, 2001; Frone, 1991; Kirkcaldy, 1995; Tyler & Cushway, 1995).

Satisfied with their job (Waskiewiez, 1990; Luthans, 2001).styles and quality of supervision also play an important role on job satisfaction. a number of research indicated that employees attitude is directly related to the quality of supervision provided to them (i.e Demato, 2001)in term of organisation communication .Brunetto (2002) found that there is a positive relationship between the satisfaction with organisation communication and employee commitment.

2.1.25: Financial Situation and Workers Performance

These study focus on the relationship between the financial satisfaction, personal finance work conflict, and work out come measure, which include productivity, organisational commitment, and pay satisfaction .the data in the research were connected in the February and March 1999 from an insurance company in Wisconsin. a total of 626 questionnaires were used in the data analysis, significant relationship were found between financial satisfaction, personal finance –work conflict, organisation commitment and pay satisfaction .this study support the motion that workplace finance education can help workers handle their personal finances better and improve their financial satisfaction, and that the employer can benefit from the workplace financial education by having more satisfied and committed workers.

Personal finance in America is an important issue today .financial matter are related to individual, family and work life .work outcome reflect worker attitudes, behaviours, and performance at the workplace job performance, worker productivity ,tardiness, absenteeism ,retention, turnover, work commitment job satisfaction moral and loyalty ,human satisfaction indicator of employee outcome at work-places (Benton, 1998; Family and work institute, 1997; Robins, 1998).

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2.1.26: Personal Problem and Workers Performance

Workers problem are a stumbling block to attaining peak performance in the work place problem hinder employees from translating their latent potentials into results. The ability to deliver to expectations is partly determined by employee's state of well-being. when confronted with problems worker tend to experience frustrations get demoralised, stressed

and loss confidence. This eventually transform into poor performance in a bid to keep workers more effective and efficient the management should develop a culture of solving their problem work related and personal problem from the main bottleneck in achieving remarkable performance. Perhaps, personal problem are sometimes left out when dealing with problem solving .when this happens. A loophole is created, which is turn impairs employee from achieving the desired result. What happen is that before the management realized the root cause of poor performance is the personal problem, damage had already been done. One way to identify if there are personal problem within the work force is when the performance of workers continue to deteriorate despite solving the work related problems Notably, all employees do not experience personal problem at the same time. And only a small number of workers may be experience those problem in any particular time .therefore, this call for an intensive evaluation and appraisal of every employee's performance. it also required intellectual and skills to influence employees to admit and disclose that they are indeed being faced with personal issue that conceivably contribute to their to their poor performance in the work-place.

A cohesive and articulate interaction of the management with the employees is required to established these problems. Relationship between the main stress-related hazards, the organisational and individual symptoms, and the outcomes will be discuss. One of the hazards, culture, has since been subsumed into the other six hazards. Thus culture is seen to influence or be a part of the six main hazards.

- **Demands:** Includes exposure to issues such as workload, work patterns and work environment (for example volume and complexity of work, shift work unrealistic deadlines);

- **Control:** how much say and involvement the person has in the way they do their work (for example control balanced against demands, lack of autonomy, too much supervision);

- **Support:** Includes the encouragement, sponsorship and resources provided by the organisation, line management and colleagues (for example training for core functions of job; catering for individual differences);

- **Relationships**: Includes promoting positive working to avoid conflict and dealing with unacceptable behavior (for example bullying and harassment, conflicts); Role: refers to whether people understand their role within the organisation and whether the

organisation ensures that they do not have conflicting roles (for example conflicting roles avoided, vague job descriptions);

- **Change:** How the organisational change (large or small) is managed and communicated in the organisation (for example staff understanding why change is necessary, little or no communication to staff, redundancy fears). The model does not expect any organisation to meet all the standards in its first attempt. They are goals that employers should be working towards as part of their on going process to guide against work-related stress. For the most part, people view stress as negative factor. Stress however is only negative when it is excessive, unmanaged and results in adverse symptoms and experiences. Some of the negative consequences include;

- Feeling anxious, irritable, or depressed   - Muscle tension or headaches
- Apathy, loss of interest in work or other   - Stomach problems

Activities

- Problems sleeping   - Social withdrawals
- Fatigue   - Loss of sex drive
- Trouble concentrating   - Using alcohol or drugs to cope

It is clear that with these systems the individual's performance at work, home and in social settings will be adversely affected. Negative stress seems to have a self-building facet where once stressed, additional factors just keep contributing to the stress and increase the stress levels while decreasing performance and functioning. Even the economy will be affected. Day and Livingstone (2001) examined avoidance coping interactions with both acute and chronic work stressors in separate regression models. In both instances, the interaction terms failed to explain a significant increase in the variance in symptoms.

2.1.27: Social Support

Social support is a significant feature of an individual's social environment and varying levels of support will be perceived as available to the individual in times of need. Recent attention has turned to examining the role of social support in the stress process in two ways. The first has been to reconceptualize social support as coping assistance (Thoits, 1986). In this view, the coping methods utilised by an individual in response to stressors are seen as the same methods utilised by others to assist that individual. For example, problem-solving coping on the part of the individual and instrumental support from others are both aimed at modifying or managing the stressful situation. If this is the case, social support should enhance the utilisation of active coping by an individual when confronted with stressful

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circumstances. In a test of Thoits' proposal that that coping mediates the relationship between social support and adjustment to stress Terry, Rawle, and Callan (1997) examined this model in two contexts work stress and women's adjustment to birth of a first child.

Results were consistent with the model in both instances. The effects of colleague support on adjustment to work stressors in the first study, and the effects of partner support on adjustment to childbirth in the second study, were mediated through copying responses.

Social support had no direct relationship to adjustment in either case. A limitation of these two studies, however, was that baseline adjustment was not controlled in predicting later adjustment. Other studies provide evidence of a relationship between social support and active coping responses. In Ingledew (1997), change in social support from Time 1 to Time 2 was positively related to change in active coping. In a longitudinal study of manufacturing plant employees (Heanye, House, Israel, & Mero, 1997), supportive work relationships were found to positively influence subsequent active coping behavior.

There appears to be no evidence in the literature that social support is related to avoidance coping. A second way that social support may operate in the stress process is to reduce the perception or experience of work stressors and, therefore, indirectly reduce the likelihood of negative outcomes such as psychological symptoms. Just as active coping may serve to mediate the effects of social support on symptoms, work stressors may also operate as another mediating pathway. Support for this hypothesis is found in several cross-sectional studies in which greater perceived social support was related to lower levels of reported word stressors (Griffin, 1999; Jayaratne, Himle, & Chess, 1988; Kumari & Sharma, 1990; Pompe & Heus, 1993). Moreover, in a study of female nurses, work-non work conflict was shown to mediate the relationship between supervisors support and psychological symptoms (Pisarski, 1998). No longitudinal studies assessing the meditational role of work stressors in the relationship of social support to symptoms were found.

Overall, then, from these two lines of research, there is a basis to conceptualize social support as an important contextual variable that influences the individual's utilisation of work stressors, coping, social support and symptoms 245 active coping strategies and their perceptions of work stressors. Unlike previous research, the current study assessed that the effect of social support on psychological symptoms would be mediated by both active coping and work stressors.

There are generally four parts of effect training in specific skill enhancement: assessment, skills program construction and selection, implementation, and feedback/evaluation. Examples of areas of focus in skill coping are details below:

- **Social skills and competence:** A person's ability to develop and maintain appropriate social skills and social relationships with family, friends, peers, lovers, colleagues, authority figures, etc., is critical in being able to live a happy, productive and successful life. Social skills are defined as specific strategies used by an individual to perform social tasks effectively and thus be socially successful and socially competent. They can be seen as falling into one of 2 categories: (a) environmental social skills which are essential to perform tasks in both an educational setting and the work place, such as listening, following instructions, and appropriate work habits; (b) social interaction skills that facilitate any positive social interaction, such as starting and maintaining a conversation, complementing others, and resolving conflict.

- **Non-verbal communication:** non-verbal communication can occur through sight, sound, smell touch or taste. Non verbal communication can be conscious and purposeful or unconscious. Also, non-verbal comes in many forms at the same time. For example, a person's dress, tone of voice, attitude, and movement all contribute to the communication going on in a certain situation. It can be very helpful to understand the importance of non-verbal communication and to modify those aspects of your non-verbal communication skills which may be problematic.

- General academic skill competence: A person can develop problems that interfere with their ability to learn specific information in an academic or occupational setting.

- The development of new skills is necessary for a person to overcome an addiction such as gambling, a sex addiction, alcohol and drug abuse, internet addiction, an addiction to food, work, or shopping.

- **Organisational skill enhancement training:** This is utilized in organisations where employees and/or managers do not effectively respond in certain crucial situations. Organisational skills like problem solving, assertiveness, time management, relaxation responses, etc., are essential for better functioning of any company.

- Skill enhancement in handling stress: The term stress refers to the pressures placed on individuals and to the physical and mental consequences of those pressures. Numerous common health problems are linked to stress including heart disease, cancer, lung ailments, accidents, suicide, eating disorders, and many other health related problems. Stress affects individuals, his or her home and family life, and the person's workplace.

Financial Difficulties and Workers' Performance

Financial problems affect people in various walks of life. Not only is the family life effected but financial problems affect productivity in the job market also. A worker with financial problems experiences lack of concentration resulting in poor quality or quantity of work, fatigue due to stress, becomes more accident prone and exhibits higher grievance rates (Bailey, 1986). Lower output and the tendency to default require companies to spend more in the way of transactions, benefit cost, and medical cost.

Estimates of the effects of financial problems have been based on records of the numbers of people in the workforce who have sought employee counseling, and the percentage of these who had financial problems. Brown (1993) suggests that 10% is a conservative estimate of the proportion of employees in the workplace with financial difficulties affecting productivity. This estimate comes from a company providing well above national average pay and benefits. Another research report was that personal financial problems affected nearly one-third of American's corporate workforce performance (Financial Service Study, 1988).

The relative importance of financial problems contributing to lowered productivity can be documented by its rank with other problems of those who seek counseling. The disentanglement of financial of problems from other problems is difficult. One such report of those who had problems with alcohol or drug affecting productivity, related problems were financial – 35%, legal – 55%, worker compensation claims – 12%, and accident or sickness claims – 14% (Brown, 1993).

Absenteeism of work place behavior has revealed that financial problems are increasing due to more single parent households, divorce, second marriages, more one income households due to corporate downsizing, other downsizing, over-spending, addictions, and not enough money (Tagtmeier, 1992). Focus groups of employees indicate that about 13% report financial problems as a primary issue and 20% report them as secondary issues resulting from other problems.

Financial concerns and employer's way of dealing with them have changed over the last two decades (Lecky-Thompson, 199). Whereas twenty years ago, employees were expected to leave their problems outside the workplace, now employee assistance programs help with a variety of difficulties. Financial concerns ''are assuming greater proportions'' and are multifaceted. Whereas eight years ago, the concern was a simple issue that worried an employee, a higher percentage have multiple problems. These problems, according to

Richard Hopkins, president of the Employee Assistance Professionals Association, can be distinguished among types. They involve work

Overall, several studies are conducted on the relationship between demographic variables and burnout. For example, there are various studies on the relationship between demographic variables and burnout among nurses and teachers (Schaufelli et al., 2009). Researchers like Cordes and Dougherty (1997) report that the rate of burnout among married employees is less than single ones, and researchers such as Jackson (1993) have found significant differences among employees' burnout in terms of gender, age and marital status. There are also researchers who have not reported a significant relationship between demographic variables and burnout (Dillon & Tanner, 1995; Friedman & Faber, 1992). Overall, a kind of remarkable disharmony is seen regarding the relations between demographic variables and burnout in academic researches. If resolvable, it could help HR professionals devising more objective preventive plans to reduce job burnout (Brewer & Shapard, 2004).

Preliminary researches show that burnout consequences can emerge in various types such as commitment mitigation, increase in absenteeism and turnover, productivity decrease, morale reduction, and decrease in human consideration (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Maslach & Pines, 1977; Maslach, 1978). Maslach (2001) expound burnout consequences in two job performance and health aspects. In terms of job performance, burnout accompanies with job withdrawal, absenteeism, intention to leave and turnover. Those people who keep their work despite of their burnout are facing with productivity and effectiveness decrease. Accordingly, burnout accompanies with job satisfaction decrease as well as job or organisational commitment mitigation. In terms of health, burnout can cause mental dysfunctions which lead into anxiety, depression and self-esteem decrease.

Job Satisfaction and Workers Performance in the Civil Service

Hoppoks (1935) define job satisfaction as "any combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that causes a person truthfully to say, "I am satisfied with my job" (Green 2000) for in Ancevich and Donnelly (1968), job satisfaction was "the favorable viewpoint of the worker towards the work role he presently occupies" (DeMato, 2001) Smith, Kendall, and Hulim (1969) said job satisfaction was "feeling, or affective response to facets of the situation" (Stress, Porter; & Bigley, 1996). Although there was no consensus on way of defining job satisfaction, job satisfaction generally was considered to be an employee' attitude about his or her job based on factors presents in the work environment. In other words, job satisfaction was a result of employee's perception of

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how well his/her job provides those things that were viewed as important. Employees' behaviour would be expected to influence organisational operations and performances according to the employees' degree of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction. A strong relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment has been found over the years (Carrell, Jennings, & Heavrin, 1997), while individual job dissatisfaction results in behaviours detrimental to the organisation such as absenteeism, turnover, tardiness, strikes and accidents (Rue & Byars, 1999). A weak-to-moderate negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover low, but it does seem to help. On the other hand, if there is a considerable job dissatisfaction, there is likely to be high turnover. Obviously, other variables influence employee's decision to quit besides job satisfaction. Those variables are age, geographical constraints, family responsibilities, bad economic conditions, and very specialized skills for example. Some people cannot find a new job or dare not to change a job, so they stay regardless of how dissatisfied they are. Although employees are satisfied, some are willing to leave for better opportunities at other organisations. On the overall basis, however, it is accurate to say that job satisfaction is important to employee turnover. A low turnover rate is usually desirable to the organisation because of the recruitment and training costs and the drawbacks of inexperience (Arnold & Feldman, 1986; Green, 2000). Also, employees who are satisfied with their jobs are less likely to be absent than employees who are dissatisfied. Additionally, it is important to understand that although high job satisfaction will not necessary result in low absenteeism, low job satisfaction is more likely to increase absenteeism. Absence is influenced not only by job satisfaction but also by, for example, pressure or lack of pressure to attend (Luthans, 2001).

Researchers have found that a number of variables are related positively to job satisfaction while others are more of an indicator of job dissatisfaction. A review of the literature indicates that most studies have focused on personal variables and work-related factors. The personal variables include factors such as age, gender, and education. The relationship between age and job satisfaction tends to be a U-shaped function where job satisfaction with younger employees is initially high and then drops for several years, and finally raises again with employees age (Waskewicz, 1999). Older people seem to be generally more satisfied with their jobs than younger ones (Wangphanich, 1984). However, Coll and Rice (1990) found that age was not related to job satisfaction (Green, 2000). While research on the relationship between gender and job satisfaction also was unclear. Hollen and Gemmell (1976) compared job satisfaction levels of community-college male and female professors and reported males express higher levels of overall job satisfaction than

females (Wangphanich, 1984). In the study of job satisfaction of faculty members at NIDA, Jariyavidyanont (1978), found no significant differences in those faculty's job satisfaction among gender, age, education, and work experiences. A review of literature that included education as a variable indicates that the relationship between education and job satisfaction can be negative or positive. For example, Carrel and Elbert (1974) reported negative relationship between education and job satisfaction. They concluded that employees, who have high level of education, are dissatisfied with performing the routine tasks required in most jobs. On the contrary, Quinn and Baldi de Mandilovitch (1980) concluded that there was a positive relationship between educational level and overall job satisfaction (Green, 2000). Work-related factors were also found to influence job satisfaction. The work itself plays a major role in determining how employees are satisfied with their jobs. Employees tend to prefer challenging jobs that let them apply their abilities and skills and embody a diversity of tasks, freedom, and performance feedback (Arnold & Feldman, 1986). Locke (1976) found that the interesting and challenging of the work itself led to the higher level of job satisfaction (Soranun, 1994). Having friendly and cooperative co-workers is a modest source of job satisfaction. Ducharme and Martin (2000)'s findings revealed that affective co-worker support significantly enhance employee job satisfaction (DeMato, 2001). Pay could be one of the important determinants of job satisfaction because it helps fulfill so many of employee needs including their basic needs and upper-level needs. Employees often see pay as a reflection of how management views their contribution to the organisation (Luthans, 2001). Also, fringe benefits contribute to job satisfaction, but would not be as influential as pay. Derlin and Schneider (1994) stated that researchers in some studies have concluded that pay and fringe benefits are an important variable to be considered in the study of job satisfaction (in Waskiewicz, 1999). Opportunity for advancement seems to have a varying effect on job satisfaction. This is because opportunity for advancement takes a number of forms and has a variety of accompanying rewards (Luthans, 2001). A positive environment and opportunities to grow intellectually and broaden their skill base has become more important than traditional promotion opportunities. Employees who are given opportunities to learn to widen their knowledge and improve their skills are more satisfied with their jobs (Wasciewics, 1999; Luthans, 2001). Styles and quality of supervision also play an important role on job satisfaction. A number of research indicated that employees' attitude was directly related to the quality of supervision provided to them (DeMato, 2001). In terms of organisational communication, Brunetto (2002) found that there is a positive relationship between the satisfaction with organisational communication and employee commitment.

Financial Situations and Workers' Performance in the Civil Service

Personal finance in America is an important issue today. Financial matters are related to individual, family, and work life. Work outcomes reflect worker's attitudes, behaviour, and performance at the workplace. Job performance, worker productivity, tardiness, absenteeism, retention, turnover, work commitment, job satisfaction, morale, and loyalty are human satisfaction indicators of employee outcomes at workplaces (Benton, 1998; Family and Work Institute, 1997; Robbins, 1998).

Workers' personal finances are related to work outcomes. Problems in workers' lives affect their psychological states and behaviour at work (Family and Work Institute, 1997). Financial concerns spill over into workers' responsibility at the workplace. Brown (1993) suggested that 10% of all employees experience financial difficulties, which, in turn, affect their workplace productivity. Garman, Leech, and Grable (1996) estimated that around 15% of the workers in the United States are experiencing personal financial stress that impact their productivity. Joo (1998) found that a higher level of financial well-being was associated with higher performance ratings, less absenteeism, and less work time loss.

This study focuses on the relationships between financial satisfaction, personal finance-work conflict and work outcome measures, which include productivity, organisational commitment, and pay satisfaction. Financial satisfaction is satisfaction with personal finance. Porter (1990) defined perceived attributes as "an individual's subjective evaluation of his/her own financial situation." She used satisfaction with income, level of living, net worth, general financial management, cash management, credit management, risk management, capital accumulation, and retirement/estate management for perceived indicators of financial well-being. Hira (1986) studied financial satisfaction level among 201 money. The domain established for her study were satisfaction with money management practices, level of living, level of savings, ability8 to stay out of debt, ability to pay back money owed, level of assets, willingness to discuss money matters, and ability to meet large emergency expenses. Scannell (1990) analyzed satisfaction with present standard of living, emergency savings, past investments and savings, and general financial situation presently, in 5 years, last year, and next year. Households who used financial management practices had higher satisfaction with their financial situation.

Personal finance-work conflict is the extent to which personal financial concerns interfere with a worker's workplace responsibility. Since a worker is a personal financial manager, work and personal finances are interrelated. Personal finance interferes with work and work interferes with personal finance.

Examining the relationship between personal finance and work, previous studies relied on the strain-based conflict, and examined the relationship between financial concerns and work outcomes. Financial stress from mis-management spills over into workers' performance at workplace. Financial problems are the second most important source of employee stress (Cash, 1996). Williams, Haldemann and Cramer (1996) argued that there is a direct relationship between financial problems and productivity. They stressed the indirect effect of personal finance concern on potential turnover. Cash (1996) found a positive relationship between stress level and absenteeism. In spite of these studies, there is little research on how much financial concerns influence workplace behaviours. Joo (1998) found that the level of financial well-being was negatively related to worker's productivity. Orthner and Pittman (1988) found that worker's income adequacy is related to work commitment.

Few studies assess the extent to which how much workers feel their financial concerns interfere with their work life. Since workers manage their personal finance at home as well as at the workplace, personal finances interfere with work as well as work interferes with personal finances.

Personal Problems and Workers' Performance in the Civil Service

Workers problems are a stumbling block to attaining peak performance in the workplace. Problems hinder employees from translating their latent potentials into results. The ability to deliver to expectations is partly determined by employees' state of personal well-being. When confronted with problems, workers tend to experience frustrations, get demoralized, stressed and loose confidence in their work performance. This eventually transforms into poor performance. In a bid to keep workers more effective and efficient, the management should develop a culture of solving their problems. Work-related and personal problems form the main bottlenecks in achieving remarkable performance. Perhaps, personal problem are sometimes left out when dealing with problem solving. When this happens, a loophole is created, which in turn impairs employees from achieving the desired results. What happen is that, before the management realizes that the root cause of poor performance is the personal problems, damage has already been done. One way to identify if there are personal problems within the workforce is when the performance of workers continues to deteriorate despite solving the work-related problems.

Notably, all employees do not experience personal problems at the same time. And only small number of workers may be experiencing these problems in any particular time. Therefore, this calls for an intensive evaluation and appraisal of every employee's performance. It also requires intellectual and intuitive skills to influence the employees to

admit and disclose that they are indeed being faced with personal issues that conceivably contribute to their poor performance in the workplace. A cohesive and articulate interaction of the managers with the employees is required to establish these constraints. In fact, a manager who lacks people's skills may fail to establish these problems.

It must be emphasized that workers tend to keep within themselves issues that they consider as personal no matter how harmful they may be to their workplace well-being. For instance, family wrangles affect the workers ability to concentrate on their duty performance. The employees become stressed to the point of recording poor performance but restrain from disclosing these issues to the other workmates.

Although it may seem less important to focus on personal issues, it must be agreed that these problems significantly contribute to employees' under-performance. Therefore, emphasis must be placed on these personal issues. When handling employees' problems, a holistic approach is called for. This is what is termed as creative problem solving. It entails reading between the lines to identify workers problems and provide solutions amicably.

When employees realize that their managers are concerned with their personal problems, they gain more confidence and encouragement. The enable them develop a sense of responsibility, self-initiation and dedication in their duty performance. A mutual bond is developed between the employees and the managers as this is critically essential for the business success.

Employees on the other hand should acknowledge that they have problems that need to be settled. They should share these issues with their co-workers. It's said that a problem shared is a problem self-solved. Surprisingly, people tend to shy off from disclosing their personal issues and this is out of ignorance. An employee who informs the other workers of a particular burning issue may find sympathy, support and assistance in overcoming the mishap. Employees in the workplace live as a family and they would not like to see their counterparts going through difficult times when they could actually give a helping hand.

Coping Skills and Workers' Performance in the Civil Service

The role that coping plays in the stressor-symptom relationship proves to be quite complex, and the nature of this relationship appears to vary by type of coping. In this paper, we refer to two broad categories of coping strategies/active coping (i.e. active efforts to manage or control aspect of the stressful event such as problem-solving, cognitive restructuring, and seeking social support) and avoidance coping (i.e. efforts to avoid the stressful situation or thinking about the stressful event). Support for conceptualizing active and avoidance coping as two higher-order dimensions of coping derives from both theoretical

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and empirical literature (Koeske,Kirk, & Koeske,1993; Mullen & Suls, 1982; Sceier, Weintraub, & Carver, 1986; Tobin, Holroyd, Reynolds & Wigal, 1989). In the case of active coping, there is substantial research, primarily cross-sectional in nature, indicating that it functions as a protective factor, either through its direct positive effects on outcomes or as a protective factor, either through its direct positive effects on outcomes or as a moderator of the stressor-symptom relationship. In the first instance, active coping would offset the negative effects of stressors by contributing directly to decreased symptoms or improved adjustment. A number of cross-sectional analyses have demonstrated direct effects of active coping, either through a negative relationship to psychological symptoms, or a positive relationship to indices of increased adjustment (Decker & Borgen, 1993; Ingledew, 1997; Kirkcaldy, Cooper & Brown, 1995; O'Neill & Zeichner, 1985; Parkes, 1990; Shinn, 1989; Srivastava & Singh, 1988).

One recent study (Day & Livingstone, 2001), however, found no relationship between active coping strategies and psychological symptoms, contrary to predictions. Relatively few longitudinal studies have been reported assessing the direct effects of active coping. These studies suggest that active coping may have longer-term benefits as well. Aspinwall and Taylor (1992) observed that active coping was positively related to change over the same time period in psychological symptoms. This finding suggested a beneficial effect of active coping on well-being. Again, their use of change-change analysis limits the ability to make causal inferences about the longitudinal effects of active coping on symptoms.

In examining the direct effects to active coping, it also appears that the use of these coping strategies operates relatively independently of work stressors (i.e. active coping does not serve as an indirect or mediating pathway between stressors and symptoms). The preponderance of evidence shows that correlations between job stressors and active coping are not significant (Bhagat, 1991; Griffith, Steptoe, & Cropley, 1999; Ingledew, 1997; Parkes, 1990; Shinn, 1989).When significant correlations are observed (Day & Livingstone, 2001; Frone, 1991; Kircaldy et al., 1995; Nelson & Sutton, 1990), they tend to be relatively modest and are not consistently positive or negative. Many factors may contribute to the nature of this relationship.

Certain stressors may not influence active coping while others may be differentially predictive of greater or lesser utilisation of this type of coping strategy. For example, Day and Livingstone (2001) found that among four chronic work stressors assessed, role overload and role responsibilities were positively correlated with problem-focused coping, while lack

of job stimulation and work-role ambiguity were negatively correlated with it. The second mechanism, involving active cooping as a moderator of the effect of stressors on outcomes, would be operative if the beneficial effects of active coping strategies were observed only under certain conditions of stress but not others. In these instances, one would observe a Stress/Coping interaction in which those individuals making greater use of active coping strategies would show fewer symptoms in high stress situations than those making less use of active coping. Under conditions of low stress, differences in the use of active coping would not affect symptoms (Wheaton, 1985).

Findings in this area are mixed. In some instances, the moderating effects of active coping are not observed (Day & Livingstone, 2001; Frone & Kirkcaldy, 1995; Tyler & Cushway, 1995), while other studies have found that the use of these strategies can serve to moderate the stressor symptom relationship (Bhagar, 1991; Felsten, 1998; Greenglass & Burke, 1991; Koeske, 1993; Parkes, 1990). Only the study by Koeske (1993) is of a longitudinal nature.

In contrast, several studies indicate that avoidance coping may serve to mediate the effects of stressors on symptoms. First, higher stressor levels are positively related to increased use of avoidance coping strategies (Ingledew, 1997; Koeske,1993; Shinn ,1989). Second, there is also strong and consistent evidence from both cross sectional (Day & Livingstone, 2001; Felsten, 1998; O'Neill & Zeichner, 1985; Pisarski, Bohle & Callan, 1998; Srivastava & Singh, 1988; Tyler & Cushway, 1995) and longitudinal studies (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1992; Ingledew, 1987; Koeskwe, 1993) that avoidance coping is predictive of increased symptoms and poorer adjustment. Moreover, one study found that these effects were more likely to occur for those who used avoidance coping strategies predominaly or exclusively (Koeske, 1993). The results of these studies strongly suggest that avoidance coping operates as a mediator in the stressor – 244 D.L. Snow et al. Symptom relationship, but the explicit test of this mediating effect is typically not conducted. In the present study, we assess the potential meditational role of avoidance coping in both cross-sectional and longitudinal models.

Studies examining the potential moderating effects of avoidance coping, on the other hand, have not found for this mechanism (Ingledew, 1997; Koeske, 1993; Parkes, 1990; Tyler & Cushway, 1995). As further evidence, Day and Livingstonwe (2001) examined avoidance coping interactions with both acute and chronic work stressor in separate regression models. In both instances, the interaction terms failed to explain a significant increase in the variance in symptoms.

Social Support and Workers' Performance in the Civil Service

Social support is a significant feature of an individual's social environment and varying levels of support will be perceived as available to the individual in times of need. Recent attention has turned to examining the role of social support in the stress process in two ways. The first has been to reconceptualise social support as coping assistance (Thoits, 1986). In this view, the coping methods utilized by an individual in response to stressors are seen as the same methods.

Utilized by other to assist that individual. For example, problem-solving coping on the part of the individual and instrumental support from other are both aimed at modifying or managing the stressful situation. If this is the case, social support should enhance the utilisation of active coping by an individual when confronted with stressful circumstances. In a test of Thoits' proposal that coping meditates the relationship between social support and adjustment to stress, Terry, Rawle, and Callan (1997) examined this model in two contexts work stress and women's adjustment to birth of a child.

Results were consistent with the model in both instances. The effects of colleague support on adjustment to work stressors in the first study, and the effect of partner support on adjustment to childbirth in the second study, were meditated through coping responses. Social support had no direct relationship to adjustment in either case. A limitation of these two studies, however, was that baseline adjustment was not controlled in predicting later adjustment. Other studies provide further evidence of a relationship between social support and active coping responses. In Ingledew. (1997), change in social support from Time 1 to Time 2 was positively related to change in active coping. In a longitudinal study of manufacturing plant employees (Heaney, House, Isreal & Mero, 1997), supportive work relationships were found to positively influence subsequent active coping behavior. There appears to be no evidence in the literature that social support is related to avoidance coping.

A second way that social support may operate in the stress process is to reduce the perception or experience of work stressors and, therefore, indirectly reduce the likelihood of negative outcomes such as psychological symptoms. Just as active coping may serve to meditate the effects of social support on symptoms, work stressors may also operate as another mediating pathway. Support for this hypothesis is found in several cross-sectional studies in which greater perceived social support was related to lower levels of reported work stressors (Griffith, 1999; Jayaratne, Himle, & Chess, 1988; Kumari & Sharma, 1990; Pompe & Heus, 1993). Moreover, in a study of female nurses, work-nonwork conflict was shown to mediate the relationship between supervisor support and psychological symptoms (Pisarki,

1998). No longitudinal studies assessing the meditational role of work stressors in the relationship of social support to symptoms were found.

Overall, then, from these two line of research, there is a basis to conceptualize social support as an important contextual variable that influences the individual's utilisation of Work stressors, coping, social support and symptoms 245 active coping strategies and their perceptions of work stressors. Unlike previous research, the current study assessed the meditating role of these two factors on social support in the same model. We expected that theof social support on psychological symptoms would be meditated by both active coping and work stressors.

There are generally four part of effect training in specific skill enhancement: skills program construction and selection, implementation, and feedback/evaluation. Examples of area of focus in skill coping are detailed below:

- **Social skills and competences:** A person's ability to develop and maintain appropriate social skills and social relationships with family, friends, peers, lovers, colleague, authority figures, etc., is critical in being able to live a happy, productive and successful life. Social skills are defined as specific strategies used by an individual to perform social tasks efficiently and thus be socially successful and socially competent. They can be seen as falling into 2 categories:

  (a)   Environmental social skills which perform tasks in both an educational setting and the workplace, such as listening, following instructions, and appropriate work habits; and

  (b)   Social interaction skills that facilitate any positive social interaction, such as starting and maintaining a conversation, complementing others, and resolving conflict.

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- **General academic skill competent:** A person can develop problems that interfere with their ability to learn specific information in an academic or occupational setting.

Support can be harmful for adjustment following stressful life events (Krause, 1995; Stroebe, 1996).

Another environmental resource that is mentioned in the stress literature is financial status. For the most part, financial status is examined as a cause of stress or a consequence of stress (Pierce, Frone, Russall & Cooper, 1996), but is rarely examined as a resource. In this regard. Hermann and his colleagues (Hermann, Whitman, Wyler, Anton & Vanderzwagg, 1990) reported that financial strain was a significant predictor of emotional distress, even when the effect of personal resources was held constant. Similarly Melamed, Grosswasser, and Stern (1992) found that psychological adjustment was significantly related to perceived economic independence.

Family-Work Conflict

Family and work are inter-related and interdependent to the extent that experiences in one area affect the quality of life in the other (Sarantakos, 1996). The family is an integral part of the economic process (Edgar, 1991; VandenHeuval,1993); and when hiring an employee, an employer automatically accepts the worker's family obligations (Sarantakos, 1996). This phenomenon is known as 'spillover'. Demands associated with family and finances can be a major source of 'extra-organisational' stress that can complicate, or even precipitate, work-place stress (Lasky, 1995). The facts that extra-organisational and intra-organisational influences on the work stress process are virtually indistinguishable creates significant problems for the study and management of stress in the workplace. The occurrence of stressors in the workplace either immediately following a period of chronic stress at home, or in conjunction with other major life stressors, is likely to have a market impact on outcome (Russo & Vitaliano, 1995), presumably by depleting the level of resources the person candevote to dealing with a work-related event (Terry, 1991). Thus better adjustment might be expected if work stress occurs in isolation than if it occurs in conjunction with other stressors.

JOB DEMAND

- **Workload**

Workload is often described in quantitative terms and can be considered to be excessive when the volume of work exceeds the ability of a worker to meet the demands over a specified period of time (French & Caplan, 1973). In qualitative terms, excessive workload would mean that the requirement of the work exceeds the skills, abilities and knowledge of a worker (Sauter & Murphy, 1995; French & caplan, 1973). Several studies have highlighted the deleterious consequences of high workload or work overload. For instance, a recent study

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established that work overload and time constraints were significant contributors to work stress among community nurses (Wilkes, 1998). A study of work stress among professionals found that teacher and nurses were most likely to experience work overload and that this factor, concomitant with other interruption to work, has the potential to result in unbearable work demands (Chan, Lai, Ko & Boey, 2000). As women are mostly likely to enter these occupations, the pressure of high workloads is likely to be exacerbated by the conflicting demand of home life. In this regard, the study concluded that workload was not an isolated source of work stress but tended to be combined with other factors in the prediction of stress. Clearly, the pervasive influence of globalisation on the workplace has resulted in increased organisational demands upon the worker. As a consequence, there is a high potential for workers to be adversely affected.

- **Time Pressure**

The issue of unrealistic time constraints and deadlines is as important as work overload – indeed the two factors usually occur in combination. Several studies have found a strong relationship between work stress and time factors. These factors have included such concerns as insufficient time for planning, inability to complete required tasks in the allocated workday resulting in work being taken home, constant interruptions relating to other work demands (i.e., meetings), and unreasonable deadlines (Humphrey, 1998; Sauter & Hurrell, 1999). Indeed, a recent national study into the changing workforce found that the proportion of workers bringing work home from the job once a week or more has increased by 10 percent since 1977. Most workers in study reported a change in their perception of work pressures in that 66 percent agreed with the statement, I never seem to have enough time to get everything done my job (Swamberg, Galinsky & Bond, 1999).

Other research that examined the impact of long hours on managers, found that a range of stress-related symptoms, including excessive fatigue and headaches, were predominately associated with the need to manage excessive workloads and simultaneously meet unrealistic target and deadline (Townley, 2000). A growing number of organisation have adopted longer working hours, possibly in an effort to maximize productivity. As a consequence, more workers are committed to complex and odd shifts (Scabracq & Cooper, 2000). This trend is reflected in the prevalence of the twelve hour working day that has been adopted by many Australian work places (Heiler 1988). In a study conducted by the Australian Bureau of statistics (1998), it was found that full-time workers were working 45.2 hours per week on average, a figure that has increased since previous years. Recent research into the effect of this extended shift has suggested that there are grounds for concern over the

impact of extended working hours on the physics and psychological health of workers (Bent, 1988). Along with the marked increase in the number of hours worked per day, there has been the unprecedented growth in the amount of overtime worked.

According to a recent review of overtime in the manufacturing industry, in the United State, average weekly overtime increased from 1.6 hours to 4.9 hours over a seven years period. What is notable about this survey is that whilst the employment rate within the manufacturing industry declined during the year of 1999 total overtime hours remained stable in the year. This suggests that fewer workers maintained productivity levels by working an increased amount of overtime and, potentially, experiencing significant time pressure (Hetrick, 2000).

- **Performance Pressure**

A major consequence of the rapidly changing global scene is the increased pace workers are required to maintain to ensure maximum productivity and enhance competitiveness. In addition to the need to maintain high organisation performance, there is a requirement for workers to perform multiple tasks in the workplace to keep abreast of changing technologies (Cascio, 1995); Quick, 1997). These organisational changes have been found performance pressure pressure in professionals to be one of the most stressful aspects of their work (Cahn, 2000). Others studies have highlighted concerns regarding the changing nature of work and its link to an increased risk of injury and illness (Babson, 1993; Townley, 2000).

In this regard, a recent survey of managers in the United Kingdom indicated that the majority were unhappy with the current workplace culture where they were required to work extended hours and cope with large workloads while simultaneously meeting production targets and deadlines (Townley, 2000). The results of this study highlighted a range of stress-related symptoms including excessive tiredness, headaches and a loss of temper as being associated between increased working hours and impoverished family and social life (Cahn et al., 2000), thus exacerbating the impact of work stress. Many organisations subject their workers to further 'performance pressure' by monitoring their activities and/or output in the workplace. In order to maintain and enhance productivity, workers often find their work practices scrutinized by others on the team.

Monitoring and/or surveillance of the worker is rapidly becoming a well accepted procedure in many occupations. In the past, only few occupations were monitored (predominately telephone operators to check the quality of the service provided), however, the trend has now embraced a range of occupations and a plethora of service industries

(Humphrey, 1998). The impact of such monitoring is a sense of pervasiveness among employees, a loss of the freedom to interact with the co-workers and receive support, reduced co-operation, increased mistrust, and more competitiveness among co-workers.

A potential consequence of the practices such as these for worker is the increased likelihood of experiencing work-related stress. In contrast to performance pressure, under-utilisation of skills has become a significant problem in recent years. It is well recognized that pressure results from the degree to which the environment inhibits or promotes utilisation and development of skills and abilities. Under –utilisation of a worker's skill-base usually occurs when the worker is performing tasks that are often simple in nature and offer little challenge. The primary cause of under-utilisation is the fact that many people are over-qualified for the positions that are available. However, under -utilisation can also result from a worker being prevented from undertaking training to acquire new skills. This barrier results in an inability to progress more complex tasks (Muchinsky, 1997). Under-utilisation of work skills and low skill variety are found to be detrimental to the health and well-being of the worker (Karasek & Theorell, 1990).

- **Unclear Work-Roles**

High levels of occupational stress are likely to be evident in organisations where there are elevated levels of role ambiguity and role conflict (Anderson, 1991; Cooper, 1991; Duquette, Kerouac, Sandhu & Beaudet, 1994; Hatton & Emerson, 1993; Rose, 1995). The effect of these constructs on negative job-related attitudes and behaviours is pervasive (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Rosenzweig & Karst, 1991; Steers & Mowbray, 1985). Role ambiguity exists when an individual lacks information about the requirement of his or her role, how those requirement are to be met, and the evaluative procedures available to ensure that the role is been performed successfully (Beehr, Walsh & Taber, 1976; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Cooper, 1991; Dyer & Quine, 1998; Ursprung, 1986). Role ambiguity has been found to lead to such negative outcomes as reduced confidence, a sense of hopelessness, anxiety, and depression (Jackson & Schulder, 1985; Muchinsky, 1997).

Role conflict, a construct often associated with role ambiguity, presents when the individual experiences incongruous job expectations, and can also occur when the individual is required to fulfill several different roles (Cooper, 1991). Role conflict has been defined as two or more sets of role expectations such that the realization of one set makes it difficult or impossible to actualize the other (Khan et al., 1964). Role conflict can lead to negative job attitudes and behavior that include a decrease in job satisfaction, an increase in anxiety, a reduction of trust and confidence in organisation and damaged interpersonal relations with

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co-workers and supervisors (Caplan, 1982; Fisher & Gitleson, 1983; Kahn, 1974). Conflicts of this nature are reported to be prevalent in such occupations as human services, military and police, where the division of time and the roles required at any point in time cannot always be clearly predicted (Muchinsky, 1997).

Both role ambiguity and role conflict have been shown to increase emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, while decreasing feelings of personal accomplishment (Cordes, 1993; Lee & Ashforth, 1991; Miller, Zook & Ellis, 1989; Siefert, Jayaratne & Chess, 1991). A recent study reported that stress among vocational placement coordinators was associated with high levels of role conflict (Flett & Biggs, 1992). Similarly, s study of job satisfaction among health care social workers found that role conflict and role ambiguity emerged as significant predictors of emotional exhaustion and work stress among these workers (Siefert, Jayarante & Chess, 1991). Several studies, using meta-analysis, have demonstrated consistent relationships between role ambiguity/conflict and low levels of job satisfaction, a lack of interest in work, increased levels of anxiety, decreased commitment, and propensity to leave the organisation (Fisher &Gitleon, 1983; Fox, dwayer &Ganster, 1991; Jackson & schuler, 1985; Miles, 1975). However, a study conducted by Bedeian and Armenakis (1981) found that the relationships between role and ambiguity/conflict and the propensity to leave a job were negligible, after accounting for the effect of job satisfaction.

This finding has been replicated by other researchers (Kemery, Mossholder & Touliatos, 1985; Netemeyer, 1990) indicating that role conflict and role ambiguity may not have direct effects on the propensity to leave a job Instead, these constructs may indirectly affect other constructs, such as job satisfaction or organisational commitment, which may then impact upon the level of job stress a worker may be experiencing.

- **Conflict at work**

Conflict in the workplace has been identified as a significant source of stress for some workers, as reflected by the fact that many stress claims can be linked with the mismanagement of conflict at work, negative interpersonal interaction with co-workers, and negative reactions to management decisions (Cotton & Fisher, 1995; shergold, 1955). Toohey (1994) defined conflict as a serious, on-going occurrence of strive between employees and those in supervisory or management positions that does not include trivial or fleeting matters. In relation to the outcome of conflict in the workplace, Toohey (1994) argued that workers who have a limit range of options to deal with situations that are distressing at work are more susceptible to deleterious effects on their psychological well-being. Conflict is pervasive across all types of organisations and can manifest itself in a variety of ways including

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emotional turmoil (i.e., anxiety, tension, and frustration), increased absenteeism, job turnover, violence and, from a group conflict perspective, strikes and demonstrations (Cooper % Payne, 1988; Toohey, 1994). Furthermore, conflict can include both overt situations, whereby a worker may be the victim of an aggressive or violent act, or more subtle forms of disagreement such as differences of opinion or expectations (Robbins, Waters-Marsh, Caciope & Millet, 1994).

Traditionally, conflict in the workplace has been perceived as been 'negative 'or 'bad' and has often resulted in harmful consequences for an organisation's performance. However, it is important to note that not all conflict is detrimental to the workplace or to the worker. Indeed, several studies have established a positive relationship between conflict at work and innovative decision-making and productivity. For instance, one study found that among twenty-two teams of systems analysts, the more incompatible groups were likely to be the most productive (Hill, 1974). Nevertheless, conflict can, and indeed does, result in destructive consequences for the worker and the organisation. In this regard, a study of four hundred respondents from a broad range of organisation. Identified conflicts with supervisors as one of the most significant stressors associated with the majority of maladaptive behaviors at the workplace.

These included excessive drinking and taking frustration out on co-workers (Sulsky & Smith, 1999; Toohey, 1994). Moreover, a recent study among nurses found a strong association between work related stress and unsatisfactory relationships with peers, supervisors and patients (Piko, 1999). A recent Asian study that workers tended to tolerate unfair treatment and unpleased work conditions in an attempt to avoid open conflict with their co-workers (Chan, 2000).The study found this phenomenon was particularly evident in nurses, lawyers and engineers. Clearly, it is important to understand the potentially negative impact that conflict in the workplace may have upon worker well-being and, subsequently, the organisation.

- **The Emotional Demands of Work**

In most workplaces, there is a need to balance the demands of personal and family Life with the demands of the employer. Naturally, emotional events in one sector will impact on performance in the other sector both, to some extent, all workers must manage their emotions effectively in the workplace to create a publicly acceptable image. Hochschild (1983) referred to this activity as 'emotional labour' which has been defined as "the effort, planning and control needed to express organisationally desired emotions during interpersonal transactions" (Morris & Feldman, 1996, p. 987), Brinier (1999) noted that some

jobs are extremely demanding in regard to emotional labour (e.g., debt collectors, flight attendants, hairdressers, nurses, etc.). in many of these jobs, emotional labour is directly requested by employers, presumably because of its impact on organisational outcomes (i.e., increased number of clients as a result of 'happy' worker), the performance of the individual worker and control emotions at workplace morable (Brinier, 1999).

However, the need to monitor and control emotions at work has also been found to be associated with stress among worker in public service sectors (Wharton & Erickson, 1995). In these professions, workers are regularly required to deal with the negative tension created by emotional dissonance (i.e., expression of emotions the differ from those they are feeling, faking an emotion or hiding an emotion).

The need for emotional labour has also been found among individual in physically dangerous professions (as, firefighters, police and other emergency personnel) where there is an ongoing fear of harm or death and in emotionally dangerous professions (e.g., nursing, medical, human and community service) where there is ongoing exposure to human suffering and tragedy. In these professions, there is an enormous demand to mange and clam (Beaton, Murphy, Pike & Jarrett, 1995). In fact, the ability to manage these emotions is applauded as a indication of professionalism. Morris and Feldman (1997) suggested that it is dissonance, between felt and expressed emotions, together with the frequency and the demand for emotional labour that will determine the impact of emotional labour on worker well-being.

Organisation Structure

Organisation structure define how job task are formally, divided, grouped and coordinated. These are six elements that mange need to address when they design their organisation structure more specialisation; departmentalisation chain of command, span of control, centralisation and decentralisation ,and formalisation .

Work Specialization

Early in the twentieth century , Henry ford became rich and famous by building automobiles on an assembly line. Every ford workers was assign a specific respectively task, for instance, one would just put on the right front wheel and someone else will install the right hand door. Breaking job put in to small standardised task , which could be perform over and over again. Ford was able to produce a car at the rate of one every 10 seconds while using employees who had relatively limited skill.

Ford demonstrated that work can be performed more efficiently if employee are allows to specialise. Today we use the world specialization or division of labour to describe

the degree at which the activities in the organisation are sub-divided into separate jobs .the essences of job specialization is that rather an entire job been done by one individual its broken down into a number of steps , with each step being completed by a separate individual .in essence individual specialise in doing part of activity rather than entire activity by the late 1940s most manufacturing job industrialised countries were been done with high work specialisation. Because not all employee in an organisation have the same skills management saw specialization as a mean to make the most efficient use of the employees, skills. Managers also saw other efficiencies that could be achieve through work socialisation employees skills at performing a task successfully increase through specialisation.

Less time is spent in changing tasks, in putting away ones tools and equipment from a poor set in the work process and in getting ready for another .equally important training for specialization is more efficient form the organisation perspective. It's easier and less costly to find and train workers to do specific and repetitive tasks. This is especially time of highly sophisticated and complex operations. Work specialization increase efficiency and productivities by encourage the creation of special inventions and machineries. Most managers today see work specialisation as neither obsolete nor- unending source of increased productivity. Rather manager recognise the economical it provides in certain types of jobs and the problems it creates when it's carried too far.

Departmentalisations

Once job has been divided up through work specialisation, it is necessary to group this job together so that common task can be coordinated. The basis by which jobs are group together is called departmentalisation; one of the most popular ways to group activities is by functions performed. a manufacturing manager might organised a plant by separating engineering ,accounting, manufacturing, personnel, and supply specialists in to common departments of cause, departmentalisation by functions can be used in all type of organisations only the function changed to effects the organisations objectives and activities. The major advantage to this type of grouping is obtaining efficiencies from putting like specialists together. Functional departmentalization seeks to achieve economies of scales by placing people with common skills and orientation in to common units.

Job can also be departmentalisation by the type of product the organisation produces protector & gamble, instance, is organised along these line each major product-such, as tide, pampers, charming, and prickles - is placed under the Anthony of an executives who has completes global responsibility for that products. The major advantage to this type of grouping is increased accountability for the products performances since all actives related to

a specific products. Are under the, direction of a single manager if an organisation activities were service related rather than product relate each service automatically grouped.

Another to departmentalisation is on the basis of geography or tan tom. The sales function, for instant, may have western, eastern, and mid-western and eastern regions. Each of these regions is, in effect a department organized around geography. If organisations customers are scattered over a large geographical area and have similar needs .based on their location, then this form of departmentalisation can be valuable.

A final category of departmentalisation is to use the particular type of customer the organisation seeks to reach. Microsoft, for example, is organised around for customer markets consumers, large corporations, software's developers, and small businesses. The assumption underling customer departmentalisation is that customer in each department has a common set of problems and needs that can be met by having specialists for each.

Large organisation may use all of the forms of departmentalization. However, rigid, functional departmentalization is being increasingly completed by teams that cross over traditions departmental lines.

Chain of Command

Thirty-five years ago, the chain-of-command concept was a basic cornerstone in the design of organisations. It has far less importance today. The chain of command is an unbroken line of authority that extends from the top of the organisation to the lowest echelon and clarifies who reports to whom. It answers questions for employees such as ''to whom do I go if I have a problem'' and ''to whom am I responsible?

One cannot discuss the chain of command without discussing two complimentary concepts; authority and unity of command. Authority refers to the right inherent in a managerial position to give orders and expect the orders to be obeyed. To facilitate coordination, each managerial position is given a place in the chain of command, and each manager a place in the chain of command, and each manager is given a degree of authority in order to meet his or her responsibilities. The Unity-of-command principle helps preserve the concept of an unbroken line of authority. It states that a person should have one and only one superior to whom that person is directly responsible. If the unity-of-command is broken, an employee might have to cope with conflicting demands or priorities from several supervisors. Times change, and so do basic tenets of organisational design.

The concepts of chain of command, authority and unity of command have substantially less relevance today because of advancements in information technology and

the trend towards empowering employees. For instance, a low-level employee today can access information in seconds that 35years ago was available only to top managers. Similarly, networked computers increasingly allow employees anywhere in an organisation to communicate with anyone also without going through formal channels. Moreover, the concepts of authority and maintaining the chain of command are increasingly less relevant as operating employees are being empowered to make decisions that previously were reserved for management. There are of course, still many organisations that find they can be most productive by enforcing the chain of command. There just seem to be fewer of them today.

Span of Control

How Meany employees can a manager effectively and efficiently direct. This question of span of control is important because to large degrees, it determine d the number of level and managers and organisation has all things being equal the wider or larger the span the more efficient the organisation obviously ,wider spans are more efficient in terms of cost. However, at some point ,wider spans reduce effectiveness .That is, when the span becomes too large, employee performances suffers because supervisors no longer have the time to provide the necessary leadership and support.

The trend in recent years has been toward wider spans of control. They are consistent with recent efforts by companies to reduce costs, cut overhead, speed up decision making, increase flexibility, get closer to customers and empower employees, however to ensure that performance doesn't suffer because of these wider spans, organisations have been investing heavily in employee training, managers recognise that they can handle a wider spans when employees know their jobs inside and out or can turn to their co-workers when they have questions.

Centralisation and Decentralisation

The term centralisation refers to the degree to which decision making is concentrated at a single point in the organisation. The concept includes only formal authority—that is, the rights inherent in one's position. Typically, it's said that if top management makes the organisations key decisions with little or no input from lower-level personnel, then the organisation is centralised. In contrast, the more that the lower-level personnel provide input or are actually given the discretion to make decisions, the more decentralisation there is an organisation characterised by centralisation is a inherently different structural animal from one that is decentralised in a decentralised organisation, action can be taking more quickly to solve problems, more people provide input into decisions, and employee are less likely to feel alienated from those who make the desiccation that affects their work lives.

Consistent with management effort to make organisation more flexible and responsible, there has been a remarked trend toward decentralising dissection making in large companies ,lower-level managers are closer to the action and typically ,have more detailed knowledge about problems men, do top managers

Formalisation

Formalisation refer to the degree in which job within the organisation are standardised if a job is highly formalised then the job incumbent has a minimum amount of description over what is to be done. Employee are expected to be always to handle the same input in exactly the same ways ;resulting in a consistent and uniform output.

There are explicit job description lots of organisational rules and clearly define procedure covering work process in organisation in which there is high formulation ,where formalisation is low job behaviours are relatively non-programmed and employee have a great deal of freedom to exercise discretion in their work. because an individual's discretion on the job is inversely related to the amount of behaviours in that job that is programme by the organisation. The greater the organisation the less input the employee has into how the work is to be done. Standardisation not only eliminate the possibility of the employees engaging in the alternatively behaviours, but it even removes the need for employees to consider alternative.

- **Organisational Climate**

As already noted, the nature of work and the workplace has changed significantly over the last decade, with major consequences for the experience of work stress. Two of the most significant forces in recent years have been globalisation of the economy and the rapid development of information technology. These forces have created an organisational climate that is characterised by increased pressures and demands for productivity. In the search for competitive advantage within the economy, work is being outsourced or conducted in virtual workplace by a temporary workforce (Belous, 1998; Medcof & Needham, 1998). Employees often find that they have multiple roles in organisations, leading to role conflict (Cooper, 1991). Further, they must contend with constantly changing co-workers, poorly defined tasks, and job insecurity. At the same time, workloads have increased in response to greater demands for productivity and the increased speed with which communication can occur in the workplace (Jacobs, 1994).

- **Globalisation of the Economy**

The influence that globalization of the economy has on changes in the contemporary environment of organisations is well recognized (Carrithers, 1992; Cascio, 1995; Kochan, 1997; Schabracq & Cooper, 2000). Globalisation refers to the large volume of business transactions that move across the globe at an increasingly accelerated rate (Graddick, 1992). This phenomenon has promoted escalating domestic and global competition and the rapid movement of financial markets (Casio, 1955; James, 1997). Accompanying these global trends is the demand for high organisational performance that necessitates tougher competition, rapid changes in information technology, increased productivity, greater organisational and worker flexibility, and lower costs in the provision of goods and services (Berwald, 1998; carrithers, 1992; Kirby,1999; Kochan, 1997).

Among the consequences of operating in such an increasingly complex global environment is the potential for the worker to experience increased strain and work stress. For instance, globalization has resulted in a flood of redundancies, in an effort to downsize and minimize costs, Which has ultimately resulted in increased demands on the remaining workface (Kirby, 1999; Maslach, 1999). To maintain and enhance productivity and keep abreast of global market demands, workers are under increasing pressure to work longer hours (Heiler, 1998; Hetrick, 2000; Townley, 2000), work at a faster pace (Bousfield, 1999; Humphrey, 1998), increase workloads (Townley, 2000), and become multi-skilled (Sauter & Hurrel, 1999). A major change, common to many organisations, has been the introduction of longer work shifts (Heiler, 1998; Thomas, 1998).

In an attempt to achieve higher levels of product quality and maintain competitive advantage, many organisations have leveled out hierarchial structures, reduced overall number of employees and adopted such practices as self-managed teams and leaner production processes (Casio, 1995; Sauter & Hurrell, 1999). This has resulted in increased responsibility and ill-defined work roles for workers (johns, 1998; Thomas, 1998). New employment relationships have resulted in jobs becoming less stable and secure. For example, temporary employment has increased by 400 percent since the early 1980's and it is predicted that by the year 2020 a quarter of the workforce could be working in non-traditional employment arrangement (Judy & D'Amico, 1997; Kochan, Smith, Wells & Rebitzer, 1994).

Workers are required to perform many and varied tasks, work as team members, self manage, and learn new work tasks rapidly as the organisation changes to remain competitive. As a result, jobs have become ill-defined, exacerbating issues such as role ambiguity and role

conflict. These factors, in turn, have the potential to lead to work stress and illness (Dunette, 1998; Lee & Ashforth, 1991; Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Johns, 1988).

- **The impact of technology**

In addition to the onslaught of globalisation, the development of rapidly changing technologies has influenced the working environment environment. These advances in technology have resulted in the downsizing of many organisations as tasks that were undertaken by manual labour become automated monitoring of performance in the workplace (Aiello & Kolb, 1955), thus increasing performance pressure. A variety of worker activities are now under surveillance as organisations can record telephone usage, real-time computer performance (that is number of key strokes per minute) and even the length of restroom breaks. According to Humphery (1998), intrusions of this nature are affecting millions of workers worldwide in such industries as the airlines, government agencies, insurance companies and telephone companies. Rosch (1991) coined the term 'techno stress' to refer to the frustration, anxiety, dehumanisation and depression that is increasingly evident in 'high-tech' work environments. He, and many other researchers, has indicated that techno stress is becoming a growing concern among workers. Techno stress is particularly relevant in industries where information overloaded stems from the sheer volume of information that is obtained from facsimile machines, cellular telephones, conference calls, electronic mail and personal pagers.

Interaction between Workers and job

Most researchers have acknowledged the need to examine the complex subtle, interactions between workers and their workplace rather than focusing on either component individually. As cotton (1996) noted, personal vulnerabilities are probably the most significant predictors of the experience of stress. However, organisational demands are likely to be the strongest determinants of morale and organisational commitment (Jones, Flynn & Kelloway, 1995). As a cotton (1966) suggested, claims for compensation in cases of psychological injury are most likely to occur when the experience of stress is combined with low morale in the workplace (Schofield, 1966). This notion clearly gives credence to the interaction between a worker and his or her environment.

Several popular models of work stress have acknowledged the role of the interaction or match between workers and their jobs. The assumptions that underlie the Person-Environment Fit model (Swanson & Fouad, 1999) stated that individuals will seek out work environments that are congruent with their characteristics. They search for environment that will enable them to express their skills, abilities, values and needs (Holland, 1997). Lofquist

and Dawis (1984) noted thatr when an individual's skills and abilities match those required by the job, the match will result in 'satisfactoriness'. When the individual's attitudes and values match the rewards that are available in the job, then the worker will experience satisfaction.This theory indicates that both satisfactoriness and satisfaction are necessary conditions of work adjustment. Thus, strain is the result of a discrepancy between person and environment at their level.

The converse of the effort-reward model is the effort-disease model (Lundberg & Frankenhauser, 1980). This model predicts that the need for effort (i.e., due to high workload) would be most damaging to worker if it was accompanied by a negative evaluation of the task (i.e., distress, meaninglessness, boredom, irritation, etc.). Similarly, the experiences of hindrances that prevent the outcomes from ones effort found to be associated with negative outcomes (Cavanaugh, Roehling, Boswell & Boudreau, 1999). The interaction between job effort and boredom or frustration has been found significantly predict physical symptoms of stress among data entry workers, sawmill workers and assemble line workers (frankenhauser & gardell, 1976). Warr (1987) suggest that affective well-being at work was determined with reference to two different dimensions, pleasure and arousal. According to Warr, the highest level of well being at work was determined was associated with high levels of both arousal and pleasure, whereas low levels on both dimensions would result in depression. This contention has been supported by the finding that the perception of a job as exhilarating (and presumably arousing) may be an antidote for the stressful demands of physically or emotionally dangerous professions (Mclntosh, 1995). Similarly, Cavanaugh and colleagues (1999) found that a high levels of satisfaction and intention to stay in that job. In an alternative interpretation of the arousal hypothesis, Lyng (1990) suggested that dangerous or challenging work may actually provide individuals with an opportunity to feel sense of control, probably as a result of the training, fitness and skills that are required to accomplish their duties. This conclusion concurs with those of Maslach (1999) and Karasek (1979) regarding the importance of control as a buffer against stress.

In relation to control over work demands, Karasak's (1979) simplistic, but popular, model of job strain clearly reflects the importance of the complex interaction between workers and their environment. In his model, Karasek (1979 & 1981) highlighted the importance of controllability over the work environment. Job decision latitude refers to the potential for control or discretion over work activities (e.g., opportunities to make decisions about the work, the use of variety of skills, and the organisation of work activities). According to Kararsek (1979), job strain occurs in response to the interaction between the job

demand and job control. He asserted that highly demanding jobs were more likely to result in psychological and physical ill health if they were also associated with low levels of control over the work. The interaction between these two factors creates four possible types of work, namely

    (1) Low strain work characterised by low job demands and high control,

    (2) High strain work created by high demands and low control;

    (3) Passive work characterised by low demand and low control; and

    (4) Active work characterised by high demands but also high control.

The most negative consequences for workers have been associated with high strain work (Radmacher & Sheridan), indicating that a sense of control can ameliorate the negative effects of high job stress. Although there is a mixed support for the specific tenets of the demand control model (Dollard, 1996), the opportunity for control has been identified as a crucial determinant of mental health in the workplace (Muchinsky, 1997). Control in the workplace can generally be defined as the ability to exert some influence over the environment so that it becomes more rewarding and less threatening (Gangster, 1995). There are many different dimensions of control that can be applied to work environment. The opportunity for control has two main elements, namely the ability to make choices and act on those choices, and the potential to predict the consequences of an action. According to Frese (1989), control includes the ability to control work content, the work place and the environment in which work is undertaken. Control has been examined in the context of a worker's participation in decision making and job autonomy, as well as control over aversive work events, work content, work pace and work hours (Cotton, 1995). Regardless of the type of control, however, there seems to be a general acknowledgement of the importance of control for the mental well-being of workers (Sauter, Hurell & Cooper, 1989).

Lack of control has been identified both as a source of stress and critical health risk for some workers (Long, 1995). A recent study amongst university teachers found that a reduction in control over work was strongly predictive of work stress (Fisher, 1994). Further, research has found that workers who are unable to exert control over their lives at work are more likely to experience work and stress and, consequently, impaired health (Sutton, Kahn, Sauter, Hurrel & Cooper, 1989). Many studies have found that high job demand and low control (referred to as decreased decision latitude) lead to job dissatisfaction, mental strain and cardiovascular disease (Long, 1995). Indeed, Israel, House, Schurman, Heaney and Mero (1989) concluded that the ability to control or influence work factors, such as speed and pace of production, is linked to incidence of cardiovascular disease as well as psychosomatic

disorders, job satisfaction and depression. Lack of control may also result in feelings of frustration, low morale and, loss of self-esteem (Rhodes, 1986).

The extent to which individuals are able to control their work environment may determine the effectiveness of particular coping strategies and, thus, the extent to which personal and organisation goals are met. One study found that the influence workers believed themselves to have as a result of participation, rather than participation per se, reduced job stress and ill-health (Israel,1989). Further, Jackson (1983) found that participation (attendance at staff meetings) have a negative correlation with perceived job stress and a positive correlation with perceived influence. Other studies have indicated that the inability to be involved in decisions that affect one's work is particularly stressful for most workers (Schaubroeck, 1991) and the nonparticipation in decision making can lead to such negative consequences as lowered self-esteem, job dissatisfaction, and emotional distress from the worker (Beehr & Drexler, 1986; Dawson, 1989; Spector, 1986). Indeed, the National institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH, 1988), recognised the need for workers to be given the opportunity to have input into decisions or actions that affect their jobs and the performance of their tasks.

Empirical Studies

In recent years the rise in stress has been seen across all spheres of life, particularly in the workplace. Stress in organisations is a wide-spread phenomenon with far-fetching practical and economic consequences. Wolfe (2004) established in his findings the negative relationship between workplace and organisational stress and employees job performance that, job stress brings about subjective effects such as feeling undervalued and workplace victimization/bullying, unclear role/errands, work home interface; fear of joblessness; exposure to traumatic incidents at work and economic instability among our target population, resulting in poor concentration, mental block and poor decision making skills. Supporting his position, Gangster & Loghan (2005) results revealed a negative relationship between Job stress and employees' job performance and shows that job stress significantly reduces the employee's job performance.

Hans (2006) said Stress takes its toll on human body. Many employees experience tension headaches, muscle pain and related problems due to muscle contraction from stress response. Findings from the study conducted by llfeld (2007) have found that high stress levels also contribute to cardiovascular disease, including heart attacks and stroke. They also produce various psychological consequences such as job dissatisfaction, moodiness, depression and lower organisational commitment. Furthermore, various behavioral outcomes

have been linked to high or persistent stress including lower job performance, poor decision making, and increased workplace accidents and aggressive behavior. Most people react to stress through 'fight or flight, so increased absenteeism is another outcome because it is a form of flight.

Job burnout is a particular stress consequence that refers to the process of emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and reduced feeling of personal accomplishment. Emotional exhaustion, the first stage, is characterized by lack of energy, tiredness, and a feeling that one's emotional resources are depleted. This is followed by cynicism (also called depersonalization), which is characterized by an indifferent job which is a particular stress consequence that refers to the process of emotional exhaustion, cynicism and reduced attitude toward work, emotional detachment from clients, cynicism about the organisation and tendency to strictly follow rules and regulations rather than adopt to the need of others. The final stage of burnout, called reduced personal accomplishment refers to feelings of diminished confidence in the ability to perform the job well. In these situations, employees develop a sense of learned helplessness as they no longer believe that their efforts make a difference.

Figure 2.2: Conceptual Framework for Work Environment and Organisational Staress

Potential Hazards	Symptoms of Stress	Negative Outcomes	Effects on Job Performance

CULTURE

1 Demands
2 Control
3 Support
4 Relationships
5 Role
6 Change

EMPLOYERS

Individual Symptoms
- Insomnia
- Loss of mental concentration
- Anxiety, stress
- Absenteeism
- Depression
- Back pains; tension
- Palpitations; headaches

Organisational Symptoms
- Increased sickness absence
- Long hour culture
- Increased staff turnover
- Reduced staff performance
- Reduced staff morale & liberty
- Increased hostility

- Coronary heart disease
- Substance abuse
- Clinical anxiety and depression
- Burnout

- Increased over-heads e.g. recruiting, training
- Reduced profits
- Increased accidents
- Increased litigation

- Low productivity
- Poor execution of task
- Poor implementation of policies
- Poor implementation of programmes

Implication on the Economy

- Loss of income and revenue
- Low GDP
- Low GNP
- Underdevelopment
- Low growth rate

Source: Salami 2012 (Adapted and Modified Palmway & Cooper, 2004)

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Appraisal of Literature

The review has covered a wide range of approaches and perspectives in workplace, organisational stress and intervention strategies of employee's effective job. Performance in Nigeria and other countries around the world. However, much of the review actually focuses on the conceptual approaches to workplace and organisational stress, causes and managements.

Workplace and organisational stress has been found to be a frequent problem across occupations and it impacts on job performance. It is very much compulsory to take a holistic picture of surroundings of job stress by including the effects of personality, the organisational factors and the work family interaction in the perception of work stress. Over the decades stress is emerging as a growing dilemma in organisations. Stress is dynamic state in which a person is confronted with an opportunity, demand related to what the individual wishes and for which the conclusion is perceived to be both unclear and essential. Thus, a gap has been created in literature in terms of finding out if workplace and organisational stress can be attributed to be one of the reasons for the ineffectiveness of civil servants in their job performance as regards the effective implementation of government policies and programmes towards good governance.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Person-Environment Fit Theory

The person- Environment Fit theory of stress was first propounded by Friedman & Rosenman, (1959) locus of control (Rotter, 1966), hardiness (Kobasa, 1979), and coping styles (Menaghan, 1983). The environment has been construed as stressful life events (Rabkin & Struening, 1976), daily hassles (DeLongis, Coyne, Dakof, Folkman, & Lazarus, 1982) and chronic stressors such as role conflict and ambiguity (R. Kahn, Wolf, Quinn, Snoeck, & Rosenthal, 1964; Jackson & Schuler, 1985), role overload and underload (French & Caplan, 1972), and job demands and decision latitude (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). The fundamental premise of Person environment fit theory is that, stress arises from misfit between the person and environment.

The core elements of the theory which depicts three basic distinctions central to P-E fit theory. The first and most basic distinction is between the person and environment. This prerequisite for the conceptualisation of P-E fit and provides the basis for examining reciprocal causation between the person and environment. The objective person refers to attributes of the person as they actually exist, whereas the subjective person signifies the person's perception of his or her own attributes (i.e., the person's self-identity or self

concept). Analogously, the objective environment includes physical and social situations and events as they exists independent of the person's perceptions, whereas the subjective environment refers to situations and events as encountered and perceived by the person. The objective person and environment are causally related to their counterparts (Harrison, 1978). These relationships are imperfect due to perceptual distortion (e.g., repression, denial), cognitive construction processes (Weick , 1979), limited human information processing capacities (March & Simon, 1958), and organisational structures that limit access to objective information (Caplan, 1987b; Harrison, 1978).

This theory is important to the study because it examines how stress results from a mismatch between an individual's abilities, needs, motives, goals, and behavior patterns, and a given job's demands, resources, opportunities, and rewards. Studies have found that when an employee's job offered either too much or too little complexity, the employee reported more stress than individuals who were well-matched to their job (Blix et al., 1993; Chemers, Hays, Rhodewalt & Wysocki, 1985).

The person-environment theory assumes that individuals vary in their needs and abilities just as organisations vary in their demands and incentives. Occupations involve interplay between employee expectations and job demands. This model highlights the importance of considering the characteristics of the job and the individual in relation to each other (Blix et al., 1993; French, Caplan & Harrison, 1982; Harrison, Moss, Dielman, Horvoth & Harlan, 1987).

Lazarus Psychological Theory of Stress

This theory was propounded by Lazarus in 1935. the theory central focus point are on two concepts that are central to any psychological stress theory: appraisal, i.e., individuals' evaluation of the significance of what is happening for their well-being and coping i.e. individuals' efforts in thought and action to manage specific demands.

Lazarus stress theory has undergone several essential revisions. In the latest version (Lazarus, 1991), stress is regarded as a relational concept, i.e., stress is not defined as a specific kind of external stimulation nor a specific pattern of psychological, behavioral, or subjective reactions. Instead, stress is viewed as a relationship ('transaction') between individuals and their environment. 'Psychological stress refers to a relationship with the environment with the environment that the person appraises as significant for his or her well being and in which the demands tax or exceed available coping resources'. This, points to two processes as central mediators within the person-environment transaction: cognitive appraisal appraisal and coping. The concept of appraisal, introduced into emotion research by

Arnold (1960) and elaborated with respect to stress processes by (Lazarus, 1996; Lazarus & Launier, 1978), is a key factor for understanding stress-relevant transactions.

This concept is based on the idea that stress is dependent on actual expectancies that persons manifest with regard to the significance and outcome of a specific encounter. This is necessary to explain individual differences in quality, intensity, and duration of an elicited emotion in environments that are objectively equal for different individuals. It is generally assumed that the resulting state is generated, maintained, and eventually altered by a specific pattern of appraisals.

Resource Theory of Stress

Unlike other theories discussed so far, resource theory of stress are not primarily concerned with factors that create stress, according to its propounder, (Homles & Rahe 1967) but with resources that preserve employees well being in the state of stressful encounters. Several social and personal constructs have been proposed, such as social support (Schwarzer & Leppin 1991), sense of coherence (Antonovsky 1979), hardiness (Kobasa 1979), self-efficiacy (Bandura 1977), or optimism (Scheier & Carver 1992).

Whereas self-efficacy and optimism are single protective factors, hardiness and sense of coherence represent tripartite approaches .Hardiness is an amalgam of three component: internal control, commitment, and a sense of challenge as opposed to treat .Similarity, sense of coherence consist of believing that the world is meaningful, predictable, and basically benevolent. Within the social support field, several type have been investigated, such as instrumental, informational, appraisal, and emotional support.

The emphasis of this theory is that, it assumes that stress occurs in any of any of three contexts: when people experience loss of resource, when resources are threatened, or when people invest their resources without subsequent gain. Four categories of resource are proposed: object resources (e.g. employment, physical object such as home, clothing, or access to transportation), condition resources (e.g, employment, personal, relationship), personal resources (e.g., skills of self efficacy), and energy resources (means that facilitate the attainment of other resources, for example, money, credit, or knowledge). Hobfoll and co-workers outlined a number of testable hypothesis (called principles) derived from basic assumptions (Hobfoll et al.1996). Lossof resources are the primary sources of stress.

This principle contradicts the fundamental assumption of approaches on critical life events. (Holmeas & Rahe, 1967) that stress occour whenever individuals are forced to readjuct themselves to situational circumstances, may these circumstances be positive (e.g. marriage) or negative (e.g. loss of a beloved person). Hobfoll and Lilly (1993) found that

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only loss of resources was related to distress. Resources act to preserve and protect other resources. Self esteem is an important resources that may be beneficial for other resources.

Hobfoll & leiberman (1987),observed that women who were high in self esteem made use of social support when comforted with stress, whereas those who lacked self esteem interpreted social support as an indication of personal inadequacy and ,and consequently, misused support. following stressful circumstances, individual has an increasing depleted resource pool to combat further stress. This depletion impairs individual capability of coping with further stress. , thus resulting in a loss spiral. This process view resources investment requires focusing on who the interplay between resources and situational demands changes over time as stressor sequence unfold. In addition, this principle shows s that it is important to investigate not only the effects of resources on outcome, but also on outcome of the resources.

Hypotheses

The under listed hypotheses were raised to serve anchor upon the study will be guided:

Ho$_1$: There is no significant existing relationship between each of the job related stressors and job performance level in the civil service.

Ho$_2$: There is no significant existing relationship between each of the employees: personal factor related with the job performance level in the civil service.

Ho$_3$: There is no significant existing relationship between each of the organisation factor and job performance level in the civil service.

Ho$_4$: There are no significant differences in performance level in the civil service on the basis of staff cadre and MDAs.

CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research design

The research design adopted for this study was the descriptive survey research design of the *ex-post facto* type. This design was adopted because the independent variables had already occurred, and therefore, the researcher did not in any way have the opportunity to manipulate them. The only thing the researcher did was to test for cause- effects relationship among the independent and dependent variables.

3.2 Population of the study

The population comprises all selected civil servants in the three cadres of various Ministries (2,954), Departments (4,380), and Agencies (1.337) that constitute the Oyo State Civil Service, with a sum total of 8,671.

3.3 Sample and sampling techniques

The actual sample size used as respondents in this study was carefully selected to ensure that they have the same characteristics as the main population. On this basis, a combination of sampling techniques was adopted for this study; which included the cluster, purposive, stratified and simple random sampling techniques.

The cluster sampling technique was used to divide the civil service of Oyo state into three different entities: ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs). While the purposive sampling technique was adopted to choose 10 ministries, seven departments and five agencies that provide essential services and utilities for the citizenry of the state. Furthermore, the target population in each of the selected MDAs was stratified along the axis of the three cadres (Management cadre- grade levels 12 and above, senior staff cadre- grade levels 7-11, and junior staff cadre- grade levels 1-6) in various MDAs.

Finally, the selection of the actual sample elements that served as respondents for the study was done using the proportional stratified random sampling technique. Altogether, a total of 1867 sample elements were selected to serve as respondents for the study using 2090 of the total population (See Table 1below for details on the population and sample size chosen).

Table 3.1: Sample Size Chosen

Ministries	Population	Cadre 13 & Above	Cadre 7 – 12	Cadre 1 – 6	Sample size selected
Education	691	18	31	45	94
Commerce and Cooperatives,	219	20	35	40	95
Health	214	17	28	38	83
Lands and Housing	192	10	27	39	76
Justice	149	15	25	35	75
Environment and Water Resources	292	17	25	37	77
Information, Culture and Tourism,	91	20	34	44	98
Women Affairs, Community Development and Social Welfare,	201	20	35	47	102
Works and Transports	789	17	29	48	94
Establishment, Training, and Poverty Alleviation.	116	20	37	40	97
DEPARTMENTS					
Boards of Internal Revenue	320	15	35	48	98
Universal Basic Education Commission	114	10	28	39	77
Post Primary School Teaching Service Commission	44	15	35	46	96
Road Maintenance Agency	298	14	25	38	77
Hospitals Management	3540	17	34	40	91
Solid Waste Management Authority	30	10	28	43	81
Pension Board	34	12	25	40	77
AGENCIES					
Adult and Non-Formal Education	35	10	24	27	61
Urban and regional Planning	454	15	25	24	64
Civil Service Commission	50	20	35	40	95
Judicial Service Commission	717	10	23	32	65
Council for Arts and Culture	68	20	34	40	94
Total		**342**	**657**	**870**	**1,867**

3.4 Instrumentation

The study used four sets of questionnaire for data collection. These were: Employees' Personal Factors Scale, Organisational Factors Scale, Job-Related Stressors Questionnaire and Civil Servants' Performance Rating Scale. These were complemented with 18 sessions of In-depth Interview (IDI) with three staff each from the three different cadres across two, each, of the ministries, departments and agencies.

3.4.1 Employees' Personal Factors Scale

The Employees' Personal Factors Scale is a self- structured questionnaire that measured the extent to which the personal factors of the civil servants influence their level of job performance. It is designed on the 4- point Likert scale format of Strongly Agreed (4), Agreed (3), Disagreed (2) and Strongly Disagreed (1) and contained 36- item, relating to the civil servants' personal factors. This covers such variables as work-life conflicts, coping skills, demographic characteristics, and personality traits.

The content of the Employees' Personal Factors Scale was validated using peer review system as well as subjecting it to the criticisms of experts in the area of psychometric evaluation. The criticisms and suggestions made by the experts helped to ensure the validation of the instrument. Thereafter, the reliability of the scale was ascertained through a pilot study which was conducted on 25 civil servants in the Hospital Management Board of Osun state. This was done using the test and re-test reliability test while the reliability co-efficient value (r) of 0.89 was obtained from the pilot test and re-test, using the Pearson product moment correlation statistics.

3.4.2 Organisational Factors Scale

The Organisational Factors Scale is a self-structured questionnaire that measured the extent to which the organisational factors within the civil service influence the level of job performance of the civil servants. It is designed on the 4- point Likert scale format of Strongly Agreed (4), Agreed (3), Disagreed (2) and Strongly Disagreed (1) and contained 23-item relating to the civil servants' work environments, which covers such variables as changes within the civil service system, organisational structure, reward systems, leadership style and organisational culture.

The contents of the Organisational Factors Scale were validated using peer review system as well as subjecting it to the criticisms of experts in the area of psychometric evaluation. The criticisms and suggestions made helped in ensuring the validation of the scale. Thereafter, the reliability of the scale was done through a pilot study which was conducted on 15 civil servants in the Osun State Ministry of Education. This was done using the test and re-test reliability test while the Pearson's product moment correlation was used to determine the reliability co-efficient (r) value of 0.84.

3.4.3 Job-Related Stressors Questionnaire

The Job-Related Stressors questionnaire is a self- structured questionnaire that measured the extent to which the personal factors of the civil servants influence their level of job performance. It is designed on the 4- point Likert scale format of Strongly Agreed (4),

Agreed (3), Disagreed (2) and Strongly Disagreed (1), and contained 23- item relating to such factors as workload, work pace, poor fit between abilities and skills, and drive for greater cost- effectiveness.

The contents of the Job-Related Stressors questionnaire were validated using peer review system as well as subjecting it to the criticisms of experts in the area of psychometric evaluation. The criticisms and suggestions made helped to ensure the validation of the instrument. Thereafter, the reliability of the instrument was ascertained through a pilot study which was conducted on 20 civil servants from the Osun State Ministry of Health. This was done using the test and re-test reliability test with a reliability coefficient (r) value of 0.80.

3.4.4 Civil Servants' Performance Rating Scale

The Civil Servants' Performance Rating Scale is a self- structured questionnaire that measured the extent to which the performance level of the civil servants. It is designed on the 4- point Likert scale format of Strongly Agreed (4), Agreed (3), Disagreed (2) and Strongly Disagreed (1) and contained 20- items relating to the civil servants' performance level. The variables covered in rating scale include: task- specific behaviours, non-task specific behaviours, communication task behaviours, level of commitment, personal discipline and level of interpersonal work- relationship exhibited by the individual civil servants.

The contents of the Civil Servants' Performance Rating Scale was validated using peer review system as well as subjecting it to the criticisms of experts in the area of psychometric evaluation in the departments of Psychology, Guidance and Counselling, Teacher Education and Institute of Education of the University of Ibadan.

The criticisms and suggestions made by the experts helped to ensure the validation of the instrument. Thereafter, a reliability coefficient value (r) of 0.76 was obtained and ascertained through a pilot study which was conducted among civil servants in other states outside the selected state for this study.

3.4.5 In-depth Interview (IDI) schedule and guide

The qualitative method of IDI was used as supplement to the survey method in order to ensure that some information that may not be captured by the survey technique is captured through mutual interaction of the researches with the respondents. Besides, this is essential because most of the respondents have negative research value; hence the questionnaire alone may not serve the purpose of getting adequate pieces of information from them. A total of 18 IDI sessions were conducted with respondents across the three cadres in the MDAs. This consisted of three IDI sessions each across the three cadres in the two ministries, departments, and agencies. The IDI sessions were conducted with the aid of discussion guide

and tape recorder to store up responses apart from note taking.

Table 3.2: Schedule of IDI sessions conducted for the study

MDAs	Location of IDI	No of Sessions	Date	No. of Members Per Session
Establishment, Training, and Poverty Alleviation.	Secretariat, Ibadan	3	23 May, 2013	1
Women Affairs, Community Development and Social Welfare	Secretariat, Ibadan	3	6 June, 2013	1
Hospitals Management	Jericho, Ibadan	3	20 June, 2013	1
Boards of Internal Revenue	Secretariat, Ibadan	3	4 July, 2013	1
Council for Arts and Culture	Cultural Centre, Mokola, Ibadan	3	18 July, 2013	1
Civil Service Commission	Secretariat, Ibadan	3	1 August, 2013	1

IDI Guides

1. Relationship between work-related stressors and job performance level in the civil service

2. Employees' personal factors and the job performance level in the civil service

3. Relationship between organisational factors and job performance level in the civil service

4. Performance differentials in the civil service on the basis of staff cadre and MDAs

5. General perception of the civil servants about the current level of job performance in the service and what could be done to raise such to an optimal level.

3.5 **Method of Data Analysis**

For the purpose of data analysis, the quantitative information collected through the four sets of questionnaire were analysed using the descriptive statistics, correlational matrix, t-Test and multiple regression. On the other hand, the qualitative data collected through the IDI were also subjected to content analysis.

Specifically, the multiple regression was used for the data collected on objective (i), while the data collected on objectives (ii), (iii), and (iv) were subjected to correlational matrix using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation. The t-Test analysis was used on data

collected on objective (v) and the descriptive statistics of percentages and mean were used for the demographic data and data for objective (vi).

CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

This chapter deals with the results and analyses of data collected on the field from the respondents as well as the discussion of the findings, based on the research questions raised and hypotheses formulated for the study. The chapter is divided into two major parts, namely Part A and B. The part A deals with the presentation of demographic characteristics of the respondents used in the study, while the B part deals with the presentation of the results on the test of contributions and strength of the relationship among the independent and dependent variables inherent in the study. The presentations of results and findings were done in charts and tables followed with interpretations and detailed discussions.

Part A:
Analysis of Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

This session deals with the presentation of demographic characteristics of the respondents used in the study as contained in the first session of the research instrument administered on the respondents. It contains five types of demographic information on the respondents; each presented in chart, and followed by a detailed discussion.
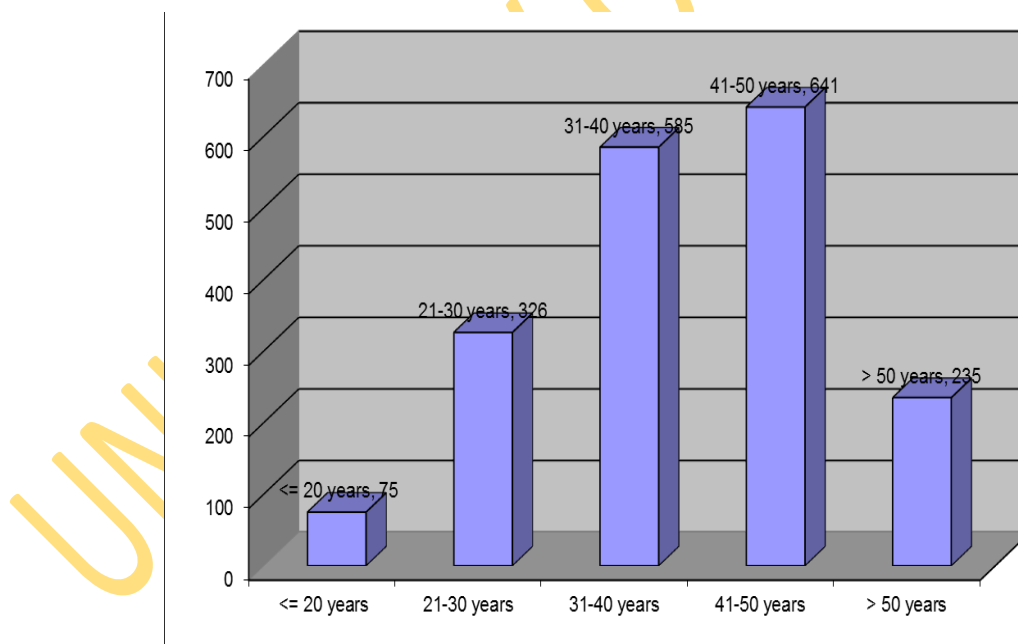
Fig. 4.1: Distribution of Respondents by Age

The result on Fig 4.1 above shows that 4.0% of the respondents were within age 20; 19.0% were within 21-30 years old; 31.0% were within age 31 and 40; 34.0% were within age 41 and 50, while the remaining 17.0% were above 50 years. This revealed that majority of the respondents are between age, 31 and 50. This shows that the majority of the civil

servants are young, agile and vibrant, which in turn should enhance effective civil service delivery.
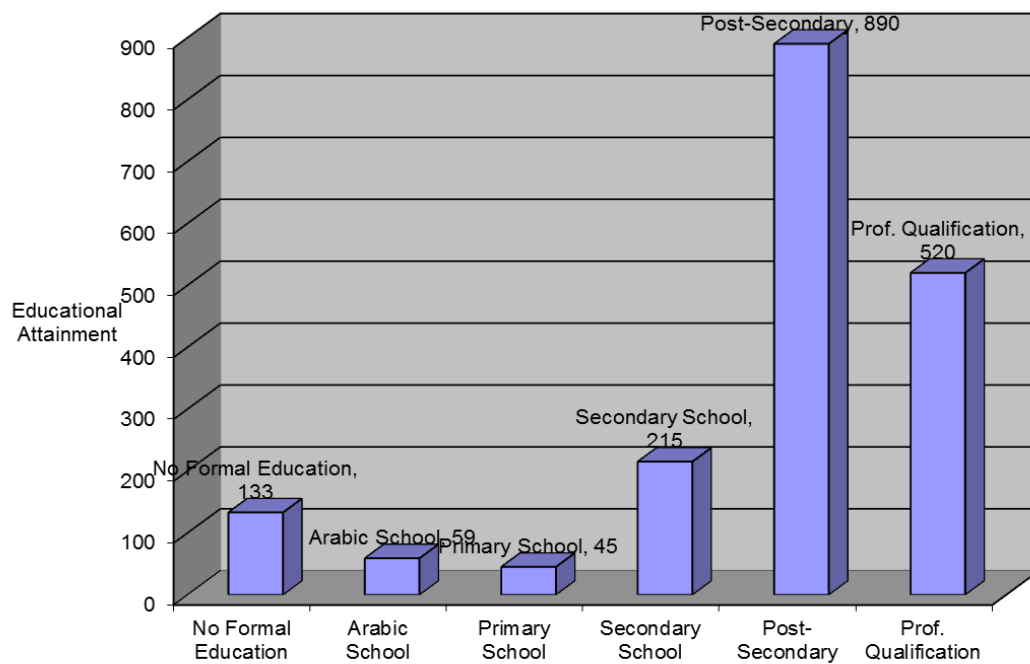
Fig. 4.2: Distribution of Respondents by Educational Attainment

The result in fig. 4.2 showed that 7.0% of the respondents had non-formal education, 3.0% attended Arabic school, 2.0% attended primary school, 12.0% were secondary school leavers, and 48.0% had various post-secondary school certificates while 28.0% of the respondents had professional certificates. This shows that the majority of the respondents are educated above secondary school level, and possess professional certificates. Well educated civil servants are essential tools for enhancing effective civil service.
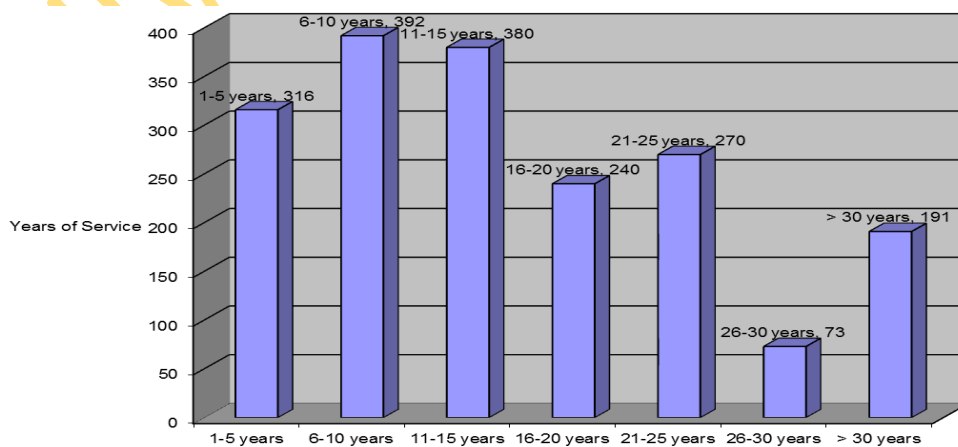
Fig. 4.3. Distribution of Respondents by Years of Service

The result in Fig. 4.3 showed that 17.0 % of the respondents had spent between 1-5 years in service, 21.0% had spent 6-10 years, 20.0% had spent 11-15 years, 13.0% had spent 16-20 years, 15.0% had spent 21-25, 4.0% had spent 26-30, while 10.0% of the respondents had spent more than 30 years in service. Since the majority of the respondents had spent more than 10 years in service, these shows the respondents were well experienced and appropriate for the study.
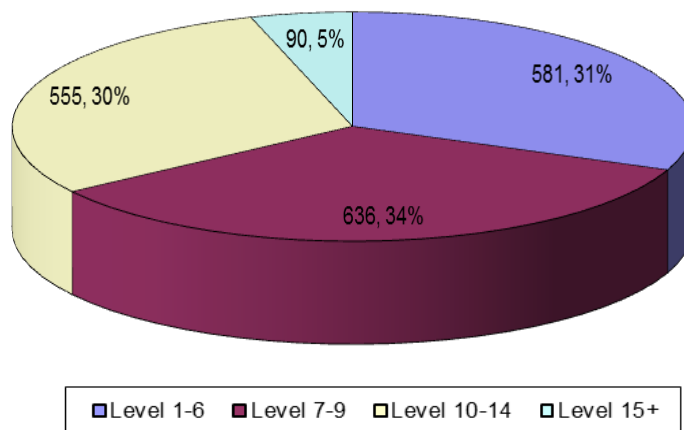
Fig. 4.4. Distribution of Respondents by Grade Level

The result on figure 4 above showed that there were 31.0% respondents on salary grade level 1-6, 34.0% were on grade level 7-9, 30.0% were on grade level 10-14, while 5.0% were on grade level 15 and above. This revealed that the majority of the respondents are senior officers from grade level 7 and above.

<div align="center">

Part B

Presentation of the Results on the Test of Contributions and Strength of the Relationship among the Independent and Dependent Variables

</div>

This session with the presentation of the results pertaining to the test of prediction (and extent of contribution) of the independent variables on the dependent variable as well as their strength of the relationship. The presentations were done on the basis of each research question and hypothesis raised. Each result and finding is clearly presented in a table form, followed with interpretations and detailed discussions.

Joint Predictions of Job-related Stressors, Employees' Personal and Organisational Factors on the Level of Job Performance in the Civil Service of Oyo State

This portion of the Part B of the chapter four deals with the joint predictions of the independent variables on the dependent variables, and it is anchored on research question one (RQ₁) of the study which states that: *to what extent do job-related stressors, employees'*

personal and organisational factors predispose the level of job performance in the civil service of Oyo state? The data collected from the respondents on this, were subjected to multiple regression while the result obtained were presented in table 4.1a and 4.1b; followed by detailed discussion.

Table 4.1a: Joint predictions of job-related stressors, employees' personal and organisational factors on the level of job performance

Model	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	74324.13	13	5717.24	83.38	.00
Residual	126720.79	1848	68.57		
Total	201044.92	1861			

R = .61, R^2 = .37, Adj R^2 = .36

Table 4.1b: Relative predictions of job-related stressors, employees' personal and organisational factors on the level of job performance

Model	Unstandardised Coefficient		Standardised Coefficient	T	Sig.
	B	**Std. Error**	**Beta Contributions**		
(Constant)	18.78	1.75	.04	10.73	.00
Job-related Stressors,	.12	.07	.11	1.80	.07
Employees' Personal Factors	.90	.18		4.93	.00
Organisational Factors	-6.034E-02	.12	.09	1.10	.00

Interpretation and discussion

It was shown in the table 4.1b above that the joint effect of all the three composite independent variables sub-related stressors employees' personal factors and organisational factors on Job Performance was significant ($F_{(13,1848)}$ = 83.38; R = .61, R^2 = .37, Adj. R^2 = .37; p< .05). Besides, 36.5% of the variation was accounted for by the independent variables while the remaining 63.5% was due to chance. This, therefore, reveals that the job performance of civil servants in Oyo state, to a large, extent is being determined by one combination of the three independent variables.

Also, the result of table 4.1b above showed the relative contribution of each of the three independent variables on the job performance of the civil servants needed for the study were as follows: Employees' Personal Factors (β = .11, p<.05), Organisational Factors (β = .088, p<0.05) and Job-related Stressors (β = .041, p>.05). It is noted from the above results

that employees' personal factor's predisposed job performance the most, followed by organisational factors and sub-related stressors respectively.

The study, like many before it, also reveals the effects of the three independent variables on job performance. The combination of all the three composite predictions impacted on the job performance of the civil servants though on a relative degree. This study, therefore, in tune with Matin, Katal and Anwasi (2012), Elovainio et al (2002) and Cox (2004) have shown that either individually or collectively, the independent variable do impacts on the job performance of an average civil servant in Oyo State.

This result was further buttressed with the qualitative information gathered by the researcher through the IDI sessions. Specifically, a discussant in one of the IDI sessions had this to say:

> *With my over 20 years as a civil servant and eight years at the director cadre, I am very cork sure that there are a number of factors that influence the job performance of civil servants among which include the stressors on the job, the system itself and even the individual civil servant themselves.*

Another discussant says:

> *If not for God and cheer determination, the system is highly frustrating and discouraging, but then some of these juniors ones (subordinates) are terrible, very lazy with bad attitudes towards work. They seem to have bad orientations towards work such that they contribute negatively to the general low performance in the service.*

The result further showed that while employees' personal factors had high significant impacts on job performance, the sub-related stressors had very low significant effects on the dependent measure. This result disagrees with the findings of Matin, Kalal, and Anvari.(2012) in their research in which job burnout is considered as independent variable; organisational commitment, intention to leave and the employees" job satisfaction are dependent variables; and the age, gender, marital status and educational level are moderating variables. The results of this study showed that, firstly, the job burnout of employees in organisations leads to the decrease of organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and the increase of intention to leave. Job stresses increases the chances of fatal errors lowering job performance (Kazmi, 2007). Occupational stress inadvertently consequences low organisational performance (Elovainio et al. 2002). A study to examine the sudden changes in

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workload level was designed and carried out by Cox in 2006. The purpose of study was to make direct comparison between sudden increase and decrease in workload situations. Results indicated that performance was significantly impaired for both conditions. Findings suggested that either a sudden decrease (High to Medium) or increase (Low to Medium) workload could result in impaired performance (Cox, 2004).

Job-Related stressors and job performance in the civil service of Oyo State

This portion of the Part B of the chapter four deals with the examination of the extent to which the job-related stressors contribute to the variance in the job performance of civil servants in Oyo state. This section is derived from the results presented in tables 4.2a, 4.2b and 4.2c which were obtained from data collated on the null hypotheses one (HO_1) which states that: *there is no significant relationship between job-related stressors of workload, workpace, poor fit between abilities, and skills, drive for greater cost-effectiveness and job performance level in the civil service*. The data collected from the respondents on this, were subjected to multiple regression as well as correlation matrix while the results obtained were followed by a detailed discussion.

Table 4.2a: Joint predictions of job-related stressors on the level of job performance

Model	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	16690.80	4	4172.70	42.03	.00
Residual	184354.12	1857	99.28		
Total	201044.92	1861			

R = .29, R^2 = .083, Adj R^2 = .081

Table 4.2b: Relative predictions of workload, poor job skills, coping ability and job specification on the level of job performance

Model	Unstandardized Coefficient		Standardized Coefficient	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta Contributions		
(Constant)	52.38	1.56		33.60	.00
Workload	.33	.08	.11	4.23	.00
Poor Job Skills	-.11	.07	-.05	-1.55	.12
Work Pace	.54	.09	.16	5.71	.00
Drive for Greater Cost-Effectiveness	.85	.14	.15	6.08	.00

Interpretation and discussion

It was shown in the table 4.2b above that the joint effect of sub-related stressors of Workload, Workpace, Poor Job Skills, and drive for greater effectiveness on Job Performance was significant ($F(4,1857) = 42.03$; $R = .29$, $R^2 = .08$, Adj. $R^2 = .08$; $p < .05$). About 8.1% of the variation was accounted for by the independent variables while the remaining 91.9% was not due to chance. The result above also showed the relative contributions of each of the components of sub-related stressors on the dependent: Workload ($\beta = .11$, $p < .05$), Poor Job Skills ($\beta = -.05$, $p > .05$), Workpace ($\beta = .16$, $p < .05$) and drive for greater cost-effectiveness ($\beta = .15$, $p < .05$). It was shown in the result above that while Workload, Workpace and due for greater cost-effectiveness were significant, Poor Job Skill was not.

The above result revealed that the lesser the workload of workers, the higher the job performance of workers and would be, the higher the workload, the lesser the job performance. As obtained in this study, a group of Tanzanian health workers pointed in a survey that the higher workloads that the main reason for sub-standard performance or their job schedule (Lindkvist et al., 2008). The majority of the respondents (88.9%) were of the opinion that when a job does not allow for recreation, it is obviously affecting the level of job performance. Hence 85.6% of the respondents submitted that, though the civil service workload is higher but however, it does still allow for recreation. Therefore, it does not totally affect their job performance.

Lack of recreation may lead to stress especially when long hours are being spent at work. Majority 1601 (88.0%) of the respondents submitted that their work load to some extent affects their job performance while 233 (12.0%) disagree on this. One thousand, six hundred and fifty-seven (89.0%) of the respondents agreed that their work load was a little stressful, 68.0% had been working outside their official work schedule while 1182 (73.0%) agreed that their workload was not totally more than what they can cope with.

It also showed that the more the coping ability of workers on a particular jobs the higher the job performance. This agrees with the findings of Bhagat et al., (1991); Griffith, Steptoe, & Cropley, (1999); Ingledew et al., (1997); Parkes, (1990); Shinn et al., 1989) who concluded that the preponderance of evidence shows that correlations between job performance and active coping are significant. When significant correlations are observed, they tend to be relatively modest and are not consistently positive or negative (Nelson & Sutton, 1990; Frone et al., 1991; Kirkcaldy et al., 1995; Day & Livingstone, 2001).

On the issue of satisfaction with the workpace within the civil service, more than half (58.8%) of the respondents were of the opinion that they are satisfied with their workpace

while the remaining 41.2% respondents feel otherwise. In essence, this means that the workpace is seemingly not too hazardous rather, it is conducive and good to the health of most of the respondents.

However, the results disagree with the findings of Scroggins's (2008) in his study where he reported that self-concept-job fit was related to meaningful work. He explained that when the employees perceived self-concept-job fit as they are highly skilled in adjusting towards job implementation, they tend to experience meaningful feeling towards job. As the employees are highly fit with their job, they may feel that their effort, time, and energy in performing job are valuable and worthwhile than representing high meaningful works. Of all the independent variables, coping ability influences job performance than any other independent variables. Only 614 (33.0%) of the respondents agreed they possess all necessary skills needed to function effectively in their workplace, 502 (27.0%) agreed that they have what it takes to cope with the work pace in their work place. However, most of the respondents (96.4%) were of the opinion that they obviously need more training to update their knowledge and skills to be able to function more effectively. This is with the aim of meeting up with the demand and challenges of a dynamic civil service.

There are indications from the results and findings of this study that there is a mix feeling about adaptation to the changes in the civil service system. Some of the respondents (39.8%) were of the opinion that they are finding it difficult, relatively, to adapt to changes within the service while about 50.2% of the respondents feel contrary. But the remaining 10.0% were neither too sure of how they felt or adapt to such changes. Nevertheless, all the respondents agreed that employees' adaptation to changes obviously had serious implications for their performance. The research was able to deduce from the result that the age and marital status of the respondents had a lot to do with their level of adaptation to changes within the civil service. The younger, the better the level of adaptation and when the employees are not married or out of marriage, particularly the females, the better their level of adaptation. This finding lends credence to some of the past studies on performance (Hamida & Yahya, 2011.)

Of particularly interest is the issue of the state government's alone for greater civil-effectiveness in the civil service. About 63.4% of the respondents agreed that this drive has an adverse effect on their level of performance. Even though, they all agreed that there is the need for civil servants to be cost-effective in the course of performing their responsibilities. To those (63.4%) who complain about the drive for greater cost-effectiveness in the civil

service, the service was fast becoming too fast while the latter group (36.6%) who felt comfortable with the drive, the system was neither too slow nor too fast.

The result showed that there was a significant relationship between person-job fit and person-organisation fit with employees' work engagement. This revealed that employees who fit with their job and organisation, in terms of possessing knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) could influence employees work engagement that could, in turn, benefit the organisation. The relationship result between person-job fit and work engagement was supported by Scroggins's (2008) study which reported positive influence of self-concept-job fit on meaningful work.

Table 4.2c: **Correlation matrix between job performance and job-related stressors of workload, work-pace, poor fit between abilities, skills and drive for greater cost-effectiveness**

	Job Performance	Workload	Poor fit between abilities and Job Skills	Work-pace	Drive for greater Cost-Effectiveness
Job Performance	1				
Workpace	.19**	1			
Poor job skills	.16**	.53**	1		
Drive for greater effectiveness	.23**	.42**	.55**	1	
Workload	.21**	.25**	.40**	.36**	1
Mean	72.07	16.71	20.46	16.86	8.56
S.D	10.39	3.5026	4.491	3.05	1.83

** Sig. at .01 level

To complement the tables 4.2a and 4.2b above; table 4.2c showed that there was a positive significant relationship between the job performance of the study's respondents and the components of job-related stressors are as follows: drive for greater cost effectiveness (r = .23); work load (r = .21); workpace (r = .19) and poor fit between abilities/skills (r = .16). This result shows that although all the components of job-related stressors correlated with civil service job performance, but drive for greater cost-effectiveness and workload impacted the most.

Employees' personal factors and job performance in the civil service of Oyo state

This portion deals with the examination of the extent to which components of Employees' personal factors contribute to the variance of the job performance of civil servants in Oyo state. This section is derived from the results presented in tables 4.3a, 4.3b and 4.3c which were obtained from data collated on the null hypotheses two (HO$_2$) which states that: *there is no relationship between employees' work-life conflict, coping skills, demographic characteristics, personality traits and job performance level in the civil service.* The data collected from the respondents on this, were subjected to multiple regression as well as correlational matrix while the results obtained were followed by a detailed discussion.

Table 4.3a: Joint predictions of employees' personal factors on the level of job performance

Model	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	56819.79	4	14204.94	182.90	.00
Residual	144225.13	1857	77.67		
Total	201044.92	1861			

R = .53, R^2 = .28, Adj R^2 = .28

Table 4.3b: Relative predictions of work-life conflict, coping skills, personality traits and demographic characteristics on the level of job performance

Model	Unstandardized Coefficient		Standardized Coefficient	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta Contributions		
(Constant)	30.12	1.59		18.95	.00
Work-life Conflict	1.18	.19	.15	6.12	.00
Coping Skills	.40	.05	.23	8.68	.00
Personality Traits	.97	.18	.12	5.28	.00
Demographic Characteristics	.29	.05	.17	6.25	.00

Interpretation and Discussion:

It was shown in the table 4.3a above that the joint effects of work-life Conflict, Coping Skills, Personality Traits and Demographic Characteristics on Job Performance was significant ($F_{(4,1857)}$ = 182.90; R = .58, R^2 = .28, Adj. R^2 = .28; p< .05). About 28.0% of the

variation was accounted for by the independent variables while the remaining 72.0% was not due to chance.

The result above showed the relative contribution of each of the independent variables on the dependent: Work-life Conflict (β = .15, p<.05), Coping Skills (β = .23, p<.05), Personality Traits (β = .12, p<.05) and Demographic Characteristics (β = .17, p <.05). It is, therefore noted in the result above, that all the four independent variables were significant. As revealed by the result, out of all the four components of employees' personal factors, coping skills and demographic characteristics have the highest contribution to job performance. This is because to most of the respondents, both work and other life activities take equal proportion of their time. This is followed by the work-life conflict and personality traits of the respondents. The coping skills of the civil servants with β=.23 is an important observed employees' personal factor that also impact on job performance in the civil service. Most of the respondents (88.0%) agreed that the civil service required an element of individual coping strategies that can make the individual to survive and strive on the job.

Notably, almost all the respondents were of the opinion that if a civil servant did not like what it took to cope on the job and more importantly to ensure a balance in work-life situation such as employee would surely be an under-achiever. Hence, every civil servant needs the good traits of personality, and this is why the personality traits variables were next to the cope skills and followed lastly by the demographic characteristics.

An IDI interviewee had this to say:

> *My brother, the only way to stay on the job is to know your way! Understand yourself, your body system and do not try to be another person. Because I know myself and I try as much as possible to be myself that's why I do not have a problem on this job.*

Yet another says:

> *I have entered this job for almost 20 years and have always enjoy every bit of it because I have developed a coping strategy for myself. I do not look at anybody beside me, I just do my work the way my system allows me. "Se bí o ti mo lewà sàpón."*

Like Anwar and Shahzad (2011), in their study of the impact of work-life conflict on perceived employee performance in Pakistan, this study reveals that there is statistically significant positive relationship between work life conflict and employee performance. The incompatibility and misbalance of work and life activities, which is called work-life conflict, have stern effects on job performance (Kinnunen, Feldt, Geruts & Pulkkinen, 2006; Fritz &

Sonnentag, 2006). Also the results from this study revealed that 73.4% of the respondents were contented with working in the civil service while the remaining 26.6% were not. Those who were not contented argued that the civil service does not give them the kind of job satisfaction they desired, because it does not allow them to strike a balance between their work and life activities mostly in the area of social and financial commitments. The latter group argued that even though their job schedules allow them to give equal attention to their jobs and personal issues; the civil service job does not guarantee the fulfilment of life dreams and goals. Hence, the need for them to change their jobs as soon as the opportunity is available. While some (16.1%) responded yes to the fact that their spouse (and children) support the idea of the need and desire to change their jobs; others felt the decision is solely theirs.

This result is contrary to various studies on the relationship between demographic variables and burnout among nurses and teachers (Schaufelli et al., 2009). Researchers like Cordes and Dougherty (1997) report that the rate of burnout among married employees is less than single ones, and researchers such as Jackson (1993) have found significant differences among employees' burnout in terms of gender, age and marital status. There are also researchers who have not reported a significant relationship between demographic variables and burnout (Friedman & Faber, 1992; Dillon & Tanner, 1995). Overall, a kind of remarkable disharmony is seen regarding the relations between demographic variables and burnout in academic researches. If resolvable, it could help HR professionals devising more objective preventive plans to reduce job burnout (Brewer & Shapard, 2004). The result also agrees with the findings of Adio and Popoola who revealed in their studies that demographic characteristics have a significant relationship with career commitment. The finding is in accordance with the findings of Meyer and Allen (1984), Gruskey (1996), and Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982), who affirmed that age, job status, and educational level have a significant relationship with career commitment. In terms of relationship between gender and work performance, previous studies (Igbaria & Shayo, 2007., Crawford and Nonis, 1996 and Shaiful Anuar, et al, 2009) reported that gender did not have a significant impact on work performance.

According to a major Canadian study conducted by Lowe (2005), 1 in 4 employees experience high levels of conflict between work and family, based on work-to-family interference and caregiver strain. Personality has been found to account for unique variance in performance, after partialling out the effects of cognitive ability. McHenry, Hough,

Toquam, Hansom, and Ashworth (1990) found that the competencies of personal discipline and physical fitness were better predicted by personality and temperament than by ability.

On work-life conflict, 1359 (73.0%) of the respondents submitted that they were contended with their job while 503 (27.0%) did not, 1266 (68.0%) agreed that their jobs allow them to fulfill their life dream or goal, and 1508 (81.0%) agreed that they give equal attention to jobs as well as their personal issues. Again, 1154 (62.0%) of the respondents were able to separate their social life from their work life so there is no conflict between their social and work-life-life.

On coping skills, 1434 (77.0%) of the civil servants involved in the study agreed that they possessed necessary skills which enable them to cope with their jobs as civil servants, 1229 (66.0%) submitted that their personal interest did not in any way affect their work performance, while 1657 (89.0%) had positive attitude to their work.

On personality traits, 1382 (76.0%) of the respondents noted that their mood had to do with their work performance, 1508 (81.0%) had a good personality at work while 1061 (57.0%) of them were always cheerful and jovial at work.

On demographic characteristics, 1732 (93%) of the respondents submitted that it was only when they had money that they worked better and that when they did not have money, their work performance became low. Also, 1657 (89%) agreed that conflicts at home affect their work performance while 115 (62 %) were of the opinion that their religion affected their relationship, judgment at work and their work performance, while 1099 (59%) agreed that the number of children they have had a lot to do with their work performance.

Table 4.3c: Correlation matrix between job performance and employees personal factors of work-life conflict, coping skills, personality traits and demographic characteristics

	Job Performance	Work-life conflict	Coping Skills	Pers. Trait	Demo Charact
Job Performance	1				
Work-life conflict	.39**	1			
Coping skills	.46**	.48**	1		
Pers. Trait	.37**	.45**	.46**	1	

Demo charact.	.44**	.45**	.63**	.46**	1
Mean	72.07	6.29	41.43	6.32	40.02
S.D	10.40	1.28	5.98	1.33	5.91

** Sig. at .01 level

To also complement the multiple regression results that showed the contention of each of the employees' personal factors, the correlation matrix table 4.3c revealed that all the four variables had a strong positive significant relationship with job performance with overall mean at 72.07 and standard deviation of 10.39. However, the relative correlations were as ranked: coping skills ($r = .464$); demographic characteristics ($r = .435$); work-life conflict ($r = .388$) and personality traits ($r = .372$).

Organisational Factors and Job Performance in the Civil Service of Oyo State

This deals with the examination of the extent to which components of Employees' personal factors contribute to the variance of the job performance of civil servants in Oyo state. This section is derived from the results presented in tables 4.4a, 4.4b and 4.4c which were obtained from the data collated on the null hypotheses three (HO_3) which states that: *there is no relationship between changes within the civil service system, organisational structure, reward system, leadership styles, organisational culture and job performance level in the civil service.* The data collected from the respondents on this, were subjected to multiple regression as well as correlational matrix while the results obtained were followed by a detailed discussion.

Table 4.4a: Joint predictions of organisational factors on the level of job performance

Model	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	50372.09	6	10074.41	124.10	.00
Residual	150672.83	1856	81.18		
Total	201044.92	1861			

R = .50, R^2 = .25, Adj R^2 = .25

Table 4.4b: Relative predictions of changes within the civil service, record system, leadership style, organisational structure and organisational culture on the level of job performance

Model	Unstandardised Coefficient		Standardised Coefficient	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta Contributions		
(Constant)	37.49	1.43		26.19	.00
Changes within Civil Service	.36	.07	.14	5.28	.00
Reward System	.62	.12	.14	5.23	.00
Leadership Style	.24	.13	.05	1.83	.07
Organisational Structure	1.14	.10	.26	10.92	.00
Organisational Culture	.28	.07	.10	4.16	.00

Interpretation and Discussion

It was shown in the table above that the joint effect of independent variables Changes within the Civil Service, Record System, Leadership Style, Organisational Structure and Organisational Culture on Job Performance was significant ($F_{(5,1856)} = 124.10$; R = .50, R^2 = .25, Adj. R^2 = .25; p< .05). About 25.0% of the variation was accounted for by the independent variables while the remaining 75.0% was not due to chance. The result above shows the relative contribution of each of the independent variables on the dependent: Changes within Civil Service (β = .14, p<.05), Reward System (β = .14, p<.05), Leadership Style (β = .05, p>.05), Organisational Structure (β = .26, P <.05) and Organisational Culture (β = .10, p<.05). Obviously, the organisational structure had the highest contribution to job preference, using the civil servants used for this study. This is followed relatively by changes within the civil service and the reward system. The organisational culture and leadership style were the least in that order. Results above showed that while changes within the civil service, record system, organisational structure and organisational culture were significant, leadership style was not.

Findings of researches showed that culture and performance were considered interrelated. (Lim, 1995) The sustainable competitive advantage of organisational competencies has been related to superior and imitable relationship with competitors (Saa-Pe're & Garcia-Falcon, 2002). The value of culture based upon degree of performance has been managed with practitioners and academics (Denison, 1990). Generally, this study

together with many other earlier researches had revealed that there is a possible relationship between organisational culture and performance (Seihl & Martin, 1998; Denison, 1990; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Maani, Putterill & Stuti, 1994; Petty, Beadles & Lowery, 1995; Lim, 1995). Ehtesham, Masood and Muhammad (2011), in their study of the relationship between organisational culture and performance management practices, concluded that organisational culture has a positive significant relationship with the performance management practices.

On the civil service reforms or changes within the civil service, 77.0% of the civil servants involved in the study agreed that civil service reforms affect their performance, they are of the opinion that positive changes in the civil service enhance workers' performance while changes that affect worker negatively will not enhance workers' performance.

On reward system, 1825 (98.0%) of the respondents agreed that increase in salary of workers will positively affect their performance, and that any reduction in workers' salary will have negative influence on workers' performance. Again, 1713 (92.0%) are of the opinion that giving incentives to workers will enhance workers' performance. In relation to promotion, 1657 (89.0%) of the respondents agreed that regular promotions enhance better job performance while delay in promotions negatively affect workers' performance. It is also observed by 1471 (79.0%) of the respondents that workers who are working as permanent staff perform better than those who are working as casual staff.

On leadership style, 1694 (910%) of the respondents agreed that the leadership style affects job performance, 1583 (85.0%) submitted that while the democratic leadership enhances better work performance, autocratic leadership will negatively affect workers' performance.

On organisational structure 1639 (88.0%)of the respondents submitted that conducive environment enhances better workers' performance while a poor working environment will negatively affect workers' performance. Again, 1285 (69.0%) of the workers involved in the study are of the opinion that a working environment free of hazards promotes better work performance while hazardous environment will negatively affect workers' performance.

On organisational culture, 1229 (66.0%) of the respondents submitted that a good organisational culture in the civil service would promote a better work performance while poor organisational culture would negatively affect job performance. It was also observed by 1359 (73.0%) of the respondents that the civil service tradition enhances workers' performance while 503 (27.0%) of them disagreed.

Generally, all the respondents agreed that the organisational structure of the civil service had a lot to do with their performance on the job. Notably, 93.0% of the respondents

were of the opinion that reporting to too many bosses had a great impact on their performance. Some (75.6%) of them were also of the opinion that the several service reforms, most often, affect workers' performance in the system.

On the issue of salary and reward system, 97.8% of the respondents believed that an increment in salary would positively affect performance, while they also concluded that any reduction on their salary would also negatively affect them. Of particular interest is this IDI respondent that says:

> *Why do you think I left my home to work? It is because of the salary that I'll get at the end of the month or do you think I came to this secretariat to count the number of cars and bridges? I beg nobody is here just because of fun, na money, we all come look for.*

The study, therefore, like so many before it, concluded that giving incentives to workers, generally would go a long way to impact positively on the job performance. On the issue of leadership within the service, most of the respondents opined that the leadership structure and system in the civil service was nothing to write home about. This was confirmed by an IDI interviewee:

> *The leadership style is the worst compared with what operates in the private sector. People do not motivate you here. Once they become an 'oga' they do whatever they like. And you know the system is such that you have to wait for your turn. S,o there is no good leadership example here.*

Apart from this, almost all the respondents said that the working environment of the civil service is not all encouraging to work in. Their perception was that the civil service does not have a perfect conducive working environment that positively enhances optional performance level. Although, they agreed that the environment was not hazardous (hundred percent of the civil servants) but they believed that the organisational culture could not be compared with what operates in most private sector organisations. According to them, the tradition of the civil service over the years is completely bad and there is the need to overhaul it. An IDI respondent says: "*The system is that of where baboon they work, monkey they cop; whether you work or you no work, you go collect your salary at the end of the month.*" Another says: "*For here, people no dey sweat for work! If you see anybody wey they sweat for this office, na 'àmàlà' that person chop finish.*"

The above picture painted showed that the organisational factors in the civil service is so terrible that it brings about negative job performance among all categories of the civil

servants. The findings of this study, therefore corroborate the findings of many scholars before it.

Table 4.4: Correlation matrix between job performance and organisational factors of changes within the civil service, reward system, leadership style, organisational structure and organisational culture

	Job Performance	Civil Service	Record System	Leadership style	Org. structure	Org. culture
Job Performance	1					
Changes within the civil service system	.38**	1				
Reward system	.37**	.43**	1			
Organisational structure	.42**	.41**	.49**	.32**	1	
Organisational culture	.25**	.49**	.16**	.38**	.17**	1
Mean	72.07	22.32	9.27	8.37	12.74	15.72
S.D	10.39	4.12	2.27	1.10	2.38	3.70

** Sig. at .01 level

To also complement the results of the multiple regression that showed the contributions of the organisational factors to the job performance of civil servants, the correlational matrix table 4.4c showed that all the organisational factors positively correlated with job performance. Their relative correlations with job performance were as follows: organisational structure (r = .417), changes within the service (r = .378), reward system (r = .365) and operational culture (r = .251).

Observed performance differentials in ministries and departments

There was the given assumption that the general performance of civil servants is low, therefore, this portion deals with the examination of the performance differentials in the civil service on the basis of MDAs as observed in the responses and perception of the respondents used in this study. This section is derived from the results presented in tables 4.5a, 4.5b, 4.5c, 4.5d and 4.5e which were obtained from the data collated on the null hypotheses four (HO_4) which states that: *there are no significant differences in performance level in the civil*

service on the basis of MDAs. The data collected from the respondents on this, were subjected to t- Test while the results obtained were followed by a detailed discussion.

(A)   Performance differentials in departments:

Table 4.5a: ANOVA table showing the significant differences in the Job Performance of the respondents across departments

Source	Sum of square	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.	Eta square
Corrected model (Explained)	1379.31	6	229.88	2.14	.05	.01
Departments (Main effect)	1379.31	6	229.88	2.14	.05	.01
Error (Residual)	199665.62	1855	107.64			
Corrected total	201044.92	1861				

Table 4.5b: Table showing the mean scores of the analysis of performance differentials in departments

Departments	Mean	S.D	N
Boards of Internal Revenue	72.50	10.80	.37
Universal Basic Education	71.33	9.97	.23
Post Primary School Teaching Service Commission	70.40	12.17	.29
Road Maintenance Agency	72.49	10.29	.23
Hospitals Management	72.66	9.34	.27
Solid Waste Management Authority	72.09	9.75	.24
Pension Board	73.11	9.27	.23
Total	72.07	10.39	1862

Interpretation and Discussion

In the table above, it was revealed that there was a significant difference in the Job Performance of the respondents by Departments ($F_{(6,1855)}$ = 2.14, p<.05). The Null hypothesis is, therefore, rejected. From the above result, it was revealed that there was a differential in the job performance of civil servants across the seven departments that were used for the study. The Pension Board had the highest job performance level ($\bar{x}$=72.11) followed by the hospital management ($\bar{x}$=72.66), and Board of Internal Revenue ($\bar{x}$=72.50), maintenance agency ($\bar{x}$=72.49), and solid waste management authority ($\bar{x}$=72.09) respectively. Next to the initial five departments are the Universal Basic Education Board ($\bar{x}$=71.33) and TESCOM ($\bar{x}$=70.40) in that order.

The argument of the respondents is that the general performance of the government department is, greatly, being determined by the leadership of such department. Obviously, the effectiveness of the leadership of these seven departments cannot be adjudged to be on the same level. Hence, the higher the level of the leadership effectiveness and capacity to motivate other employees to greater height, the higher will be the performance level. Apart from this, there is also the argument that the calibre of those who constitute the board of management/directors will also impact on the performance level of such department. The majority of the respondents of the opinion that the personalities as well as the vision of these board members impact directly on the employees in the departments.

The findings of the study also showed that one other major reason why there was a differential in performance level across the department was the fact that the present government of the state on assumption of office did reconstitute the membership of the boards of some of the important departments to ensure effective and better service delivery in the state. Those that were mainly affected were the first five higher level of performance differentials. The governor of the state, (Senator Abiola Ajimobi), once, said that he was reconstituting the boards of the departments so that the citizens of the state could have access to the dividend of democracy.

(B)   Performance Differentials in Ministries

Table 4.5c: ANOVA table showing the significant difference in the job performance of the respondents by ministries

Source	Sum of square	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.	Eta square
Corrected model(Explained)	2058.61	9	228.74	2.13	.02	.01
Ministry (Main effect)	2058.61	9	228.74	2.13	.02	.01
Error(Residual)	198986.30	1852	107.44			
Corrected total	201044.92	1861				

Table 4.5d. Mean scores of the analysis among the ministries used

Ministries	Mean	S.D	N
Education	71.40	12.37	204
Commerce/Cooperatives	70.72	10.33	206
Health	70.87	9.82	166
Land & Housing	73.18	9.27	152

Justice	72.70	8.73	148
Environment/Water Resource	73.01	9.37	172
Information/culture/Tourism	72.10	10.14	196
Women Affairs, C.D., S.W.	72.94	9.67	204
Works/Transports	70.70	11.29	205
Establishment/Training/Poverty	73.48	11.17	209
Alleviation	72.07	10.39	1862
Total			

Interpretation and Discussion

The results on tables 4.5c and 4.5d indicate that there exist a significant difference in the job performance of the ministries sampled ($F_{(9,1852)} = 2.12$; $p < 0.05$). Observably, the job performance of civil servants serving the ten ministries sampled differ from one another with an average mean ($\bar{x}$) of 72.07. However, the Ministry of Establishment had the overall mean ($\bar{x}$) of 73.48, while the Ministry of Works and Transports had the lowest mean ($\bar{x}$) of 70.69).

Like it is observed in job performance differentials in the departments; the differences in job performance of ministries could also be attributed to the qualities as well as the personalities of the crops of management staff in each of the ministries. Particularly the attitudinal dispositions of the permanent secretaries in each of the ministries; which are expected to give the right orientation and direction to other senior and junior staff.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study investigated the extent to which Job-related stressors; employees' personal and organisational factors predispose job performance of Civil Servants in Oyo state, Nigeria. This chapter, therefore, presents the summary of the study, conclusions, recommendations, limitations to the study and contributions to knowledge as well as suggestions for future studies.

5.1   Summary

The study followed the University approved sequential format of five chapters; starting from the first chapter which is the general introduction to the fifth chapter that ends the study. The first chapter covers the background to the study, statement of the problem, objectives to the study, research questions, significance of the study and the delimitation of the study. To end this chapter, some terms that appeared ambiguous were, carefully, defined under the operational definition of terms so as to aid a better understanding of the variables as well as the concept used in the study.

The second chapter of this study covers a comprehensive review of past but related literature on the independent (job-related stressor, employees' personal and organisational factors) and dependent variables (civil service job performance). Besides, a detailed review of the origin, structure, challenges and prospects of the civil service was also extensively done. All these were done with a view to linking the present study with the past studies, so as to be able to show, critically, the gap that this present study will be filling in literature. Apart from this, a theoretical review of the Person- Environment Fit theory was undertaken with a view to using the assumption that performance level in the Oyo state civil service may be adduced to stress arisen not only from the individuals or work environment separately, but by their combinations. Hence, deducing from the theoretical review, a framework guiding future studies like this was developed by this researcher. This chapter ended with four formulated null hypotheses that guided the analysis and discussion of the findings.

The third chapter of the study was on a vivid and detailed explanation of how the study was conducted by this researcher. This comprises of the research design, population, sample and sampling techniques adopted and instrumentation as well as the procedure adopted for data analysis.

The fourth chapter of the study contained the different results and findings obtained from the field, their interpretations and detailed discussions on each of the findings. The demographic information collected on the respondents of the study were presented through

the use of descriptive statistic of bar and pie charts followed by detailed discussion on each. The correlational matrix, t- Test and multiple regression analyses were employed for the analysis of data collected on the field by the researcher relating to core focus of this research. These were complemented with the qualitative method of in-depth interview. The findings of this study revealed that:

(i)   Job-Related stressors; employees' personal and organisational factors significantly predisposed job performance of Civil Servants in Oyo state, Nigeria ($F_{(13, 1848)}$= 83.376, p> 0.05),

(ii)   there is a positive significant joint prediction of Job-Related stressors on job performance of Civil Servants ($F_{(4, 1857)}$= 42.032, p> 0.05). Each of coping ability (r=.232), job specification (r=.215), workload (r=.192) and poor job skills (r=.160) positively correlated with job performance;

(iii)   there is also a positive significant joint prediction of personal factors on job performance of Civil Servants ($F_{(4, 1857)}$= 182.899, p> 0.05). Each of coping skills (r=.464), demographic characteristics (r=.435), work-life conflict (r=.388) and personality traits (r=.372) positively correlated with job performance;

(iv)   there is a positive significant joint prediction of organisational factors on job performance of Civil Servants ($F_{(5, 1856)}$= 124.097, p> 0.05). Each of organisational structure (r=.417), changes within the civil service system (r=.378), reward system (r=.365), leadership style (r=.308) and organisational culture (r=.251);

(v)   there exist significant differences in the job performance of the ministries and department sampled.

However, the last chapter which is the fifth presented the summary of the entire study, conclusion and recommendations. The contribution of the study to knowledge, limitations of the study and suggestions for further studies were also contained in five.

5.2   **Conclusion**

Having examined the extent to which job-related stressors; employees' personal and organisational factors jointly and relatively predisposed job performance of Civil Servants in Oyo state, Nigeria; this study, therefore, concludes as follows:

(i)   that job-related stressors; employees' personal and organisational factors positively predicted job performance of civil servants in Oyo state, Nigeria,

(ii)   that each of coping ability, job specification, workload and job skills was important criterion in enhancing the job performance of individual civil servants,

(iii) that the individual demographic characteristics, personality traits and work-life conflicts as well as coping skills were essential ingredients to consider if the performance level in the civil service sector is to be improved upon,

(iv) that such organisational factors as the organisational structure, reward system, leadership style, organisational culture and changes within the civil service system were of equal importance in determining the performance of civil servants.

5.3 Recommendations

Premised on the findings as well as the conclusion of this study, the researcher, therefore, recommends as follows:

(i) That the coping abilities and skills of every individual civil servant should be taken into cognisance when job schedules and assignments are given out.

(ii) If the performance level in the civil service sector should be at optimal, the job specification of each employee should be well defined and such individual should be saddled with workloads that match his/her skill. This will greatly eliminate ambiguity and role conflicts among the civil servants, and besides, it will reduce stress associated with work schedules.

(iii) Individual demographic characteristics such as age, sex, marital status and number of children should serve as salient factors in assigning critical responsibilities and assignments in the civil service system. This will help to minimise excuses and absenteeism on the job and more importantly it will help to reduce the rate of work-life conflicts among the rank-and- file of the civil servants.

(iv) Managerial staff should be well grounded in the imports of personality traits on work performance. Hence, there is the need to train employees in the senior and managerial cadre (grade level 7 and above) in the area of organisational, psychological and to formally institute work support counselling services in all ministries and departments.

(v) There is also a need for re-orientation of employees, so that there can be an attitudinal change within the service. The existing traditional culture of 'this is how it is done' must change among the rank and file of the employees. Particularly, the leadership must be flexible enough to accommodate innovations, creativity and ingenuity among their subordinates. The leadership of the service must be ready to abandon the rigid and colonial style of leadership to create a conducive and work friendly environment where every civil servant will be free and safe to work.

(vi)   In this essence, there is the need to change the organisational structure of the civil service to accommodate all and sundry. This is with a view to ensuring a proper fits between the person of the individual civil servants and their work environment.

(vii)   There is also the need to review and modify the reward system within the service in such a way that civil servants are properly recognised, acknowledged, compensated and rewarded accordingly. This will go a long way to eliminating mediocrity tendencies and instituting meritocracy within the civil service.

(viii)   Of equal importance is the need to ensure that every employee is carried along when there are changes within the system. They should be a part of the decision for change; this will allow for quick and easy adaptation to changes among the employees.

(ix)   Above all, all the Job-Related stressors; employees' personal and organisational factors studied in this research work should always be given critical considerations when issues pertaining to job performance among civil servants is being considered in Oyo state, in particular, and Nigeria in general.

5.4   Contributions to Knowledge

The contributions which this thesis made to knowledge included the following:

(i)   That job-related stressors; employees' personal and organisational factors were essential factors in determining job performance of civil servants.

(ii)   Coping ability, job specification, workload and job skills were important criteria in enhancing the job performance of individual civil servants,

(iii)   the individual demographic characteristics, personality traits and work-life conflicts as well as coping skills were essential ingredients in enhancing performance level of civil servants.

(iv)   Organisational structure, reward system, leadership style, organisational culture contributed to improved performance level among civil servants.

5.5   Limitations to the Study

Like it is expected in a research of this magnitude, the researcher faced some challenges in the course of carrying out this study, though this is not enough to invalidate the results and findings of the study. The major challenge that this study faced was the delay in obtaining approval from the office of the Head of Service of the state as a result of the bureaucracy associated with the civil service. After the general approval by the Head of Service, the researcher was also faced with the problem of non- autonomous of some agencies and departments, as directors and chairmen of such agencies and departments had to

seek the directives of the supervising ministries before permission was granted for the research to be conducted in their establishments.

Besides, the civil service rule of confidentiality affected the process of data collection as most of the respondents were reluctant to respond to the researcher. Apart from this, there was also the problem of unavailability of the majority of respondents during the normal office hours to assist in on- the- spot filling of the questionnaire due to their work schedules. The nonchalant attitude as well as the incessant demand for tips by some civil servants before they could agree to serve as respondents in the study also created bottleneck for easy process of data collection.

There was also the erroneous belief among some civil servants that the result/outcome of the research might be used by the state government to get rid of redundant civil servants, particularly where the focus of the research is performance- based. This thinking arises because of the rift between the state government and the Labour movements over agitation on the new minimum wage. Finally, the low level of education of some of the junior cadre civil servants used as respondents did not also help matters either. They did not attach much importance to the whole essence of the research. This to some extent affected the way they handled the filling of the questionnaire given to them.

The above limitations notwithstanding, the research results and findings as well as recommendations emanating from them are not in any way affected and invalidated by the above listed limitations.

5.6 Suggestions for future studies

The limitations to this study are pointers to the facts that there is a need for further research studies. The scope could be wider to include more ministries, departments and agencies that are outside the scope of this study. There is a need to also have a research that will focus on the performance of the civil servants in the third- tier of government in the state (i.e the 33 Local government councils). Further, there could also be an empirical attempt to determine the performance level of public servants in other parastatals owned by the state government, namely the state university, polytechnics, the colleges of education and college of Agriculture.

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Faculty of Education,

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Questionnaire

      This research is focused on determining the extent to which **Job-Related Stressors, Employees' Personal and Organisational Factors as determinants of Job Performance in the Civil Service of Oyo State, Nigeria.** The information gathered will be treated in strict confidence and used only for the purpose of this research. The utmost sincerity and cooperation of respondents will be of paramount importance to enable the researcher obtain factual information for the success of this research.

                Thank you.

Identification/Demographic Information

1.   State: ……………………………………………………………………………….

2.   Ministry/ Department /Agency:……………………………………………………

3.   Age:………………………………………………………………..…………….

4.   Gender: (a) (Male)……………………………..…Female…………..…………….

5.   Marital Status: (a) Single ……………………..…. (b) Married……………..…….

       (c) Widow(er) ……………………..…… (d)   Divorced………………..…….

6.   Educational Level:(a) No Formal Education ……………(b) Arabic School …………..(c) Primary School…………

       .(d)Secondary School………………….. (e) Post-Secondary ………………….

      (f) Professional Qualification……………

7.   Year of service:…………………………………………………….…………

8.   Cadre:…………………………………………………………………..……….

9.   Grade Level:……………….. ……………………………………….………

10.   Designation:……………………………………………………….............

Job-Related Stressors Questionnaire

S/N	QUESTIONNAIRE- ITEM	SA	A	SD	D
1.	My work over load allows for recreation.				
2.	My work over load does not in any way affect my job performance.				
3.	My workload is not more than what I can cope with.				

4.	I have been working within my schedule of duties.				
5.	My schedule of duties is not stressful.				
6.	I have not been working outside my schedule of duties.				
7.	I am satisfied with my place of work.				
8.	My working environment is conducive to good health.				
9.	My workplace is free from any hazard.				
10.	My workplace is illuminated and ventilated.				
11.	Getting to my workplace is not stressful.				
12.	I have all what it takes to function in my place of work.				
13.	I possess the necessary skills that my work demands.				
14.	I do not need any training to function in my workplace.				
15.	I am capable of adapting to changes in my workplace.				
16.	The work in the service is too slow for me.				
17.	The work in the service is becoming too fast for me.				
18.	The workplace is always affecting my performance.				
19.	There is a good fit between my abilities and my work schedules.				
20.	There is also a good fit between my skills and my work schedule.				
21.	There is the need to upgrade my abilities and skills to meet up with my work demand.				
22.	The drive for greater cost-effectiveness has no effect on my performance.				
23.	There is the need for every civil servants to be cost-effective in the course of performing his/her responsibilities				

Employees' Personal Factors Scale

S/N	QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS	SA	A	SD	D
1.	I am contended with my work				
2.	My work allows me to fulfill my dream of life or life goal.				
3.	I need to change my job in order to fulfill my dream in life.				
4.	My wife is satisfied with my work.				
5.	My children are satisfied with my work.				
6.	I am proud of my work and can declare this anywhere.				
7.	Conflicts at home do not affect my job performance.				
8.	My work does not allow me to attend social functions.				

9.	I do attend social function always.				
10.	My age is not affecting my job performance.				
11.	My sex does not interfere with the treatments I received from my workplace.				
12.	My sex is not affecting my productivity.				
13.	Religion is an important factor in a place of work.				
14.	My religion is affecting my productivity in my work place.				
15.	I often make use of my own initiatives in my workplace.				
16.	My temperament does not affect my relationship at work.				
17.	Disability does not affect productivity at workplace.				
18.	I have a positive attitude to work.				
19.	Personal interest does not affect my work performance.				
20.	Workers' problems do not affect my work performance.				
21.	A problem-free worker is a highly productive worker.				
22.	My financial situations do not always affect my performance at work.				
23.	When I have money, I work better.				
24.	When I am broke, my performance at work reduces.				
25	I appreciate the fact that my family is different from my work.				
26	I do not allow my family problems to affect my work schedule				
27	I separate my social life from my work				
28	I possess the skills to make me cope with my job as a civil servant				
29	My religion and religious beliefs do not affect my relationship and judgment at work.				
30	I separate religion from work relationship				
31	My mood has nothing to do with my work schedules.				
32	I have a good personality at work.				
33	I am a very cheerful and jovial person at work.				
34	I have very good social relations with all my co-workers.				
35	The number of children l have, does not have anything to do with my job.				
36	I give equal attention to my job as l do to all personal issues.				

Organisational Factors Scale

S/N	QUESTIONNAIRE- ITEMS	SA	A	SD	D
1.	Organisational Structure within the service has nothing to do with workers' performance.				
2.	Reporting to too many bosses does not have any impact on my performance.				
3.	Civil service reforms affect workers' performance.				
4.	Increase in salary positively affect workers' performance				
5.	Reduction in salary will negatively affect workers' performance				
6.	Giving incentives to workers affect their performance				
7.	Leadership style affects workers' performance				
8.	Democratic leadership enhances workers' performance better				
9.	Autocratic leadership enhances better performance regularly				
10.	Promotion enhances better job performance				
11.	Delay in promotion negatively affects worker' performance				
12.	Casual workers perform better on the job				
13	Workers perform better when they are working as permanent staff members				
14	Confirmation of appointment increases workers performance				
15	Threat of sack enhances better performance in workplace				
16	Laying off of some workers enables the remaining workers to perform better				
17	A conducive working environment enhances workers' performance				
18	A poor working environment negatively affects workers performance				
19	Workers perform better when their working environment is free from hazards				
20	A working environment that is hazardous does not enhance workers' performance				
21	The culture of my organisation enhances my job performance				
22	The culture of the civil service has no impact on my performance				
23	Conduciveness of the civil service enhances my job performance				
24	The civil service traditions have nothing to do with my job performance.				

Civil Servants' Performance Rating Scale

S/N	QUESTIONNAIRE-ITEM	SA	A	SD	D
1.	The current level of job performance in the civil service is very high				

2.	There is no need for improvement in the civil servants' performance				
3.	The current level of job performance should be sustained				
4.	A lot still needs to be done to improve the current level of performance in the civil service				
5.	Civil service should be reorganised to improve job performance				
6.	More incentives to workers improve job performance				
7.	Increase in salary and wages can improve workers performance				
8.	Introduction of new technology improves workers job performance				
9.	Reduction in bureaucracy improves civil servants job performance				
10.	Good leadership can bring about improvement in civil servants job performance				
11.	I am satisfied with my performance				
12.	My performance can be adjudged to be above average				
13.	I perform my responsibilities as at when necessary				
14.	I am always available at my duty posts				
15.	Most available performance measurement indicators are adequate				
16.	I put in my best in performing my job schedule.				
17.	I have good communication with my colleagues				
18	I enjoy good communication with my subordinates as well as my superiors.				
19	I have good interpersonal relationship with my co-workers				
20	I am disciplined at work				
21	I observe the ethics of the civil service.				
22	I take into cognizance all the rules and regulations as contained in the General Order (G.O) and other extant rules and regulations				
23	My commitment on the job is high				